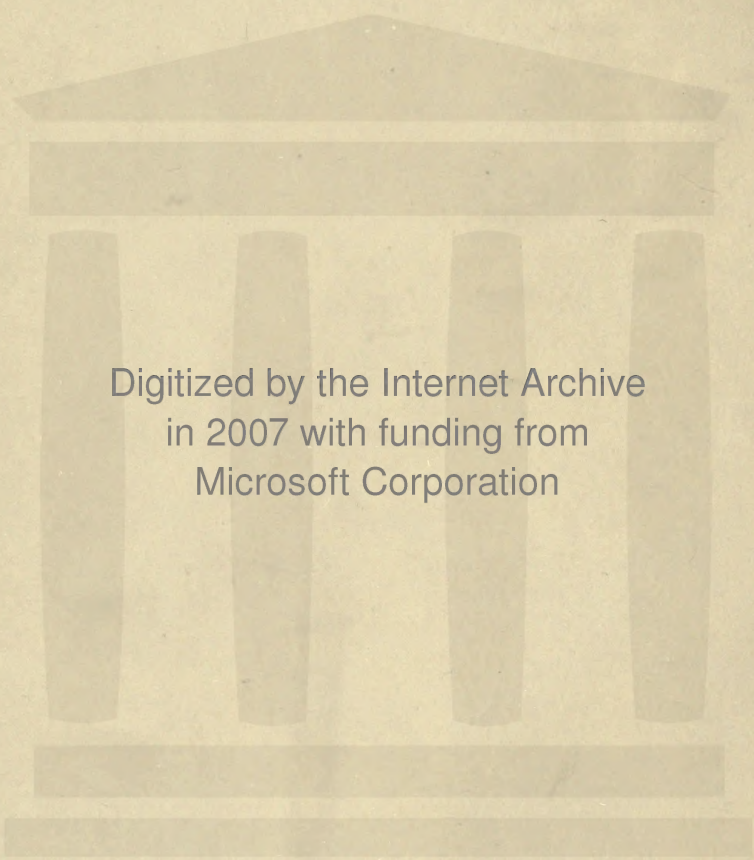

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THE SURVEY

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IMMIGRANT MOTHERHOOD

By ANTOINETTE B. HOLLISTER



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THE COMMON WELFARE

RESPONSE TO FLOOD CALLS

For the first time in the history of our great disasters, the country's machinery for relief has been found ready to move with that precision and efficiency which only careful previous organization could make possible. In the flood and tornado stricken regions of the Mississippi valley the Red Cross has given splendid evidence of the effectiveness of its scheme of organization and of its methods as worked out on the basis of experience at San Francisco, and as tested by the Minnesota and Michigan forest fires, the Cherry mine disaster, and the Mississippi floods of last year.

Utilizing the largest and ablest charity organization societies which serve as "institutional members," a force of executives and trained workers was instantly deployed. With foreknowledge of just what to do and how to do it, and without friction, these men and women have reinforced the spontaneous response to emergency of citizens and officials in the stricken communities.

Omaha's tornado had scarcely died down when Eugene T. Lies of the Chicago United Charities was on his way to the city. Ernest P. Bicknell, director of the National Red Cross, had reached Chicago, en route to Omaha, when news of the Ohio floods turned him back. The same news summoned Edward T. Devine from New York. It was Mr. Devine who organized the Red Cross relief work at San Francisco, following the earthquake and fire of 1908. Mr. Bicknell established headquarters at Columbus, itself badly in the grip of the waters. At Dayton Mr. Devine, C. M. Hubbard of the St. Louis Provident Association and T. J. Edmonds of the Cincinnati Associated Charities concentrated their services.

When Cincinnati and its vicinity needed help, Mr. Edmonds returned to his home city. The Omaha situation by this time could spare Mr. Lies for Dayton. To Piqua, Sidney and other Ohio and Indiana flood points went James F. Jackson of the Cleveland Associated Charities and other workers from various organizations. The news from the Ohio and other floods almost swamped that of an isolated disaster in Alabama where a tornado devastated the town of Lower Peachtree. To handle the relief at this point the Red Cross dispatched William M. McGrath of the Birmingham Associated Charities, who had seen service a year ago in the Mississippi floods.

To work under the direction of these executives, agents have been drafted from the staffs of charitable organizations scattered throughout the entire middle West, and even as far east as New York. Close co-operation was at once established between this force, hastily organized local committees and various branches of federal and state government service. In Ohio the resources, equipment and staffs of the army, the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, the life-saving service, the militia, the naval militia, and state departments of public health, have all been applied promptly to the problem of emergency relief. Governor Cox of Ohio, as ex-officio chairman of the Ohio Red Cross State Commission, did much to assure this early co-operation.

Following the first work of rescue and relief, sanitation looms up as one of the gravest problems of the Indiana and Ohio valleys. Immediately upon the arrival of the secretary of war at Dayton a sanitary officer was appointed, who divided the city into sixteen districts, each in charge of a district sanitary officer. Each of these selected his own staff from among local physicians and volunteer physicians from other cities. Red Cross nurses in considerable numbers were early supplied. Instructions in brief form have been sent broadcast over the city giving definite directions to the inhabitants for the safeguarding of health. The sewer and water systems are being reopened as rapidly as possible.

Early this week the expectation was that, although the dead in the city would not total 200, it would be necessary to feed many thousands of people for a week and several thousand for several weeks. The Dayton situation, though more severe, was typical of what was to be found in other stricken towns.

The extent of the Omaha disaster is already reported in statistics which are said to be complete and accurate. The summary includes: 115 lives lost; 322 seriously injured; at least 1,000 slightly injured; 822 houses destroyed; 2,100 houses partially wrecked; property loss estimated at $7,500,000; 733 families being fed in relief stations (March 30); 59 dead; 150 injured and $1,000,000 property loss in surrounding towns. Efforts are being made by the real estate exchange to prevent the raising of rents. The

plans suggested for rebuilding include a county bond issue of $1,000,000 and the securing of other money from the packing and railroad companies to be loaned without interest.

President Wilson's call to the nation for relief, and the quick action of governors and mayors in rallying their states and cities, started emergency supplies and funds for supplementing the tents, blankets and rations which the army and militia had rushed into the field. The National Cash Register Company, whose undamaged factories in Dayton were of great value in providing shelter and space for relief administration, secured through its officers in other cities supplies and money which were promptly forwarded. The company officials did much to systematize the local relief, and department heads assumed charge of different divisions of the work. Organization charts and diagrams were printed at the factory so that the people of the city could act intelligently.

Early this week the relief funds were reported to have reached $408,000 in New York, $300,000 in Chicago, $105,000 in Boston, and varying sums in other cities. Most of the money was contributed through the Red Cross. Contributions received at its Washington headquarters totalled $816,000, with New York first, Massachusetts second and Illinois third in size of contributions.

Some small gifts were as significant as the larger ones. A young man who appeared to be a poorly paid clerk came to the Red Cross office in New York at the noon hour last Friday and pulled from his pocket a five dollar and a one dollar bill. The person in charge asked him if he was not giving more than his share, and suggested that he keep the one dollar bill. "No," said he, "I've kept some small change for carfare and lunch, and tomorrow's pay day." One letter accompanying a small contribution read:

"Just one short year ago, when the ill-fated Titanic deprived me of mine all, the Red Cross Society lost not a moment in coming to my aid. Through you I now wish to give my 'widow's mite' to help the stricken ones in the West, and I only wish I could make it a thousand times as much."

Emergency supplies and funds have been prompt and abundant, but the extensive work ahead of lifting household and community life out of desolation justifies and requires a very large fund. For, as Mr. Devine, with the San Francisco catastrophe in the background of his experience, telegraphed after reaching Dayton: "The disaster is appalling even if the loss of life is less than it was feared."

Spontaneous contributions through a variety of channels are usually sufficient for immediate needs, and the Red Cross is following its customary policy of reserving as much of its funds as possible for permanent rehabilitation. When a disaster comes in any part of the country the nearest "institutional members" of the Red Cross at once dispatch trained members of their staffs to the scene. Each organization has an "emergency box" containing, convenient for carrying, an equipment including detailed printed instructions, record cards, Red Cross flag, expense sheets, vouchers, etc. The use of this equipment, especially the uniform record cards, which have been carefully prepared on the basis of the San Francisco experience, means that help is not lost or wasted, but gets to the people who need it most. Even more important, it means that help is given not merely to keep victims of the disaster from starvation and exposure during the weeks immediately following, but to afford a reasonable lift on the road to the recovery of the standard of living maintained before the disaster.

A RELIEF SURVEY BY THE SAGE FOUNDATION

This emphasis on rehabilitation is the message of a report[1] which, by a coincidence, was on the press for the Russell Sage Foundation when news of tornado and flood came from the middle West. It is the first comprehensive review of emergent relief work following great disasters. It is based on the San Francisco experience and put forth as a "book of ready reference for use on occasions of special emergency."

The volume presents a study of the organization and methods of relief following the San Francisco earthquake and fire, made for the Foundation by a group of people who held responsible positions in connection with the relief work. It is to appear on April 18, the seventh anniversary of the disaster.

For the assistance of those in the middle West upon whom heavy responsibilities came so suddenly, the Sage Foundation sent out post haste advance copies of the first two sections of the report as a practical handbook to charity organizations in and near the stricken regions.

The Relief Survey is divided into six parts: Organization and Emergency Period; Rehabilitation; Business Rehabilitation; Housing Rehabilitation; After Care; The Aged and Infirm. Some of the prime points emphasized for the "Organization and Emergency Period" are the following:

1. The recognition of the American National Red Cross, with its permanent organization, its governmental status, and its direct accountabil-

[1] San Francisco Relief Survey. By Charles J. O'Connor, Francis H. McLean and others. Survey Associates, Inc., for the Russell Sage Foundation. To be published April 18, the seventh anniversary of the San Francisco earthquake. Price postpaid $3.50. Orders for delivery on publication day may be sent to THE SURVEY.

ity to Congress for all expenditures, as the proper national agency through which relief funds for great disasters should be collected and administered; thus securing unity of effort, certainty of policy, and a center about which all local relief agencies may rally.

2. The importance of postponing the appointment of sub-committees until a strong central committee has been able to determine general policies and methods of procedure. The hasty organization of sub-committees at San Francisco resulted in much unnecessary overlapping effort and some friction when committees got in each other's way. The relief forces were not united until a whole week after the disaster, and after unfortunate difficulty and bitterness.

3. The desirability of contributions, especially those in kind, being sent without restrictions, as only the local organization is able to measure relative needs at different periods of the work. At San Francisco much pitifully needless suffering was caused through the unwise restrictions imposed by those who sent funds or supplies from distant states. The delays in securing authority for the wise use of these contributions were well nigh intolerable. The only safe course lies in placing implicit trust in an efficient and recognized director of relief such as the Red Cross is in a position to furnish.

4. The value of utilizing for emergency administration a body so highly organized and so efficient as the United States Army, to take charge of camps, and to bring to points of distribution the supplies required for those in need of food and clothing.

5. The wisdom of reducing the bread line and the camp population as quickly as possible after the disaster so that the relief resources may be conserved to meet the primary need of rehabilitation. The care used in emergency expenditures means much in husbanding resources so that permanent rehabilitation may be efficient and thorough.

6. The need of establishing a central bureau of information to serve from the beginning of the relief work as a clearing house, to prevent confusion and waste through duplication of effort.

7. The necessity of utilizing the centers of emergency distribution for the later rehabilitation work of district communities and corps of visitors.

8. The necessity of incorporation for any relief organization that has to deal with so large a disaster.

9. The possibility of a strict audit of all relief in cash sent to a relief organization. The impossibility of an equally strict accounting for relief in kind, because of the many leaks and the difficulties attendant upon hurried distribution. Care in this direction is assured if the Red Cross is fully utilized.

Nothing can take the place, the editors of the Relief Survey testify, of the spirit and devotion of the local committees. At San Francisco the citizens showed splendid self-reliance and faith in the future, which enabled them to rebound from fortune's sudden blow, and show what sustained and co-operative effort can achieve. But the most important factor, especially for permanent rehabilitation, in so great and complex a relief problem is a trained staff. This the American Red Cross, through the co-operation of charity organization societies throughout the country, is constantly prepared to bring together on short notice. Mr. Bicknell represented the Red Cross at San Francisco after Mr. Devine's departure, and was thus unusually well equipped to plan the methods which the Red Cross has devised for emergency use.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION AND THE EXTRA SESSION

An open letter was sent to President Wilson this week over forty-five signatures, urging the importance of a group of social measures which were neither voted down nor passed at the last session of Congress. In the opinion of the signers, among whom are included some of the Democratic leaders who have been foremost in social reform, this overhanging social legislation should be definitely acted upon at the extra session. The movement to this end was encouraged by the positions taken by President Wilson in his inaugural address.

The letter is the outgrowth of a meeting of men and women interested in social legislation held last week in New York at the call of Edward T. Devine as associate editor of THE SURVEY. The signatures to the document are those of individuals solely. The particular measures will be urged at the forthcoming Congress by such national organizations as the American Association for Labor Legislation, National Consumers League, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, National Child Labor Committee, the American Prison Labor Association and the Gloucester Fisherman's Institute. While each organization is committed only to the measures in its own field, all of them have a common interest in seeing that the extra session takes up social legislation in addition to the tariff and currency. The letter follows:

THE PRESIDENT,
The White House,
Washington, D. C.

Dear Mr. President:—

On the eve of the convening of the Sixty-Third Congress in special session, the undersigned desire to bring to your attention certain bills of importance which have received the favorable consideration of the last Congress, but which, owing to various reasons, failed of affirmative action.

Nothing could set more vividly before the country the urgency of such measures than the words of your inaugural address, in which you pointed out the need for perfecting the means by

which the government may be put at the service of humanity in safeguarding the health of the nation, the health of its men and its women and its children, as well as their rights in the struggle for existence. The country has been stirred by your declaration:

> "This is no sentimental duty. The firm basis of government is justice, not pity. These are matters of justice. There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. Society must see to it that it does not itself crush or weaken or damage its own constituent parts."

The undersigned are aware that the time and energy of Congress will be largely expended upon the revision of the revenue and currency statutes. Without in any way meaning to minimize the importance of these subjects, we wish to lay emphasis upon what we believe to be the necessity for the passage of certain other measures directly affecting the health and happiness of hundreds of thousands of citizens. The legislative proposals which we present to you are not new; several of them have met with little open opposition; some have been passed by one house of Congress; others by both; all have been prepared by experts and are based upon tried principles already embodied either in the federal laws, in the laws of the various states, or in the laws of other nations. An example is the bill which aims to compensate workingmen employed in interstate commerce for accidents to life and limb. Another is the eight-hour bill for women in the District of Columbia, which was lost through an accident in the closing hours of the last Congress.

The measures which had not passed when Congress adjourned and which are herewith advocated are as follows. It is the principles underlying these several bills rather than the specific provisions of any measure that we wish to be understood as urging upon the attention of the President and Congress:

Providing compensation for federal employes suffering injury or occupational diseases in the course of their employment.

Providing compensation for employes in interstate commerce suffering injury in the course of their employment.

Harmonizing conflicting court decisions in different states by giving the state itself the right of appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States.

Establishing the eight-hour day for women employed in certain occupations in the District of Columbia.

Co-ordinating the federal health activities and strengthening the public health service.

Providing in the immigration act for mental examination of immigrants by alienists; safeguarding the welfare of immigrants at sea by detailing American medical officers and matrons to immigrant-carrying ships.

Providing a hospital ship for American deep-sea fishermen.

Providing for the betterment of the conditions of American seamen.

Establishing a commission to investigate jails and the correction of first offenders.

Abolishing the contract convict labor system by restricting interstate commerce in prison-made goods.

Legislation giving effect to the principles underlying such proposals as these would constitute, we believe, an important step in the accomplishment of the forward-looking purposes which you have placed before the American people.

Caroline B. Alexander	Paul U. Kellogg
Frederic Almy	John A. Kingsbury
Louise de Koven Bowen	Constance D. Leupp
Louis D. Brandeis	Samuel McCune Lindsay
Howard S. Braucher	Charles S. Macfarland
Allen T. Burns	W. N. McNair
Charles C. Burlingham	Charles E. Merriam
Richard C. Cabot	Adelbert Moot
Richard S. Childs	Henry Morgenthau
John R. Commons	Frances Perkins
Charles R. Crane	Charles R. Richards
Edward T. Devine	Margaret Drier Robins
Abram I. Elkus	W. L. Russell
H. D. W. English	Thomas W. Salmon
Livingston Farrand	Henry R. Seager
Homer Folks	Thomas A. Storey
Ernst Freund	Graham Taylor
John M. Glenn	Graham Romeyn Taylor
Josephine Goldmark	Lillian D. Wald
T. J. Keenan	James R. West
Florence Kelley	W. F. Willoughby
Howard A. Kelly	Stephen S. Wise
Arthur P. Kellogg	Robert A. Woods

COMPULSORY MINIMUM WAGE LAW IN OREGON

Oregon's minimum wage law,[1] which was recently signed by Governor West, is the first one in America to have a compulsory clause. Failure to pay the rate of wages fixed and in the method provided by the law is punishable by fine or imprisonment or both. In Massachusetts, the first state to establish minimum wage boards, the only penalty is the publication of the names of offending employers in four newspapers in the county where their industries are located.

The Oregon law applies only to women and children. It prohibits their employment in any occupation in which the sanitary or other conditions are detrimental to health or morals, or for wages "which are inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living and maintain them in health." It likewise forbids the employment of

[1] See Minimum Wage Legislation by Florence Kelley, on page 9 of this issue.

minors "for unreasonably low wages." An Industrial Welfare Commission is created to determine minimum wages, maximum hours and standard conditions of labor.

The commission is authorized to call a conference of representatives of the employers, the employes and the general public to investigate and make recommendations as to the minimum wage to be paid in a given industry. If the commission approves these recommendations they become obligatory. The powers of the Oregon commission to determine hours and conditions of health and morals are more extensive than those delegated to an industrial commission by the legislature of any other state. The members of the commission are to be appointed by the governor.

The successful campaign for this law and the drafting of the bill itself, was based upon an extensive investigation conducted by the Social Survey Committee of the Oregon Consumers' League. Wages, work conditions, and cost of living, were studied in Portland and elsewhere throughout the state. The inquiry was directed by a trained investigator, Caroline J. Gleason of Minneapolis, formerly a student of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. The work was started in August 1912 and the information covered 7603 women wage earners in Portland and 1133 throughout the rest of the state. Wage statistics were tabulated for 4523, and are particularly valuable in the case of the department stores which placed their pay rolls at the disposal of the survey committee. Generous co-operation from committees in twenty-five counties of the state was secured.

In the drafting of the bill the experience of the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Board was studied. Legal advice was secured and the constitutionality of the measure is upheld in an opinion by the attorney general of the state.

Social workers from Washington and California have been in touch with the investigation and the preparation of the bill. They have arranged to have bills drawn up on the same lines introduced as soon as the legislatures of their own states convene. The passage of the same measure by the three coast states is regarded by the social workers in each as a desirable and important piece of uniform legislation for an area in which industrial conditions and problems are similar.

The Social Survey Committee in its report gives the principles and facts which form the basis of the demand for the legislation as follows:

1. Each industry should provide for the livelihood of the workers employed in it. An industry which does not do so is parasitic. The well-being of society demands that wage-earning women shall not be required to subsidize from their earnings the industry in which they are employed.

2. Owing to the lack of organization among women workers and the secrecy with which their wage schedules are guarded, there are absolutely no standards of wages among them. Their wages are determined for the most part by the will of the employer without reference to efficiency or length of service on the part of the worker. This condition is radically unjust.

3. The wages paid to women workers in most occupations are miserably inadequate to meet the cost of living at the lowest standards consistent with the maintenance of the health and morals of the workers. Nearly three-fifths of the women employed in industries in Portland receive less than $10 a week, which is the minimum weekly wage that ought to be offered to any self-supporting woman wage-earner in this city.

4. The present conditions of labor for women in many industries are shown by this report to be gravely detrimental to their health; and since most women wage-earners are potential mothers, the future health of the race is menaced by these unsanitary conditions.

A NEW FEDERAL AGENCY FOR SETTLING STRIKES

An important power vested in Secretary Wilson of the new federal Department of Labor, which has hitherto practically escaped attention, gives to him the right assumed by President Roosevelt, when he initiated the machinery for settling the coal strike of 1902. The provision referred to in the law creating the department reads as follows:

"That the secretary of labor shall have power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done."

Speaking of this section Secretary Wilson gave this interview to the *Washington Post*:

"The secretary of labor, by the terms of the act creating the new department, is empowered to act as mediator in disputes between labor and employers. The policy to which I shall adhere during my administration will be to do all I can to bring labor and capital together in mutual conferences, so that they may settle their own differences."

It has been pointed out that this power can be invoked at the will of the secretary. In this way he can bring public attention to bear upon any labor dispute which he believes warrants his official notice. Mr. Wilson has as yet given no indication as to how frequently he expects to use this power. Attention has also been called to the fact that this section may have an important effect upon the Erdman Act for settling transportation strikes.

FINGER PRINTS

TEN CENTS

KATHARINE ANTHONY

It was in a small restaurant in the downtown business district. The girl who came in and sat down opposite me at the "table for ladies" was clearly "office help." She could not have been more than sixteen, and in the boyish-looking brown velvet hat that she wore she appeared scarcely that. Her manner had little of the self-assertiveness so commonly seen in the young girl wage-earner.

"How much is the veg'tubble soup?" she asked the waiter in a confiding tone.

"Ten cents," he said.

The price appeared satisfactory and the waiter went away with his very brief order. While the young girl waited, she caught my eye.

"It's cold today," she remarked, with a winning smile and an air of taking me into her confidence as she had done with the waiter.

"A bit chilly, yes."

"He don't let me down to dinner till so late," she continued, "sometimes half-past one. You get hungry, and then you get over being hungry, and then you don't want nothing when you do go down. You know?"

Yes, I recognized the experience.

"The office where I used to work, we went out to dinner right at twelve every day."

"What keeps you so late now?"

"I guess he just forgets to let me down. He forgets to go out himself, I think."

The waiter brought the soup, a watery looking fluid in which floated a tomato and an onion in partial dissolution. He placed beside the plate a dingy blue check which bore in large print 10c.

"When I'm there a month, I'm going to ask him to let me down every day at a regular hour," she went on. "I'm only there a week now, so I wouldn't ask him yet."

She tasted the soup, but it was apparently not to her liking, or else, as she had said, her appetite had gone when the first feeling of hunger had passed. She glanced at the dirty blue check which committed her to her choice for better or worse, and then tried another spoonful of soup.

"I used to take a cup of coffee and a Charlotte 'roosh' every day, but my mother said I'd starve. She told me I'd got to have soup, it was more stren'thening."

"She was quite right, of course."

"But what's the use of ordering it if you can't eat it after all?"

She regarded the plate disconsolately. A little rallying induced her to make another effort. Then she gave it up entirely.

"I wonder what my mother would say if she could see me now!"

"I wonder!"

Taking two nickels from her small rusty bag, she rose, leaving the plate of cold soup almost untouched. She said good-by with her peculiarly friendly little smile, deposited the blue check and the two nickels at the cash counter, and went back to her afternoon's work.

WILLIAM, A MODERN DRAMA[1]

The curtain is about to fall upon a human drama as full of complicating agencies and dramatic ironies as the most exacting either of Greeks or of moderns could require.

The dramatis personae are: a colored youth of twenty-two years; his aged mother (the father disappeared while the youth was still a child in Kansas); a friend who failed him and then too late repented; a partner; a dishonest clerk; a lawyer of similar type; and a judge according to the letter of the law. The acts are only three and brief.

Act I shows William at work for a large firm in Missouri at $9 a week. He manages to live on $3, sending $6 to his mother. He could not write; she could not read. But the weekly money order became the tryst of mother and son, and by it she knew that all was well with him. Among his fellow workmen was one, also a William, who seemed friendly and like William I, anxious to live economically. The two Williams shared a room, and all went well for about three months.

One pay day, William II borrowed from William I the $6 that should go to the mother, but only for a day or so, to be returned surely before the end of the week. But the man disappeared, and with him vanished the money. Then William I went to the little clothes press, and not having a suit of his own, took one of William II's, and pawned it for $6, and sent the money to his mother according to his word. That night, repentant but penniless, William II returned. He expressed himself as well pleased with what had been done with his suit, satisfied to have the money raised by any means possible. So the two, reconciled, slept. But William II rising early in the morning, went for an officer, and charging his room-mate with theft, had him arrested.

"He slep' with me all night there, and in the mawnin' he don' have me arrested!"—thus William I mourned his false friend.

So Act I closes with our hero in the peniten-

[1] Drawn from the records of the Juvenile Protective Association, Chicago.

tiary, locked in for two years. But William II's repentance bore a late fruit. During the two years, he sent out of his own money each week the $6 to the mother of his friend, that she might never know the truth.

* * *

Act II shows William working in different places, and for short times, as is the fate of "jail-birds." At last in company with George he opens a restaurant, and prospers, and is popular. Then his evil fate overtakes him. Invited to be door-keeper at a dance one night, he left George in charge of the restaurant. George apparently went out on business of his own, and presently the clerk followed his example, donning for the time a coat of William's. But the clerk needed money; there was none in the pockets of the coat; and so, at a convenient corner, he waylaid a Chinese, relieved him of his funds, and left William's coat by way of compensation. Easily identified by the coat and papers in its pockets, William was as easily arrested—and as easily sentenced. The trial was a farce. A lawyer was appointed by the court. This lawyer took his client's indictment papers, ignored his client, called no witnesses, heard the sentence, and drew his fee.

William appealed to the Pardon Board. But at the time of this appeal, neither George nor the other door-keeper at that dance could be found to prove an alibi for William. The board asked: "have you ever been in prison before?" Alas for William! He could not say no; the board would not listen to his version and investigate the facts. His own truthfulness condemned him, and he was sent up on a five years' sentence.

* * *

The setting of Act III is the penitentiary. Falsely accused, without opportunity to prove his innocence, neglected by the lawyer paid to defend him, William, being only a Negro, toiled faithfully in a stone quarry, accumulating a reputation undesirable in the eyes of the world and the law. One day his foot was injured by the crusher. Then after months of stone dust, his lungs became infected. But at last word of his case reached the Juvenile Protective Association, and presently successful proof of his innocence of all connection with the attack on the Chinese was secured, and William was paroled from prison.

How far he may recover from the injuries received during this imprisonment remains to be seen. How much of opportunity to work and support himself and the aged mother society will offer an injured Negro with two prison records is a grave question. But the matter may be settled by the quiet falling of the curtain upon the sad little drama of the life of William.—S.

EDITORIAL GRIST

JOHN PIERPONT MORGAN
1837-1913

Mr. Morgan was for seventeen years treasurer of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York which founded THE SURVEY and under which it was published until the fall of 1912. When, in 1907, the parent society launched Charities Publication Committee in order "to give national scope and breadth" to the magazine, Mr. Morgan was one of fifteen guarantors who gave $1,000 each the initial year to promote its educational work. Last summer he gave $250, the sum asked from him, toward the clearance of an overhanging deficit, in advance of the institution of the Survey Associates as an independent and co-operative undertaking.

The public's chief concern in Mr. Morgan's great activities has been the play of his powerful individuality in the rapid reconstruction of the "mass of wrecked corporations which blocked the path of American finance" following the panic of 1893, and in "heading the forces of conservatism in the great business emergency" of 1907; his part as the "immense constructive genius" throughout the period of expansion in America's "large creative activities."

The "economic necessity or value of the enormous industrial combinations" shaped at his hands will, in the words of the New York *Evening Post,* "be the crux of later historical controversy over the great career now ended"; and the same is true of the ultimate effects on the working life of the people of his instrumentality in extending the country's railroads, in improving its banking, and in projecting its facilities for the manufacture of large staples.

Said Major Henry L. Higginson, New England's foremost philanthropist and financier, in commenting on Mr. Morgan's death: "To make a great fortune is little; to be a great citizen is much." THE SURVEY will, in an early issue, publish an appreciation of other phases of Mr. Morgan's trenchant personality by an associate in the fields of art and philanthropy.

Here, one circumstance which concerns this magazine closely may be set down. The Pittsburgh Survey was made at a period of restlessness and irritation in many high quarters, following a succession of investigations and exposures. The period was also one of sensitiveness among every day people lest the organs of publicity might be controlled by invisible influences. *Charities and the Commons* (as THE

SURVEY was then called) bore Mr. Morgan's name as treasurer on its contents page while its staff was delving into the Pittsburgh district. The Pittsburgh Survey was conceived not for the purpose of internal counsel and report, but for the purpose of spreading before the public the facts as to life and labor in the region, where the two greatest individual fortunes in history had been made by Mr. Morgan's contemporaries, where he had in turn become the dominant factor, and where social tendencies observable everywhere had "actually, because of the high industrial development and the great industrial activity, had the opportunity to give tangible proof of their real character and their inevitable goal."

It must remain for Mr. Morgan's business associates to say how much affirmative concern he had given or came to give to the working conditions in those industries in which he controlled vast holdings, or to such far-reaching reforms as the safety campaign. But the staff of the Pittsburgh Survey can bear witness that no word of admonition ever reached them, no trace of pressure to minimize or gloss over or reserve for private consumption the human outcroppings of a thousand million dollar corporation. The situation did not change after our first strictures as to the seven-day week, the twelve-hour day, work accidents and the like had been spread broadcast. If they reached Mr. Morgan's ears, he was willing to let this left hand of philanthropic inquiry take the exact social measure of what had been done or left undone in the fiscal and industrial enterprises in which he was the master entrepreneur.

MR. WEST'S ARTICLE[1] PROTESTED

NIGHT LETTER

CHARLESTON, W. VA.,
March 30, 1912.

"Owing to delayed trains, did not reach home nor receive your telegram of Friday until last night. West manuscript received and read this morning. Am directed to renew protest against its publication as contrary to facts in most important particulars and most unfair in attitude and spirit. An article published in your journal on a matter so important should be prepared by one of your own staff from facts gathered by your own investigator. Am authorized to place in your hands immediately five hundred dollars, being amount estimated by you as necessary to cover expense of special examination and article, and urge you in justice and fairness to accept and use it for the purpose. It is impossible to prepare an answer to the West article and have it in your hands tomorrow, nor is one-fifth the space given West article sufficient for an adequate reply thereto. If you decline to make your own investigation and report, it is submitted that justice requires that time be given so that West article and reply may appear in same issue and space equal to article be given for reply. If you refuse this I respectfully ask the publication of this protest with Mr. West's paper."

[Signed] NEIL ROBINSON.
[Secretary West Virginia Mining Association.]

[1]See Civil War in the West Virginia Coal Mines on page 7 of this issue.

In line with the general practice of THE SURVEY when an article makes major charges against an institution or industry—a copy of Mr. West's manuscript was sent on March 20 to the secretary of the West Virginia Mining Association, with a request that he indicate any points which "seem to you in error."

On March 26 THE SURVEY received a letter from Mr. Robinson, who called in person the day following to protest against the publication of the article as unfair, and not of the calibre expected of THE SURVEY by the public. He also offered us every facility if we would make an independent staff investigation. We stated that such a staff inquiry in the West Virginia field was beyond our means, that we had exercised due care in selecting Mr. West as a non-combatant observer, and that the manuscript had stood the test of criticism in various quarters. Further, we stated that if Mr. Robinson could there and then dislodge the major statements of fact in the article, we would surely not publish it; otherwise, we would hold two pages of the same issue of THE SURVEY open until Monday of this week for a statement in rebuttal.

In the interval a galley proof of the article was sent Mr. Robinson containing revisions to cover minor points of criticism made by him and other critics. Later issues of THE SURVEY are open to the West Virginia operators for a full reply; and the findings of a federal inquiry which would resourcefully and dispassionately cover the ground would, of course, be handled at length.

Y. M. C. A. GROWTH

The Young Men's Christian Association began in 1851, sixty-two years ago. The property value in plant and equipment, increased in the first ten years of the twentieth century more than in all the previous fifty years; the membership doubled, a tremendous growth.

Y. M. C. A.	1900	1910
Associations	1,439	2,017
Buildings	359	700
Property value	$20,000,000	$70,000,000
Membership	252,000	500,000
Annual current outlay	$2,900,000	$7,163,000

Will the next decade show a like growth for organized charity with proper effort?

THE TOWN CONSTABLE

J. J. KELSO

The town constable is one of the most important links in the chain of social service, and yet he is seldom taken into consideration by the active workers for social betterment.

A town constable was recently held up to public censure at a church meeting for failure to wipe out certain well-known evils. When asked about it the next day his reply was: "The law is being enforced in this town just as far as the people will stand for." His idea, you see, was that observance of law was a matter of education, of moral backing, and without this strong, sustaining support, one man, even with a badge and a club, could not go beyond a certain point.

The idea got into another constable's head once that his duty was to carry out the law, no matter what people thought about it, and to his great surprise it was not long before his resignation was insisted upon. He did splendid service and really frightened law-breakers, so much so that they got busy in bringing about his downfall. Where were the good people? Entirely missing. Here and there a man under his breath would give the official a word of faint praise, but in the council church members allowed themselves to be made the tools for his destruction. "Well meaning, but lacking in judgment" was the decision; "rash, hasty, ill-advised," and so he had to go in disgrace, while the law-breakers smiled quietly and continued on in the old way. Public meetings in that town still continue to denounce the well-known evils, indifferent to the fate of the officer who thought he had all the forces of good at his back.

Still another constable, whom I know well, told me privately that he started out in the same way, but got a hint that he could not hold his situation and, having a young family to support, he concluded it would be the part of wisdom to let well enough alone, especially as the men who counselled him were church leaders, who ought to know the sentiment of the town on moral questions.

Some towns have a high moral tone largely because of the good influence of the head of the police department. Others are on a low plane of moral observance because the constable is indifferent, if not indeed hostile, to advance measures. Lack of encouragement and appreciation is often the secret of this indifference.

Visiting a town on one occasion to take part in a meeting on social reform, I asked the constable who happened to be at the station if he knew Rev. S. Thomas Strother. "No."

"Well, do you know Rev. Milton Smoot?

Receiving another negative, I enquired in surprise, "Why surely you are acquainted with the preachers of your town?"

"No," he said, in a surly tone, "they have no use for the likes of me." Here was a man, specially appointed guardian of the town and invested with the high dignity of safeguarding the lives, morals and property of the community, whose mental attitude toward the better element was evidently one of hostility. The explanation given me later was that he was a recent appointee, only there a month, and there was not sufficient time to get acquainted. "Well," I replied, "if I had been you people I would have gotten up a banquet and given him such a welcome as would hearten him in his great work for years to come." It is all in the way you look at these things.

At a large church gathering on social welfare I took occasion to exalt the office of constable and to praise the man who held that office. He was at the back of the hall and I could see was greatly surprised at this recognition. He came to me afterwards and earnestly expressed his thanks. "No one has given me that much encouragement before," he said, "and it will help me a great deal, especially as I want the young fellows of the town to know I am their friend and not their enemy."

Social and church workers, let the town constable know that he is appreciated, let him feel that good work is recognized, that if he is attacked because of fearless discharge of his duty, he will have behind him an unflinching body of men who will make his trouble theirs and fight for a righteous cause as well as talk at church meetings.

MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION

FLORENCE KELLEY

Secretary National Consumers' League

Governor West of Oregon has signed a bill creating a Minimum Wage Commission. Oregon thus follows Massachusetts in this new field of industrial legislation. Minimum wage bills have been introduced in the legislatures of California, Kansas, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin. The New York Factory Investigating Commission will doubtless be continued and empowered to investigate wages.

The Oregon law and all the pending bills have one characteristic in common: they are alarmingly undemocratic. They fail to afford to American employes in underpaid industries those democratic safeguards which characterize English and Australian legislation. They apply to women, oblivious of the fact that wives and daughters work because their man breadwinner does not earn enough to support the family. These laws and bills ignore the youth and shifting nature of the working force in the under-

paid industries which is so largely made up of young girls. They need the moral support of their men fellow-workers in negotiating about wages.

In America the governor appoints the commission, and the commission selects the wage board. The board determines the lowest wage and the women and girls take what they get. The recipients of the wages are not allowed to elect representatives to the boards. They are, in fact, not represented at all. The Kansas bill was killed by the legislature. It substituted "an adjuster" for commission and boards.

If these other ill-considered bills become laws, it will be the work of years to remodel them on more democratic lines, and on wise and just principles in the light of the experience of Australia and England.

"THE HAND OF THE POTTER TREMBLES"

SOLON DE LEON

To lead poisoning among lead smelters, white lead workers and painters, we have grown accustomed. Now comes the revelation of widespread plumbism, or "potters' palsy," among workers in the potteries.

Trenton, New Jersey, the third largest pottery center in the country, has recently been the scene of a brief study conducted by the American Association for Labor Legislation. Brief as was the study it revealed many cases of this disease.

One case was that of a fifteen-year-old orphan, as dipper's helper in a pottery. He handles cups and saucers after they have received their coat of glaze and before they are taken to the kiln. He gets his hands covered with glaze. There are no washing facilities at the plant where he works. When visited at home he had spots of white lead over the front of his shirt. After nine months as dipper's helper he began to complain of general ill health, with pains in the stomach. He worked interruptedly for another month, and finally came down with an attack of acute and excruciatingly painful poisoning which required a week's hospital treatment.

A young girl, now married and a mother, worked in a tile plant for six years, the last three of which she was a dipper. Within three months after starting the latter work she suffered a typical violent lead colic attack, accompanied by nausea and digestive derangements. The attack lasted a week, and was followed by three more at intervals of several months.

A former glost kilnman of forty-five had worked in the Trenton potteries continuously for upwards of twenty years. Five years ago he was stricken with complete double wrist-drop and for two years was totally incapacitated.

Another practically useless pair of hands belongs to a workman forty-nine years old. Lead poisoning crippled him and deprived him of his trade at the age of thirty-three. He used to be a "ground layer." That is, he rubbed lead colors with a short brush into the surfaces to be decorated. In the course of fifteen years he had eight or ten severe attacks. In the last one, sixteen years ago, both arms were paralyzed. For two years he had to be clothed and fed. Now his arms have recovered their flexibility, but his hands still hang shrivelled and powerless to open or straighten themselves. For a livelihood he has been forced to take up an unskilled job requiring no manual work, but seven days' labor a week.

A color mixer in a tile works began after ten years to suffer from cramps in the stomach, nausea and biliousness. A number of physicians told him it was lead colic. He grew steadily worse, and four years later he died. The death certificate gives pulmonary tuberculosis as the cause, but the physicians on the case agreed in stating that lead formed at least a considerable complication.

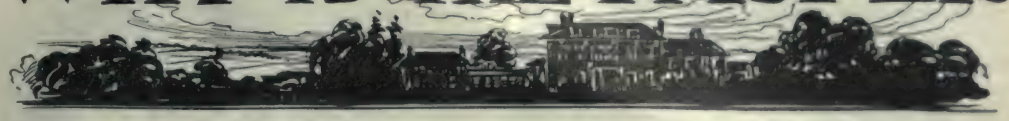
So run the records of a few of the cases.

There are about 21,000 potters, tile makers and enamelers of iron sanitary ware in the United States. Of these, 2,500 or over 10 per cent are declared by Dr. Alice Hamilton in her report to the United States government to be exposed in the regular course of their work to the risk of lead poisoning. Within two years 510 cases of poisoning were found.

It is now generally accepted that the one word "cleanliness" sums up the requirements for the abolition of such occurrences. Yet the workshops in the pottery and allied industries are at present almost without exception run with utter disregard of this fundamental consideration. They are as a rule dusty, ill-ventilated and poorly lighted. Washing facilities are almost unknown.

In New Jersey and in seven other states the legislatures have now pending before them the aptly christened "cleanliness bill," drafted by the Association for Labor Legislation after careful study to counteract just these conditions. The proposed measure establishes strict sanitary provisions in potteries and all works making or handling lead salts. It takes a leaf from successful English and German legislation by establishing "duties of employes" as well as "duties of employers," and by fixing a fine for failure to comply. The bill has passed the lower house in Missouri, and has been reported favorably by the lower house committee to which it was referred in Ohio and in New Jersey. A similar law has been in force in Illinois for two years with excellent results. Many progressive manufacturers admit the wisdom of these regulations and will not oppose them. Others are actively in favor.

WHY IS THE PAUPER



SUGGESTIVE FACTS AS TO CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF DESTITUTION REVEALED BY A STUDY OF A MID-WESTERN ALMSHOUSE[1]

GEORGE THOMAS PALMER, M. D.
SUPERINTENDENT HEALTH DEPARTMENT, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

Drawings by Alfred S. Harkness

POORHOUSE it was, this mid-western abode of unfortunates, regardless of the resolution of the Conference of Charities and Correction recommending that it and its host of fellows be known as "county homes."



This particular poorhouse was comfortably perched upon a hill, surrounded by elms and oaks and walnuts, overlooking a land of plenty—a "prosperous-looking" poorhouse it was with well-bred holstein cows wading knee-deep in clover on land worth $250 an acre. The verdant pastures, the fields of grain, the white fences, the silo and the barns, the splendid old brick house, might have belonged to a delightful country estate so apparently did they bespeak good farm management. Good order and spick-and-spanness also characterized broad verandah and hall, the living rooms of the superintendent, and almost might the same terms have been applied to the dwelling place of the inmates.

This, seemingly, was no place to come for the ugly story of destitution—for the revolting facts which force us, almost against our wills, to paint our picture in glaring yellow. But the destitution was there. You could see it in the expression, the gait and the posture of the inmates; you could smell it in the unmistakable smell of poverty and you could feel it in the indefinable something which grips you and oppresses you in an institution of this kind.

It was a poorhouse and nothing but a poorhouse—a good poorhouse, if there is such a thing, but a poorhouse none the less. Like thousands of similar institutions, it stood ready to receive the individual when he strikes the very bottom of the toboggan slide of life, to house him and to feed him humanely enough, but with the saving of dimes and nickels regarded as the cardinal virtue of efficient management. It was an "asylum of poverty"—no more what such an institution might be than the lunatic asylum of twenty years ago is like the hospital for the insane of the present day. Like thousands of others, it was one of those places where we receive the unfortunate; where we label him a pauper; where we tolerate his presence until death reduces the county expense or until he goes out into the world again not a whit better off, physically, mentally or morally, on account of his association with us.

We had come to the place for the purpose of ascertaining to what extent tuberculosis prevailed among the two hundred inmates and to ascertain the degree of protection afforded these unfortunates against infection from the disease. As our work progressed this question came to me more and more insistently: "Why are these men and women dependents? What, if anything, could be learned if they were permitted to tell their own stories of misfortune?"



Social history blanks were prepared, and two intelligent young women were set at the task of supplementing physical examinations with a series of questions relative

[1]In taking the rather exhaustive social histories of the 200 inmates of the Sangamon County Poor Farm, I was assisted by Mary Humphrey and Mary Johnson, without whose intelligent and enthusiastic co-operation this preliminary study could not have been made.

to the past lives of the inmates. Due allowance was made for natural exaggeration when a person told of the glories of his past, and like allowance was made for the faulty memory which had lost its record of personal faults, vices and dissipations. As far as possible the reliability of the story was determined by checking up with certain definite and obtainable facts.

At the outset of the work, a wave of fear spread over the place born of the belief that we were cataloging the inmates to send them to an "asylum"; but when this was quieted, the history taking was uneventful.

Eliminating those who were mentally incapable of being interviewed, we were able to prepare 137 quite complete records. Of those interviewed, 32 were women and 105 men. Practically all the women, incidentally, were there on account of insanity, drug addiction or actual illness. There were 131 white inmates, 5 Negroes and one who claimed to be an Indian. Sixty-nine were single, that is 60 per cent of the males and but 27 per cent of the females. Nineteen had living husbands or wives and 47 were widowed. Of those who had married, 42 had married once only; 13 stated that they had married twice and 4 that they had married three times or more.



To the pennywise county official it is of practical interest to note that 34 of the inmates, or about 25 per cent, had living children and that even casual inquiry showed many instances in which the children were financially able to take care of these unfortunates, as the laws of Illinois provide that they shall do.

Thirty of the inmates were born in Illinois; 36 in the United States outside of Illinois; while Ireland and Germany came next with 21 representatives each. There was no Jew in the almshouse.

Three of the inmates admitted that their parents had been dependent upon public charity; 24 admitted alcoholism or drug addiction on the part of their parents; 4 were the children of the insane and one was the daughter of a criminal. The fathers of 106 came from laboring and agricultural classes, while the fathers of 6 were professional men.



Nineteen of the inmates had had no education whatever; 12 claimed to be able to read and write but had never gone to school; 4 had attended school less than one year; 15 had attended less than five years; 71 claimed a complete "common school" education and 7 had gone to high school or college. Four had been compelled to earn a living under ten years of age; 12 from ten to twelve years; 41 from twelve to fifteen years and 31 had begun work between the ages of fifteen and twenty-one years.

With this showing, the question naturally arises: Is there any connection between lack of education, child labor and the poorhouse?

One of the male inmates had been a pharmacist, one a civil engineer; 28 had learned trades and 53 were laborers. Of the females, 17 were house servants and one a teacher.

To ascertain something of the past financial condition, we inquired as to the highest wage each had made, the amount he had inherited and the greatest amount he had ever accumulated. Six had never made more than $10 to $20 per month; 21 had made from $20 to $50 per month and 28 claimed to have made over $100 per month. Fourteen had inherited property worth less than $500; 11 had inherited from $500 to $1,000; 5 from $1,000 to $5,000, and one had inherited from $5,000 to $10,000. Thirty-five of the inmates had never accumulated as much as $500 at any one time; 22 had possessed from $500 to $1,000; 20 had owned from $1,000 to $5,000; 7 from $5,000 to $10,000, and four had had over $10,000.



As to their habits, vices and dependence, 88 were users of al-

cohol and 35 of these had been heavy drinkers. Four females and one male were addicted to drugs. Thirty-nine had been arrested once, and four more than once. The causes of arrest were drunkenness and disorderly conduct 22; vagrancy 10; theft 1; assault 4 and participation in a strike 1. Two of the inmates had been in other almshouses; 7 had occupied beds in charity hospitals; 2 had grown up from orphan asylums and 4 had been helped by lodges and unions. Many had received county orders before coming to the almshouse.

What light such data as the foregoing, if collected in large numbers of similar institutions, would throw upon the underlying causes of destitution, is, of course, speculative. It seems to me, however, that they might give us a more intelligent idea of the connection between pauperism and the marriage of the unfit; lack of education; child labor; lack of trade or definite vocation; poor mentality; lack of religious influence; divorce or failure to marry; alcohol and drugs; vice and preventable disease.

If these remote influences lie beyond the imaginative possibilities of the average almshouse superintendent and county official, there were certain other facts brought out in this study which should appeal to the most practical and hard-headed. These facts seem to point the way to the rehabilitation of the unfortunate; the way of placing him on his feet again. They also point directly to the reduction in the almshouse population and the consequent decrease in public expense.

Getting at the direct causes of dependence, it was found that old age was the chief factor, 47 of the inmates being over 70 years of age. This number of dependents, incidentally, could be materially reduced by tracing out near relatives legally responsible for their care.

Drugs and alcohol were responsible for 25 dependencies—a less encouraging group until we have intelligent public treatment for these cases. Twenty-five of the inmates were crippled while 18 were there on account of general illness. Doubtless many of these cases would be amenable to treatment if properly studied and diagnosed.

Six were victims of advanced tuberculosis, and it may be assumed that the nature of the illness was unrecognized as the patients were housed in dormitories with the uninfected. There were unquestionably other tuberculosis cases undiagnosed who were not only losing their chance of cure; but were exposing and infecting others. I am impressed, incidentally, that almshouses, with their armies of transients going to the crowded, unventilated quarters of the poor, are very considerable spreaders of tuberculosis.

The insane, feeble-minded and epileptic aggregated perhaps 50—an almshouse population which should be and must be decreased by more adequate state provision for these afflicted.

Syphilis was responsible for 3 dependencies, and probably many more would respond to the Wassermann test and could be restored to health by specific treatment.

The 4 blind and aged inmates might be made to see by simple cataract operations.

Many of the inmates expressed the wish that they might be restored to health that they could go out into the world again upon their own resources. But 58 replied, when asked what they wanted to do in the future, that they wanted to stay where they were, under the friendly roof of the poorhouse.

This does not imply hopeless pauperism, however. Sick, neglected, weak and despondent—of course, they want to stay in some place, even in the poorhouse, where they are not eternally ordered to move on by the police; viewed with suspicion or fear by self-respecting citizens or in constant danger of arrest for vagrancy. Such forlorn men not infrequently commit petty crimes to guarantee their being housed in jail during a cold winter.



I am optimistic enough to believe that if the physical conditions of each inmate were studied; if his ills were cured and he was made stronger in body, he would be given courage, more ambition and more purpose in life. To this extent pauperism is directly curable.

True, there are among the destitute those who are hopelessly marked—branded by heredity; cursed by environment; wrecked by disease; deficient in body and in mind, with little or nothing to work upon. By the same token there are those in other branches of medicine who are hopelessly sick—those who are beyond the reach of the surgeon's knife or the physician's prescription. There are those among the insane who give no ray of hope to the most enthusiastic alienist.

But when we progress to the point of classifying our paupers; of studying intelligently the various causes of destitution; of endeavoring to make our almshouses places of cure rather than mere



asylums for the victims of poverty, our percentage of "recoveries" will be surprisingly high.

The difference in methods between the modern insane hospital and the almshouse is striking. A man is admitted to an institution for the insane in a thoroughly irrational and excitable condition. His case is studied and it is found that he has cerebral syphilis. Proper treatment is instituted and, in all probability, the patient is returned to his family cured and a useful member of society.

In another case, syphilis has rendered a man physically inefficient, dissipated and despondent. He drifts to the poorhouse where he is catalogued simply as a "pauper." The chances are that the cause of his pauperism is not detected. If he announces it himself, he may receive the hurried, occasional visit of a contract doctor. Even the drugs that are given him may be crude and impure, bought by contract from the lowest bidder. Little or no provision is made for his intelligent and systematic treatment. He may be drugged with mercury until he is salivated; he may be neglected until his open sores cause him to be housed in the basement away from the other inmates. He is merely a syphilitic pauper and the rough fare of the poorhouse is looked upon as better than he deserves.

As a matter of fact, he is a sick man; sick of a curable disease and his cure may restore him to useful citizenship and remove him from the county expense.

Or again, there comes to the almshouse a man who is tired—a man who will not work. Perhaps he is losing a little weight and he is known to have been drinking more whiskey than he did when he worked harder. You are tempted to compel him to work; to drive him to earn his meager board and bed. The superintendent has no time to note that he has a little fever at night or to see that he clears his throat from time to time. Without physical examination, we have no way of knowing that we are dealing with an incipient consumptive. The average superintendent knows nothing of the deadly weariness of this disease; the weariness that invades every muscle of the body; which makes work impossible; which prompts men of higher moral fiber to drink whiskey or seek other stimulation.

This "lazy devil" is begrudged our poorhouse food, when, as a matter of fact, he ought to have, and at public expense, better food than we have ever thought of giving him. With fresh air, milk, eggs, nourishing food, intelligent treatment and perfect rest, this man can get well and resume a place in the world. With ordinary almshouse care and almshouse fare, we are signing his weath warrant while we are guaranteeing his prolonged dependence upon public charity.

We receive old men who have worked hard and who have made an honest living before their eyesight failed and they became almost blind. We label these men as paupers and do not stop to question if a simple operation for cataract would not restore them to useful occupation.

The spirit of the average almshouse is illustrated in this—one Illinois county has a contract with a dentist to pull the teeth of poorfarm inmates. There is no provision for saving teeth. If the inmate is writhing with toothache, he must take his choice; lose a good tooth on contract, or grin and bear the pain. The supervisors can see no reason why a pauper should want to save his teeth or why he should be permitted to do so. And yet a cheap filling would cost little more than the primitive and mutilating operation of extraction.

These are mere instances of the obvious curative possibilities in the almshouse—instances where the county's duties are so apparent, in which the right and humane way is so clearly the cheap and economical way that the matter should require no discussion. It is the line of direct cure which the county, as a matter of sound administration, should make it possible to carry out. It means first the careful physical examination of every inmate of every almshouse, not by the medical man who bids lowest to get the contract, but by the most capable diagnostician available.



But this is only the beginning. The big possibility is what the almshouses of the nation can do to ascertain the more remote causes of poverty and destitution, for, as in the case of the insane, when we know the causes of destitution, we can

carry out our most effective work before the pauper becomes a pauper—before he comes slinking, wretched and despondent, to the door of the county farm.

Tuberculosis will never be eradicated by merely treating the sick; yellow fever could not have been stamped out by simply caring for the afflicted; pauperism will never be materially affected by what we do when the pauper has reached his last ditch. We must fight tuberculosis by striking at its causes; we have already eliminated yellow fever by the same sane process. We would have gone further in our battle against pauperism, perhaps, were it not that pauperism is the only disease that has never invaded the home of the rich. No multi-millionaire has ever endowed a research laboratory for the study of destitution in memory of a petted child struck dead by its poisonous fangs.

But every almshouse has its clinic in poverty and I am convinced that if every inmate in every poorhouse throughout the nation could be made to tell the story of how he came to be there; if every one could be examined for physical and mental causes, and if all these data could be gathered together in systematic form, a great stride would have been made in formulating an intelligent campaign against dependence.

COMPENSATION FOR OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

JOHN B. ANDREWS
SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

THE introduction in Congress of a bill which extends the workmen's compensation principle to embrace occupational diseases places before the American people an entirely new range of problems in the field of social insurance.

The federal government since 1908, and fifteen states during the past two years, have recognized the wisdom and justice of the compensation principle in dealing with the victims of industrial accidents. Now comes the demand that the American people, through Congress, adopt exactly the same principle in dealing with federal employes who are incapacitated for work by occupational diseases.

What is the present situation?

"The government gives no compensation for lead poisoning because, technically, it is not an accident, which is true, for under the circumstances it is a dead certainty."

—This quotation from the report of an investigator for the New York State Factory Investigating Commission is neither a playful nor an exaggerated statement. On the contrary, we now have complete confirmation of its truth in the official report and in the sober legal phrase of the solicitor for the Department of Commerce and Labor.[1]

It all came about in this way. A man named Schroeder went to work in the federal navy yard at Brooklyn. One of our big war ships, the Ohio, came to the dock and Schroeder was sent down into the water-tight compartments called "coffer-dams" to burn off the old coat of paint in preparation for a new. As a result of breathing the fumes of the lead paint, Schroeder was incapacitated for work by acute lead poisoning. He lost thirty-seven days on this account, and he applied to the government for the payment of compensation equal to the wages he had lost.

This statement was made by the attorney for the United States government:

"The question in this case is whether acute lead poisoning contracted in the course of employment is an injury within the meaning of the compensation act. If the inhalation of noxious gases is a necessary incident to the workman's employment, there can be nothing accidental in the injury resulting therefrom. This latter consideration disposes of the present case. . . .

"It cannot be said that these fumes were inhaled by accident. The fumes were necessarily produced by the work he was engaged upon. The inhalation of such fumes was to have been expected and probably could not have been avoided. Lead poisoning, under the circumstances, was the natural, if not the inevitable, result."

Schroeder got not one penny.

Aside from the fact that lead poisoning in this case was really preventable; aside from the fact that several enlightened nations have absolutely prohibited the use of poisonous lead paints for the interior of their warships, and aside from the fact that there was no one to warn Schroeder of the dangerous nature of his occupation, there is one big final reason why this decision of the attorney-general was even more unfortunate than it was necessary. The financial cost of this unnecessary case of acute lead poisoning, in addition to the personal suffering, fell upon poor Schroeder. Most men will agree that such financial losses should fall upon the employer. In

[1] Opinions of the Solicitor for the Department of Commerce and Labor dealing with Workmen's Compensation, 1912.

this case the employer was the nation, which means all of us, you and me.

We owe Schroeder something more than an apology. While the federal government is publishing excellent reports on lead poisoning in the factories of private employers and is translating and distributing in fat volumes the workmen's compensation laws of European countries, can the United States afford to do less than make provision for reasonably safe work places in the government service? And can this country afford to ignore the good example of these European laws which provide compensation for such victims of occupational diseases?

A few months after the unfortunate Schroeder case a man named Hill was employed at placing floor plates in the engine room of the war ship St. Louis in the Puget Sound Navy Yard. Meantime, red and white lead paint was being applied in the bilges of the vessel.

"As a result of this exposure to lead fumes, a sufficient amount of lead was taken into claimant's system to produce 'toxic amblyopia, both eyes,'"

which means

"disease of vision from imperfect sensation of the retina, without organic lesion of the eye."

This disease incapacitated Hill on the thirteenth day after his first exposure to the poison. The exposure lasted only seven days. Said the solicitor:

"It is accordingly possible to refer the claimant's injury to an event capable of being fixed in point of time. In the second place, the injury to the claimant's eyes was neither reasonably to be expected, nor the natural or inevitable consequence of the work he personally was engaged upon. The injury must therefore be ascribed to accident. The claimant's particular work had nothing to do with the painting operations going on about him. His work as a ship fitter related to the laying of plates in the boiler room; the painting was being done by others."

And this claim was approved.

But if, instead of Hill, one of the painters had been poisoned and incapacitated by the fumes of lead paint, a similar claim would not have been allowed by the solicitor. This is made perfectly clear by his decision in the John Freiman case.

John was a laborer in the Boston Navy Yard, and it was his duty to scale off lead-painted compartments on ships. He became incapacitated by "lead poisoning contracted in the course of his employment," and his superior officer certified that the injury was not due to negligence or misconduct. After John had suffered several weeks as a result of "painter's colic" and chronic lead poisoning, his claim was submitted. It was necessary to decide whether the law applies to disease due to the occupation. The solicitor declared:

"There is no such special provision made, and I can find nothing which would, in my judgment, justify its application to a case of lead poisoning or 'painter's colic.'"

The difficulties involved in legal technicalities become apparent. The following story, verbatim from the government report (page 201), about William Murray, who suffered with compressed air illness, strikingly illustrates the point:

"The claimant in this case is a laborer employed by the Reclamation Service, at Arizona shaft, Colorado River siphon. The claimant's duties required him to work in compressed air. In consequence, he was attacked with 'a severe case of bends,' which 'settled in nearly all parts of the body.' When originally presented the claim was disallowed on the ground that the bends is a disease, and diseases contracted in the course of employment as distinguished from injuries of an accidental nature are not within the operation of the compensation act. A reconsideration of this action 'with a view to the allowance of the claim, if the same is deemed to come within the letter of the statute as it seems to come within its spirit,' is now requested by the secretary of the interior, who writes that a refusal to approve this claim may cause a number of men to leave the work, as, on account of the bends, it is generally regarded as very hazardous."

And the former decision was reversed!

The solicitor has passed upon other cases of occupational disease, with some decidedly interesting results.

Mary A. Crellin was a folder of heavy paper at the Government Printing Office. Continuous strain upon her fingers and wrist caused a degeneration of the tendon sheath. A tumor or cystic growth developed. Mary was obliged to have it surgically removed. Then she thought the government, and not she, ought to stand the loss of wages due to her incapacity. This attracted attention. Said the medical officer of the Government Printing Office:

"This is the first case that I ever observed or noticed among folders, until I examined a number of skilled female laborers employed in this office upon the same vocation—that of folding sheets of paper—of which five presented a similar condition, but of such size as not to interfere with the manipulation of the hand."

The solicitor decided that in this tendon degeneration there was "no accidental element." It was "not due to injury." It was "due to excessive use" in the service of Uncle Sam. Mary's claim was denied.

Another case—a plate printer, J. B. Irving, who was on the night force in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. In the course of a night he printed 900 sheets, and as he handled each

sheet he looked for a few seconds at a bright engraved plate which reflected into his eyes. One night last March the bureau tried out some new electric lights, and their use was continued three successive nights. Irving thereupon stopped work, and the doctor diagnosed his case as "Retinitis conjunctivitis, both eyes." He was unable to keep his eyes open in a bright light. After investigation, the solicitor decided that in this case compensation should be granted on the ground that the injury was not anticipated, nor was it the result of any slow accumulation of trifling injuries.

Sunstroke, which is known as a disease, is compensated under the act. The straining of the ligaments about the wrist, known as "synovitis of the wrist" and scheduled as a disease under the British act, has been compensated. "Vaccina" from vaccination is compensated. A long-standing case of flat-foot was compensated, even though the use of a simple wedge made the injured one better than before.

John Sheeran, who contracted pneumonia due to exposure at the Soo Canal, was denied compensation. But J. B. Atkinson, who fell from a ladder and continued to work 181 days thereafter, until typhoid fever took him off within a week, "died by reason of his injury," because the fall "lowered his vitality, . . . which rendered him peculiarly susceptible to typhoid infection, . . . which resulted in his death."

The question may fairly be raised as to whether it is not a bit unfair to an administrative official to place him under the embarrassment of interpreting a statute so as to cover, for example, some but not all cases of industrial lead poisoning. Would it not be much better plainly to include occupational diseases in the law?

After more than four years of experience under the present law the government recently published the first official report upon its operation. Sixty-six closely printed pages of this report are devoted to embarrassing questions which have arisen because of claims arising out of occupational diseases. The administration in its awards has been as liberal as could be expected under the unfortunate legislative restrictions. The solicitor for the department has taken a keen interest in its operation. He has been faithful and alert. One of his most urgent recommendations for a change in the law is that it be extended to embrace occupational diseases.

The present federal law is known as the Workmen's Compensation Act of May 30, 1908, and is America's pioneer compensation law. It was a step forward, but only a step. Fortunately, state legislatures have not copied its main provisions, for they are totally inadequate. This federal law applies to only about one-third of our 350,000 civilian employes. It grants no relief for incapacity lasting less than fifteen days, it makes no provision for medical treatment, and one year's wages is the maximum benefit even for total blindness or death. In fact, the present law is so deficient that its original sponsors now waste no words in its defense, but frankly apologize for its shortcomings. "Not a revision," says one in a position to know, "but a new law is needed."

The draft of a new law, prepared after months of careful investigation of experience of this and all other compensation acts, and drafted with infinite care at the instigation of the Association for Labor Legislation, has been introduced in Congress by Senator Kern. Surely the United States should now provide for its own government employes incapacitated by industrial accidents and occupational diseases a system of safety and sanitation coupled with compensation at least equivalent to that furnished by the most progressive nations of the world. The bill now before Congress offers this immediate opportunity.

Nor can the state legislatures longer ignore the injustice of this arbitrary distinction between accidents and diseases due to the peculiar conditions of employment.

In a pamphlet on Industrial Diseases and Occupational Standards, published in May, 1910, the writer urged immediate consideration of this problem, and said:

"No intelligent person can go far in the study of compensation for industrial accidents without realizing that a logical consideration of the facts must lead likewise to compensation for industrial diseases."

Since then three momentous years have passed. One state after another is preparing to meet this problem, which becomes steadily more pressing. One of the three great national political parties now pledges itself to work unceasingly in state and nation for trade disease compensation. Wisconsin has the promise of relief in the political platform of the present administration; Ohio, by recent constitutional amendment, is prepared for action; Pennsylvania is following this example; several states, including Massachusetts and Michigan, by a liberal interpretation of present laws, are coquetting with the issue; New Hampshire has boldly introduced specific legislation on the subject.[1]

Leading countries of Europe have already taken this step. Great Britain in her Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906, in addition to accidents, included in the first schedule six diseases of occupation. That schedule has been extended

[1] In 1912 the Association for Labor Legislation prepared, in co-operation with the United States Bureau of Labor and the Library of Congress, a critical bibliography on industrial diseases. Fifty printed pages of titles were thus made available on this important subject. European countries have published volumes on compensation for industrial diseases, but, as far as can be learned, this is the first American article under this title.



DOUBLE WRIST DROP

Hands of workman paralyzed for sixteen years as result of lead poisoning. Five of his fellow workmen were killed by lead poisoning before they were forty. Victims of lead poisoning are not compensated under American laws because technically an occupational disease is "not an injury."

until it now includes no less than twenty-four distinct maladies due to peculiar conditions of employment. Germany, as a result of the experience of a quarter of a century, in her new imperial code expressly has declared for similar action. Switzerland, in her system accepted by referendum vote in February, 1912, makes like provision for insurance against occupational diseases. The government of Holland, in November, 1912, laid before Parliament a bill to regulate the insurance of workmen against industrial diseases in connection with the proposed sickness insurance.

The arguments used so effectively by advocates of compensation for accidents, and now so generally accepted by all men, apply with even greater force in the consideration of relief for the victims of occupational diseases. No one will doubt, for example, that placing the financial cost of lead poisoning upon the lead industry will promote greater cleanliness in the lead trades. It will pay to clean up. A considerable part of the money now paid to employers' liability companies and to ambulance chasers could, under a just system of compensation, go where it belongs—to the injured workman or his family. Expensive, annoying, and unsatisfactory litigation could be reduced to a minimum. Information concerning special danger points in industry would be automatically pointed out to the factory inspectors in a manner both prompt and sure. Unnecessary occupational diseases would then be prevented, and that is the real problem.

The principle is admitted that workmen should be compensated for injuries by accident arising out of their employment. It is only consistent that incapacity caused by diseases due to the employment should also be included. Some diseases are, in the ordinary use of the term, accidental. But many people work where trade diseases of an insidious nature are contracted and where there is constant risk of illness on that account. These diseases are as serious as accidents. There is no social justification for drawing an arbitrary line of distinction—the principle of compensation is no longer in an experimental stage. A compensation law should include, says Sir Thomas Oliver, the leading English authority on the subject, "industrial diseases, the consequences of which may be immediate or remote, and which are often more severe than accidents."

It must be admitted that even our discredited system of employers' liability has afforded occasional relief to the victims of accidents: But even this uncertain and irregular protection, poor as it is, has in most instances been denied to workers exposed to the creeping horror of industrial disease. The exact occupational cause of the affliction is, of course, more difficult to prove. The employe is thus placed at still greater disadvantage in dealing with his employer. American judges, basing their opinions on outgrown decisions of the British House of Lords, have declared that "industrial injuries" include only those afflictions of an accidental nature whose cause can be ascribed to a definite point of time, and have thus almost universally barred even from the occasional and expensive relief of employers' liability the victims of such typical maladies as the match maker's "phossy jaw," the lead worker's "wrist-drop" and painter's colic, the boiler maker's deafness, the glass worker's cataract, the potter's palsy, the hatter's shakes, and the compressed air worker's bends.

The public has not yet forgotten pitiful cases where match manufacturers, through the work of their attorneys, were able to deny all financial relief to their victims of "phossy jaw." And there are cases now pending in the courts where men totally blinded by the fumes of wood alcohol have year after year sued in vain for some financial relief from brewery companies which employed them to varnish the inside of beer vats.

Occasionally, however, large awards have been made. But they, as in the case of damage suits arising out of accidents, encourage further expensive litigation. One case of wood alcohol poisoning in Ohio (Joseph Frank *vs.* The Herancourt Brewing Co., 82 O. S., 424) is now a matter of record. The Supreme Court compelled the employer to pay $12,500, with interest and costs, aggregating over $15,000:

"After five years of litigation, six hearings in three different courts, including two trips to the Supreme Court, printing of several thousand

pages of record testimony and briefs, taking voluminous depositions in different parts of the country involving great expense, during which the injured workman—in this instance rendered blind—was totally unable to support his wife and family, the wife being obliged to work at nights in downtown cafes, scrubbing floors after midnight, in order to provide scant food for herself and babies while the latter slept."

This verdict is of peculiar interest, according to the well-known Cincinnati law firm which prosecuted the case, because it is the first instance so far as they have been able to ascertain in which there has been a recovery from injuries resulting from the poisonous influence of wood alcohol.

But do not be misled by this rare case. And do not hastily conclude that the new state insurance law in Ohio has rendered justice in such cases more certain, for the contrary is true. A victim of industrial lead poisoning appealed to the state board under that law, and the attorney general, on October 26, 1912, ruled that disability due to lead poisoning was an occupational disease and "not an injury" under the act. Similar decisions have been made by the Washington State Insurance Department.

In fact, with the exception of occasional instances in two or three states, where claims have been paid by employers without protest, the victims of occupational diseases in America are still practically without relief.

THE SOCIAL AIM IN GOVERNMENT

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY
PROFESSOR OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

"THIS is not a day of triumph; it is a day of dedication. Here muster, not the forces of party, but the forces of humanity. Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do. Who shall live up to the great trust? Who dares fail to try? I summon all honest men, all patriotic, all forward-looking men to my side. God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me!"

—Thus spoke the President of the United States in his inaugural address. Legislation in nation and state, giving expression to the will of the people and often to their aspirations, is supposed, in theory at least, to emanate from the representatives of the people. In European governments there is usually a privileged initiative on the part of the executive branch of the government or the administrative officers who represent the electoral majority, that is, "the government of the day." Thus the government bills in the British Parliament are the only ones sure of full consideration. In American legislatures a somewhat similar role is played by the President and the governors of the states in their legislative programs as outlined in the messages they send in accordance with constitutional prerogative or command. As party leaders they voice the dominant wishes of the voters and interpret public opinion; as chief executives they exercise great power over the legislatures in compelling compliance with the people's mandates.

A comparison and study of the subject-matter of President Wilson's inaugural and the inaugurals or messages of thirty-five governors opening legislative sessions since January 1 of this year, shows the great influence of the progressive forces of the nation which were victorious in all parties and in all of the states at the polls in November. A more confident note, new in most cases, is struck in all these pronunciamentos. It is the social spirit and the social conscience in every community that seeks and demands a new adjustment of law and government to human needs, and for the people, a new freedom.

President Wilson voices this new feeling best.

"Nor have we studied and perfected the means by which government may be put at the service of humanity, in safeguarding the health of the nation, the health of its men and its women and its children, as well as their rights in the struggle for existence. This no sentimental duty. The firm basis of government is justice, not pity. These are matters of justice. There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. Society must see to it that it does not itself crush or weaken or damage its own constituent parts. The first duty of law is to keep sound the society it serves. Sanitary laws, pure food laws, and laws determining conditions of labor which individuals are powerless to determine for themselves are intimate parts of the very business of justice and legal efficiency.

"These are some of the things we ought to do, and not leave the others undone, the old-fashioned, never-to-be-neglected, fundamental safeguarding of property and of individual right. This is the high enterprise of the new day; to lift everything that concerns our life as a nation to the light that shines from the hearthfire of every man's conscience and vision of the right.

It is inconceivable that we should do this as partisans; it is inconceivable that we should do it in ignorance of the facts as they are or in blind haste. We shall restore, not destroy. We shall deal with our economic system as it is and as it may be modified, not as it might be if we had a clean sheet of paper to write upon; and step by step we shall make it what it should be, in the spirit of those who question their own wisdom and seek counsel and knowledge, not shallow self-satisfaction or the excitement of excursions whither they cannot tell. Justice, and only justice, shall always be our motto.

"And yet it will be no cool process of mere science. The nation has been deeply stirred, stirred by a solemn passion, stirred by the knowledge of wrong, of ideals lost, of government too often debauched and made an instrument of evil. The feelings with which we face this new age of right and opportunity sweep across our heart-strings like some air out of God's own presence, where justice and mercy are reconciled and the judge and the brother are one. We know our task to be no mere task of politics, but a task which shall search us through and through, whether we be able to understand our time and the need of our people, whether we be indeed their spokesmen and interpreters, whether we have the pure heart to comprehend and the rectified will to choose our high course of action."

Governor Cox of Ohio, speaking for a state that had just made many fundamental changes in its organic law by adopting the recommendations, almost in their entirety, of a constitutional convention, says:

"Progressive government, so called, which means in its correct understanding, constructive work, along the lines pointed out by the lamps of experience and the higher moral vision of advanced civilization, is now on trial in our state. Every constitutional facility has been provided for an upward step and Ohio, because of the useful part it has played in the affairs of the country, is at this hour in the eye of the nation.

"The state has the resources, human and material, to make a thorough test of the principle of an enlarged social justice, through government, and the results of our labors will extend beyond state borders. A thorough appreciation, therefore, of the stupendous responsibility before you, and full recognition of the probable insidious resistance to be encountered, will add immeasurably to your equipment to meet the emergency. If I sense with any degree of accuracy the state of public mind, I am correct in the belief that a vast preponderance of the people of all classes have faith both in the wisdom and the certain results of a constructive progressive program of government. Let us in full understanding of the consequences of our acts maintain this measure of public confidence and encourage the faith of those who are honestly skeptical because of the apprehension generated in their minds by a third class, which may be unconsciously prompted by sordid impulses developed by unbroken preferences of government.

"No fair-minded person will dispute the logic nor question the equity of any plan which contemplates legislative action entirely within the limitations of suffrage endorsement. If the legislature, in the passage of a single law, runs counter to public desire or interest, the people through the referendum have the means to undo it. No greater safeguard can be devised by the genius of man, and to question either the moral or practical phase of this arrangement, is to admit unsoundness in the theory of a republic. In other days changes in government such as are made necessary everywhere by our industrial and social conditions, would have been wrought by riot and revolution. Now they are accomplished through peaceful evolution. He must be indeed a man of unfortunate temperamental qualities who does not find in this a circumstance that thrills every patriotic fiber in his being."

Governor Sulzer of New York, in similar vein, says, speaking of the proposed amendment to the constitution of the United States, providing for the popular election of senators:

"I favor this change in the federal constitution, as I shall every other change that will restore the government to the control of the people. I want the people, in fact as well as in theory, to rule this great republic and the government at all times to be responsive to their just demands."

Again, in speaking of the value of human life and its conservation, Governor Sulzer says:

"If Americans would excel other nations in commerce, in manufacture, in science, in intellectual growth, and in all other humane attainments, we must first possess a people physically and mentally sound. Any achievement that is purchased at the continued sacrifice of human life does not advance our material resources, but detracts from the wealth of the state. The leaders of our civilization now realize these fundamental truths, and the statesmen, the scientists, and the humanitarians are endeavoring more and more to protect human life and to secure to each individual not only the right to life, but the right to decent standards of living.

"We have had to change old customs and repeal antiquated laws. We must now convince employers that any industry that saps the vitality and destroys the initiative of the workers is detrimental to the interests of the state and menaces the general welfare of the government. We must try to work out practical legislation that will apply our social ideals and our views of industrial progress to secure for our men, women and children the greatest possible reserve of physical and mental force.

"I hold it to be self-evident that no industry has the right to sacrifice human life for its profit. but that just as each industry must reckon in its cost of production the material waste, so it should also count as a part of the cost of pro-

duction the human waste which it employs. . . . No business has an inalienable right to child labor. No industry has a right to rob the state of that which constitutes its greatest wealth. No commerce that depends on child labor for its success has a right to exist. Let us do what we can to protect the children of the state and preserve their fundamental rights. . . . Human life is infinitely more valuable than the profit of material things. The state for its own preservation has the right to demand the use of safer and more hygienic methods, even if at greater cost of production to the employer. Occupational diseases should be studied, and the results of careful investigation embodied in laws to safeguard the health and lives of the workers."

Governor Craig of North Carolina, another Democrat, but from the more conservative southland, strikes the same note, when he says:

"We have not realized the moral benefits that should have resulted from modern progress. Avarice has been stimulated; hope and opportunity have been denied; antagonism and resentment have been generated. All classes have suffered. We realize the conditions; the injustice has been uncovered. It cannot stand in the clear, calm and resolute gaze of the American people. They are determined that our law shall be based upon a higher conception of social obligation and that our civilization shall mean a higher social life. They have put their hands to the plow and will not look back."

Let me quote from one more Democratic governor, this time a voice from the far West. Governor Hunt of Arizona says:

"Recent political events of national magnitude and world-wide importance clearly prove the people's awakening to their necessities, their duties and responsibilities. The overwhelming triumph of militant progressive democracy and the simultaneous springing into prominent existence of another great party founded upon and professing the championship of those cardinal principles of popular government which have long been synonymous with progressive democracy, discloses a miraculous growth of progressive conviction, a well-nigh unanimous determination on the part of the people to assume full control of the government which, while over them, is rightfully of and for them, marks a leading epoch in the history of the world's advancement."

The National Progressive Party could scarcely have hoped to accomplish more than to bring such sentiments and these high aims to the fore, in the officially announced purposes of their late antagonists who were the victors in the recent elections. When we remember, however, the initiative and responsibility in legislation which the chief executive in nation and state has come to have in our system, the fact that the above quoted passages are typical of all the governors' messages is doubly significant. It warrants us in believing that the hour has struck when the things for which the social workers of the country have striven will become vital in the organization of American society.

More detailed examination of the recommendations of the governors shows some interesting tendencies. If the advice of the governors is followed some system of workmen's compensation will supplement or supersede our antiquated and unsocial system of employers' liability. This is the subject upon which public opinion seems to have most definitely crystallized. No less than twenty-one governors make definite favorable recommendations, and in three cases (Arizona, California and Oregon) a state system of insurance is advocated. If all of these states were added to those that already have passed adequate compensation laws, the system of workmen's compensation would be extended practically over all of the industrial area of the United States. This result seems inevitable, although the work may not be completed in this legislative year.

Next to workmen's compensation in point of popularity seems to be the necessity for a public utilities law, or a public service commission, or the extension of the powers of state supervisory authorities over public service corporations. This is a subject of positive recommendation on the part of fourteen governors. In an equal number of states the pending amendment to the United States constitution providing for the popular or direct election of Senators receives a favorable recommendation, while in the other states the governors transmit the amendment without comment for appropriate action by the legislature. The Kentucky Blue Sky Law, or some similar provision for state supervision of investment proposals and securities offered for public subscription, is the subject of comment and positive recommendation in eleven states.

In an equal number of commonwealths important recommendations are made with respect to increasing the powers of their labor departments, including factory inspection and other provisions for the enforcement of the labor laws. Several governors express a desire for a much more serious recognition of the state's duties in its relations to labor, especially that of women and children. In some instances—notably Ohio, where an industrial commission is proposed, Wisconsin, whose industrial commission, already the model for several other states, is to have increased powers, and New York, for which an industrial commission is also proposed—such recommendations are far-reaching and would mean a practical reorganization of this department of state activity. The governor of Rhode Island recommends the adoption of a fifty-four hour law to harmonize with recent legislation in

New York and Massachusetts. In North Carolina a stronger child labor law is urged, and in Wyoming the prohibition of the employment of boys under sixteen in mines. This would bring Wyoming up to the standard already adopted in the leading mining states.

Popular government still has need of better agencies for expression, and numerous reforms in the organization of state governments are proposed. Restlessness under antiquated constitutional limitations is manifest everywhere. President Wilson in his last message as governor of New Jersey, voiced this feeling in strong language. He said:

"I urge upon you very earnestly indeed the need and demand for a Constitutional Convention. The powers of corrupt control have a numerous and abiding advantage under our constitutional arrangements as they stand. We shall not be free from them until we get a different system of representation and a different system of official responsibility. I hope that this question will be taken up by the legislature at once and a constitutional convention arranged for without delay, in which the new forces of our day may speak and may have a chance to establish their ascendancy over the rule of machines and bosses."

Similarly a constitutional convention is urged or numerous constitutional amendments are proposed in six other states. The short ballot is advocated in six; the initiative, referendum and recall as a means of extending the control of the people over their legislation is recommended in nine states, in most of which a constitutional amendment would be necessary; and the adoption of rules to carry out a constitutional amendment already passed is recommended in Idaho. A larger measure of home rule for cities is urged by the governors of six states (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan and Missouri). The United States constitutional amendment providing for the income tax is urged for favorable adoption in three states. An amendment to the state constitution providing for woman suffrage is favorably recommended in five states (New York, Pennsylvania, Montana, Nevada and Iowa), and the immediate extension of suffrage to women in municipal affairs by the governor of Connecticut. Direct Primaries are still an issue in two states (New York and Tennessee). The need for stronger corrupt practices acts is presented in three states. Three governors also declare for a direct presidential preference primary (Iowa, Minnesota and Wyoming), while ballot reform is advocated in three states (Maine, Michigan and Wyoming).

Better legislative methods and the establishment of a legislative reference, research and drafting bureau are proposed in four states (Arizona, Minnesota, Ohio and Oklahoma). The governor of Arizona asks for an anti-lobbying statute. The fiscal policy of the state is a matter of some comment in practically every message, and in five states measures for taxation reform are proposed. In five states, including one of the previous group, the governors recommend an increase of inheritance taxes or the establishment of an inheritance tax where it does not already exist.

Constructive and far-reaching measures are suggested pertaining to public health. A decided awakening is noticeable in this field. Eight governors recommend more or less definite reorganization of the public health service and an extension of the powers of the public health authorities, state and local. In one additional state (New York) the governor has appointed an important commission. The results of its labors will probably be enacted into law at this session of the legislature. Pure food legislation and better protection of weights and measures receive attention in two states each, as does the greater restriction of the liquor traffic in two states. Special provision for the care of tuberculous persons is mentioned in five states.

Another important and popular subject of recommendation, in which the results of the last annual conference of governors are noticeable, concerns the better care of prisoners—their employment in outdoor work and opportunities for earning wages, part of which shall go to reimburse the state for the cost of their maintenance and part to the support of their dependent families. These matters are subjects of favorable recommendation in nine states. The general reform of the criminal law, especially the shortening of legal processes and the restriction of the right to appeal, is urged in four states, including Iowa, in which the governor recommends the abolition of grand juries.

A direct tax in support of higher education is urged in three states, and provision for the wider use of school buildings as social centers in the same number. Even more significant, the governors of two states (North Carolina and Tennessee) urge state-wide compulsory education. In four commonwealths co-operation with other states is proposed in accordance with the recent recommendation of President Taft addressed to the governors of several states. This urged an extension of rural credits and the provision of some plan similar to the land banks in foreign countries, to help the farmer get the necessary capital for a better system of agriculture. Minimum wage laws are proposed in five states. In two of these and one additional state public aid to dependent widows and mothers with children is recommended.

Curiously enough, the reform of marriage laws and of those providing a remedy for desertion and non-support, a subject reported up-

on by the Uniform Law Commissioners, does not figure so largely in the governors' recommendations as would be supposed. The uniform law commissioners have proposed an excellent and very carefully worked out statute for uniform marriage and marriage license laws. This receives only partial endorsement at the hands of three governors, while stricter desertion and non-support laws also have the endorsement of three governors.

Guarantee of bank deposits is proposed in three states and three of the western states (Arizona, Missouri and Tennessee) have recommendations for an extension of state authority, or the establishment of a state department, to induce immigrants to settle within their borders. A better regulation of prize-fighting is being agitated in Nevada. Its prohibition, along with that of gambling, is strongly urged by the governors of New Mexico and Oklahoma. The governor of Arizona asks for a statute prohibiting the carrying of concealed weapons, while the governor of South Carolina asks the legislature to repeal the present statute on this subject in that state.

Non-partisan election of judges is recommended in Idaho and Pennsylvania, and the Kansas legislature is asked to petition for an amendment to the constitution of the United States to provide for the election of federal judges.

Better care of juvenile delinquents, state-wide supervision of moving picture shows, stricter regulation of loan sharks, better inspection of mines, and compulsory arbitration of labor disputes are each recommended in at least one state.

Thirty-nine legislatures have already met this year, and some of them have completed their legislative sessions. Two more will convene within the next three months, making forty-one in all which will play a part this year in the formulation of the statute law of the country. Our statute law is already increasing in volume at a rate that has caused some alarm. It is sorely in need of revision in many important particulars. Statesmen and reformers alike desire earnestly that it be undertaken with greater care and more painstaking labor in order that our state laws may give better expression to the present standards of conduct and to the needs of our own times.

THE SAND BED

CHARLES W. JEROME

I have a sand bed, and I play
There in the sand for half the day.

And mother comes, and sits by me;
And little sister likes to see

The many things I make of sand.
But she's too young to understand

About the houses and the hills
The mines and stores and flouring mills

And then I make believe, and say
My sand bed is the sunny bay;

These blocks are boats, and far away
They sail all night and sail all day,

And carry iron. When they return
They bring us coal that we may burn.

And now my sand-bed is a farm.
This is the barn. Here, safe from harm,

My horses and my cows I keep.
These sheds are for the wooly sheep.

And there you see my piggies's pens.
This yard holds in the lively hens.

This is the garden, where I hoe
My plants; and here the flowers grow.

These sticks are pines, so straight, so tall
And dark. But these aren't half of all

The things I make each pleasant day
Out in the sand bed where I play.



MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA, IN 1842

A view of the town as it was before the "Gringo" came. Four years later during the Mexican War Commodore Stockton captured Monterey and left Walter Colton, a naval chaplain, in charge as Alcalde.

A JUDGE LINDSEY OF THE "IDLE FORTIES"

LAURA B. EVERETT

UNDER the colorless title Three Years in California was published in 1850 the diary of Walter Colton, elected Alcalde of Monterey in 1846, who, during his term of office presented what was, for that day, a singular spectacle of tolerance, humanity and purity of administration. He can, indeed, be reasonably compared with Judge Lindsey in the courage and originality displayed in his dealings with the criminal cases brought before him.

Colton's work in Monterey succeeded a period spent as editor of the Philadelphia *North American*, and he established later *The Californian*, the first newspaper published in California.

The office of the Alcalde combined administrative and judicial functions and, not seldom, even legislative ones. Colton was oppressed by his power and its responsibility. "Such absolute disposal of questions affecting property and personal liberty," he observes, "never ought to be confided to one man. There is not a judge on any bench in England or the United States whose power is so absolute as that of the Alcalde of Monterey." But he brought to his work in all its details an unflagging zeal and constant personal attention which made his administration unique in the history of the time.

In minor matters, where, as he says, "the Alcalde is himself the law," Colton devised methods of appealing to the better instincts of the wrongdoer. "There is a string in every man's breast," he writes, "which, if you can rightly touch, will 'discourse music.'" Colton, we see from his diary, put a sensitive finger on this string in many a heart.

His ideas of punishment belong to the present. "It is difficult," he says, "to discriminate between offences which flow from moral hardihood and those which result in a measure from untoward circumstances. There is a wide difference between the two; and an Alcalde under the Mexican law has a large scope in which to exercise his sense of moral justice. Better to err a furlong with mercy than a fathom with cruelty. Unmerited punishment never yet reformed its subject; to suppose it is a libel on the human soul."

The following extracts from his account of cases brought before him are representative:

"A lad of fourteen years was brought before me today charged with stealing a horse. The evidence of the larceny was conclusive, but what punishment to inflict was the question. We have no house of correction, and to sentence him to the ball and chain on the public works, among hardened culprits, was to cut off all hope of amendment and inflict an indelible stigma on the youth; so I sent for the father, who had no good reputation himself, and placing a riata in his hand, directed him to inflict twenty-four lashes on his thieving boy. He proceeded as far as twelve, when I stopped him; they were enough. They seemed inflicted by one attempting to atone in this form for his own transgressions. 'Inflict the rest, Soto, on your own evil example; if you had been upright yourself, you might expect truth and honesty in your boy. You are more responsible than this lad for his crime; you can never chastise him into the right path, and continue yourself to travel in the wrong.'"

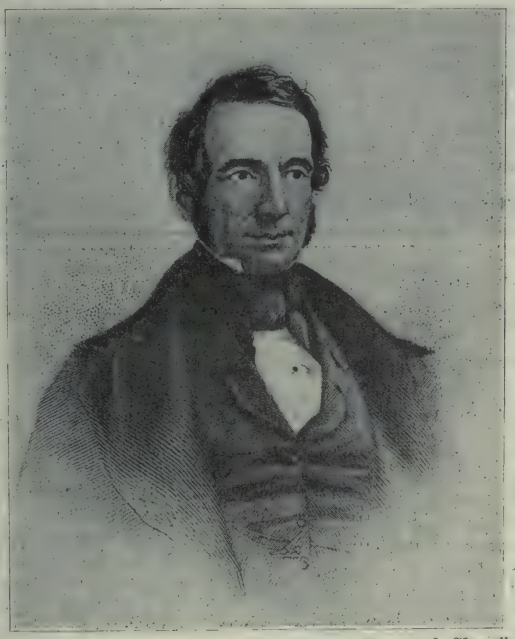
"Today I remitted the sentence of my prison cook. He is a Mulatto, a native of San Domingo; had drifted into California, was attached in a subordinate capacity to Colonel Fremont's battalion; and while the troops were quartered in town had robbed the drawer of a liquor shop of two hundred dollars. For this offence I had sentenced him to two years on the public works. Discovering early some reliable traits about the fellow, . . . I soon made him cook to the rest of the prisoners, and allowed him the privilege of the town, so far as his duties in that capacity were required. . . . I have trusted him with money to purchase provisions, and he has faithfully accounted for every shilling. He has always been kind and attentive to the sick. For these faithful services I have remitted the remainder of his sentence, which would have confined him nine months longer, and have put him on a pay of thirty dollars per month as cook."

The Alcalde settled family difficulties of all varieties, from the case of the grown son who struck his mother to that of the man who wanted a divorce because of suspicions he entertained of his wife's conduct during his absence in Mexico. The judge questioned the plaintiff severely as to his own behavior during the stay in Mexico, and convinced him that the wife, though indiscreet, was too good for him.

After nearly six months as Alcalde, Colton writes:

"Of the women I have had to deal with here the washerwomen are the most unmanageable. Two of them entered my office today as full of fight as the feline antagonists of Kilkenny. It seems they had been washing in one of the pools created by the recent showers, when one had taken that part of the margin previously occupied by the other. War offensive and defensive immediately commenced. One drew a knife which had a blade two mortal inches in length, and the other a sharp ivory bodkin. But what their weapons wanted in terror, their ungentle anger supplied.

"At last one cried out: 'The Alcalde'; the other echoed it, and both rushed to the office to have their difficulties settled. Their stories ran together like two conflicting rivulets forced into the same channel. When the tumult and bubble had a little subsided, I began cautiously to angle for the truth—a difficult trout to catch in such waters. But one darter after another was captured, till I had enough to form some opinion of those that had escaped. These we discussed till bitter feeling, like biting hunger, became appeased. Both went away declaring either margin of the pool good enough, and each urging on the other the first choice."



From "Sea and Shore"

WALTER COLTON
Alcalde of Monterey in 1846. The position combined administrative, judicial and even legislative duties.

One deficiency which Colton had to supply was the absence of a penitentiary system. To quote:

"There are no workhouses here, no buildings adapted to the purpose, no tools and no trades. The custom has been to fine Spaniards and whip Indians. The discrimination is unjust, and the punishment ill-suited to the ends proposed. I have substituted labor, and now have eight Indians, three Californians, and one Englishman at work making adobes [sun-dried bricks]. They have all been sentenced for stealing horses or bullocks. I have given them their task; each is to make fifty adobes a day, and for all over this they are paid. They make seventy-five, and for the additional twenty-five each one gets as many cents. This is paid to them every Saturday night, and they are allowed to get with it anything but rum. They are comfortably lodged and fed by the government. I have appointed one of their number captain. They work in the field; require no other guard; not one of them has attempted to run away."

Later, Colton had to deal with runaways; two Mexicans each telling him that the devil incited their flight, while one fellow who stayed behind in a jail delivery explained that he would not be seen running from Tophet in such company.

Of a convict who escaped and was brought back Colton says:

"If he will only stop stealing he may run to earth's utmost verge. He is rather a hardened character, but if he has a good vein in him I will try to find it. I always like to see a fellow get out of trouble, and sometimes I half forget his crimes in his misfortunes. This is not right,



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PROSPECTUS.

This is the first paper ever published in California, and though issued upon a small sheet, is intended it shall contain matter that will be read with interest. The principles which will govern us in conducting it, can be set forth in a few words.

We shall maintain an entire and utter severance of all political connexion with Mexico: we renounce at once and forever all fealty to her laws, all obedience to her mandates.

We shall advocate an oblivion of all past political offences, and allow every man the privilege of entering this new era of events unembarrassed by any part he may have taken in previous revolutions.

We shall maintain freedom of speech and the press, and those great principles of religious toleration, which allows every man to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience.

We shall advocate such a system of public instruction as will bring the means of a good practical education to every child in California.

ment and that of the U. States. It is resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives, in Congress assembled, that, with a view to provide the government of the U. States with the means of prosecuting the said war in a speedy and favorable termination. The President be authorized, as he is by these presents to employ the military and naval forces of the U. States, and to require and accept the services of any number of volunteers not exceeding 50,000 men who may offer, both Cavalry, Artilery and Riflemen, to serve 12 months from the time they shall have arrived at the place designated, or until the termination of the war, unless sooner discharged, according to the time for which they may have enlisted; and the sum of 10,000,000 of dollars of money at present in the Treasury or such as may be hereafter received, not already appropriated for other objects, be appropriated as it is by these presents to carry into effect the provisions of this Act.

Sec. 2. And it is further enacted, that the Militia, when called into the service of the United States, in virtue of the present Act, or any other; may, if in the opinion of the President (the exigencies of the public service require it,) be compelled to serve for a period not exceeding six months in any one year from the date of their arrival at the appoint-

THE FIRST PAPER PUBLISHED IN CALIFORNIA

It measured only about 8x12 inches. The paper was established by Walter Colton who had had journalistic experience as editor of the Philadelphia *North American*. This issue was published scarcely a month after the American occupation.

perhaps, in one situated as I am; but I cannot help it."

Colton decided that a new school house was necessary—"to be sixty feet by thirty, two stories, with a handsome portico. The labor of the convicts, the taxes on rum, and the banks of the gamblers must put it up," he writes. "Some think my project impracticable; we shall see,"—and he gives the following account of how some gamblers were made to contribute to this enterprise:

"A nest of gamblers arrived in town yesterday, and last evening opened a monte at the hotel."

After stationing a file of soldiers at the outer doors, Colton entered to find no one, "save one Sonoranian, composedly smoking his cigarito. I desired the honor of an introduction to his companions. At this moment a feigned snore broke on my ear from a bed in the corner of the apartment.

"'Ha! Dutre, is that you? Come, tumble up, and aid me in stirring out the rest.' He pointed under the bed, where I discovered a multitude of feet and legs radiating as from a common center."

"'Hallo there, friends—turn out.' . . . Their plight and discovery threw them into a laugh at each other." He and his secretary found others "in every imaginable position—some in the beds, some under them, several in the closets, two in a hogshead, and one up a chimney. Mr. R— from Missouri—known here as the 'prairie wolf'—I found between two bedticks, half smothered with the feathers. He was the ringleader, and raises a monte table wherever he goes, as regularly as a whale comes to the surface to blow. All shouted as he tumbled out from his ticks. Among the rest I found the Alcalde of San Francisco, a gentleman of education and refinement, who never plays himself, but who, on this occasion, had come to witness the excitement. I gathered them all, some fifty in number, into the large saloon, and told them the only speech I had to make was in the shape of a fine of twenty dollars each. The more astute began to demur on the plea of not guilty, as no cards and no money had been discovered, and as for beds, a man had as good a right to sleep under one as in it. I told them that was a matter of taste, misfortune often made strange bedfellows, and the only way to get out of the scrape was to pay up. Dr. W— was the first to plank down.

"'Come, my good fellows,' said the doctor, 'pay up, and no grumbling; this money goes to build a school house, where I hope our children will be taught better principles than they gather from the examples of their fathers.'"

Of how the labor of the prisoners united with the money of gamblers to build the needed school, he writes:

"One of the prisoners, an Englishman, ven-

tured a criticism of the stonework of another prisoner, which revealed the fact of his being a stonecutter himself. I immediately set him at work at his old trade. But he feigned utter ignorance of it, and spoiled several blocks in making his feint good. I then ordered him into a deep well where the water had given out, to drill and blast rocks. . . . Finding that the well was to be sunk some twenty feet deeper, . . . he requested that he might be permitted to try his chisel again. Permission was given, and he is now shaping stones fit to be laid in the walls of a cathedral. He was taken up for disorderly conduct, and he is now at work on a school house, where the principles of good order are the first things to be taught."

Colton gives an instance of trust justified on an occasion when, pressed for funds, he created a "trusty."

"The most faithful and reliable guard that I have ever had over the prisoners is himself a prisoner. He had been a lieutenant in the Mexican army, and was sentenced, for a flagrant breach of the peace, to the public works for one year. I determined to make an experiment with this lieutenant; had him brought before me; ordered the ball and chain to be taken from his leg, and placed a double-barrelled gun, loaded and primed, in his hands.

" 'Take that musket and proceed with the prisoners to the stone quarry; return them to their cells before sunset, and report to me.'

" 'Your order, Señor Alcalde, shall be faithfully obeyed.'

"A constable reconnoitered and found all well. At sunset the lieutenant entered the office, and reported the prisoners in their cells, and all safe.

" 'Very well, José, now make yourself safe, and that will do.' He accordingly returned to his prison, and from that day to this has been my most faithful and reliable guard."

"If there is anything on earth besides religion for which I would die," Colton declares, "it is the right of trial by jury." And he impanelled the first jury ever summoned in California. One-third were Mexicans, one-third Californians, and the other third Americans. The plaintiff spoke in English, the defendant in French, the jury, save the Americans, Spanish—"and the witnesses all the languages known to California."

"The inhabitants said it was what they liked—that there could be no bribery in it—that the opinion of twelve honest men should set the case forever at rest. And so it did, though neither party completely triumphed." He gives the credit for the satisfactory termination of this polyglot case to "the tact of Mr. Hartnell, the interpreter, and the absence of young lawyers."

When Colton Hall, the first state capitol and the pride to this hour of Old Monterey, was completed, Colton writes:

"The town hall on which I have been at work for more than a year is at last finished. It is built of a white stone"—now a beautiful deep cream—"quarried from a neighboring hill, and easily shaped. The lower apartments are for schools, the hall over them—seventy feet by thirty—is for public assemblies. It is not an edifice that would attract any attention among public buildings in the United States; but in California it is without a rival. It has been erected out of the slender proceeds of town lots, the labor of convicts, taxes on liquor shops, and fines on gamblers. The scheme was regarded with incredulity by many; but the building is finished, and the citizens have assembled in it and christened it with my name, which will go down to posterity with the odor of gamblers, convicts and tipplers. I leave it as an humble evidence of what may be accomplished by rigidly adhering to one purpose, and shrinking from no personal efforts necessary to its achievements. A prison has also been built, and mainly through the labor of convicts. Many a joke the rogues have cracked while constructing their own cage; but have worked so diligently I shall feel constrained to pardon out the less incorrigible."



COLTON HALL
The Capitol of California in 1849.



THE RIVER ROAD, KEENE VALLEY, NEW YORK

NEIGHBORLINESS AND A COUNTRY COMMUNITY

SARAH LOWRIE

WITH the growth of large cities in our country and the desertion of the farms for the town, there has been a less observable but quite as remarkable desertion of the city in favor of the country.

One would suppose that these two migrations would so balance each other that neither the town nor the country would suffer by the exchange of citizens. It would be reasonable to hope that going to the country would bring just the right impetus needed by the stay-at-homes of each community to brace them into new life.

But the thing has not worked out that way.

However much the shops and offices of the cities may have benefited by the advent of the farmers' sons and daughters, and however much the real estate agents and provision merchants of the country may have benefited by the advent of the well-to-do towns-folk, the morale of the country town, the ideals of the country people and the amalgamation of the native men with their new neighbors into a better citizenship have not prospered. Nor have the city institutions been able to replace the men of affairs who, having ceased to use the city except as a means for carrying on their business, have transferred their family and their leisure interests into the country.

The city churches, the city philanthropies, and the civic improvement organizations all tell the same tale: the rich men, the special executive men, the professional men, once their actual business engagements are over, turn their backs on the city with a sigh of relief and depart countrywards for rest and enjoyment for the night, for the week-end, and for the summer vacation. The city loses them, and they gain the country. But it must not be supposed that the country in any vital sense gains them. A man who has professedly moved from the town to the country for rest and pleasure, and who observably needs both, feels as free as a debutante to enjoy what is set before him in the way of diversion, with no moral obligation toward his neighbors but that of paying with a wry grin the outrageous prices levied upon all outsiders by the genial natives.

Without quite meaning to, without indeed quite realizing it, the richer men and women of this country, especially in our eastern states, have so shifted the obligation of neighborliness that they have the air of being transients everywhere and neighbors nowhere. Even their country places are not theirs year in and year out for as long as a single generation. We Americans like to change our minds and there is no telling what kind of scenery or what style of architecture we may fancy next.

One hears a great deal about the unfaithfulness of the Irish cook who may "up and leave" any day that she hears of a chance of "bettering herself" elsewhere; but the mistress's unrest is nothing to the plight of the farmer when one considers the lottery of the city folks. The gamble of his crops and the weather is nothing to this other gamble. For the farmer knows that no power under heaven can keep the city man satisfied with his site, his house with five bathrooms, his fancy chicken run, and his concrete garage if the whim should take his wife that the environment was no longer a suitable one for the children. There is no romance, there-



QUARTERS OF VISITING NURSE

fore, to the farmer about either his potato crop or his city neighbor. He knows it is not philanthropy that led the city man to buy five acres of poor farm land at the highest notch price, and that no desire for his company has urged the new comer to plant his house on the other side of the back pasture. Being a sensible farmer he makes what profit he can out of his potatoes and his city neighbor before either crop has time to depreciate in value.

"What are you city people for, but to be skinned?" was the frank remark of one of my nearest country neighbors one day, apropos of an outrageous bit of sharp dealing on his part as property appraiser for that district. It was not a flattering summing up of a relationship, nor did its grim humor hide any more indulgent version of our economic value as neighbors. In fact we were not, nor ever had been accepted by him and his kind as neighbors. We were a crop. A crop more lucrative than his potatoes, but from our arbitrary and unexpected demands, and the shortness of our seasons, and the variation of our types a much more "pernickety" crop to deal with. Perhaps I should have been flattered by his frankness, but I was not! For the moment indeed, I even resolved to deal no more with him or his, but on second thought I concluded that, although he would be the loser of some $200, I would be out a wash-woman, a chore boy, many dozens of fresh eggs, many quarts of milk, a care-taker for the house during the winter, and an immunity from his cows in my garden in the summer. In fact, I stood to lose double as much as he, if peace of mind and leisure to enjoy my home could be computed in hard cash. I concluded therefore that it would not pay to get mad.

But the remark rankled and in the end set this and that motive to work in my mind until my brain and heart became fallow ground for the cultivation of another sort of relationship than that of city folk and native, buyer and seller, employer and employed, or even giver and receiver. In the end we learned to be neighbors—he and I—not because his ground adjoined mine, but because we both began to feel a common civic interest in the same village and in the same country side, and because in a very particular and picturesque sense we both shared in an enterprise from which we both derived comfort and pleasure. The change in me was greater than the change in him for he had always been interested in the village life apart from his property, and apart from his comfort, and during all the year. The bond that brought us together was not the church, nor the library, nor the base-ball field—all donations in times past of the summer people to the natives, but it was the Neighborhood House, a donation from the country people and the summer people alike, not to any particular class but to all the dwellers in that mountain valley.

Of course, I realize that the particular Neighborhood House, which fits so well the need of our valley, might not do for just any valley. For instance, our valley in the Adirondacks has a scattered population of nearly a thousand people with two villages about five miles apart, and several little settlements here and there among the hills. In the larger village there are perhaps one hundred children in the school. The nearest hospital lies twenty-four miles across a mountain road, and several hours by boat across Lake Champlain at Burlington, Vt. An infirmary that could be used by the natives for long illnesses, and by the city cottagers for immergency operations was vitally needed; so our Neighborhood House has a sunny airy infirmary and a perfectly equipped little operating room.

Our village and the country people and the lumber camps back in the mountains can only depend on the services of two physicians, one of them an old and feeble man. To supplement their visits and for emergency calls for the summer visitors a district nurse was needed, so a bed-room, bath-room, and pleasant sitting-room for such a nurse were planned in the

Neighborhood House to connect with the infirmary. To supplement the somewhat limited primary grades in the village schools and to provide occupation for restless little city children, a summer kindergarten had been established and proved most successful, so on the lower floor of the Neighborhood House a large, many-windowed room was set apart to be used, not only for this purpose, but for adult classes in domestic science, sewing, embroidery and dancing. There was no proper room in the village for fairs, church suppers, glee clubs, rehearsals, informal village meetings, etc. There was added, therefore, to this large room a kitchen to be used in connection with it for such entertainments and for cooking classes. There had been a successful men's club in the village for years, but the women and girls had no common meeting place and indeed no real center of interest outside their homes. A woman's club room therefore was made an important part of our Neighborhood House. It has an open fireplace, a store closet and cupboards, a writing table, tea and game tables, comfortable chairs, and a pretty color scheme, with prints and water colors on the wall, oriental rugs on the hardwood floors, pleasant chintzes, books, and flower bowls.



CORNER OF WOMEN'S CLUB

Though the village women had been long accustomed to make extra pin-money by selling eggs, maple sugar, balsam pillows, bread and cake, and rag-carpet rugs, there has been no store where these things could be ordered. We set apart one room in our Neighborhood House, therefore, for a Village Exchange, which was open for three months in the summer. During the winter months this pleasant little room was used by the boys for a game room. There was no hotel or even boarding house in the village for transient guests, which remained open throughout the winter; so two guest rooms were set aside in our Neighborhood House to be used by the strangers, lecturers, clergymen, visiting surgeons, and city visitors who might pass that way during the late autumn and the winter months.

Neither the village people nor the summer cottagers were well supplied with sick room appliances, and among the poorer citizens of the valley there was even a lack of necessary articles for confinement cases, while crutches, invalid chairs, and wheel chairs were difficult to procure in an emergency by rich and poor alike. So an emergency closet, stocked with such things was set aside for general use in the Neighborhood House. The rooms in the rest of the house were the house dining-room and kitchen, the pantry, cool room, linen and store closet, the stewardess's bed-room, and an up-stairs sleeping porch for the infirmary, and a splendid attic. Outside the house were the wood shed, earth closet, tool shed and ice house, an ample vegetable and fruit garden, a lawn space for croquet and tether ball, a small flower and shrub garden, and wide verandas.

The house was originally a boarding house, and the only additions which had to be made to the original structure were the cellar, summer kitchen and the sleeping porch. The total cost of these additions and of the equipment and alterations including all gifts came to about $3,000. The original purchase price of the property was $2500. The cost of maintaining the house including the salary of the visiting nurse, the wages of the stewardess, and all household expenses, as well as the expenses of the summer school, extra service, etc., amount to about $2,500 yearly. The income derived from patients in the infirmary, transients boarding in the house, and out-patients' fees, exchange dues, etc., amount to about $700 a year.

I suppose in different localities expenses of such an enterprise as the Neighborhood House would be dealt with in a variety of ways. In our valley a number of men and women bought the property and made the fundamental improvements. An association was then formed comprising as many of the citizens of the valley as cared to join. The annual dues for each associate mem-

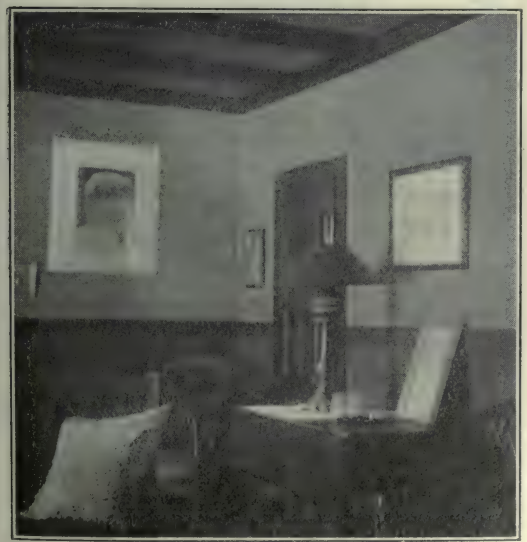
ber were fixed at one dollar. To this association the owners of the property leased the house and grounds for a period of several years. The duties of the association were to pay the taxes and maintain the property in good condition, and their privileges were to use the property for the benefit of the members of the association and, as they saw fit, for the general good of the community.

There were three kinds of memberships in the association:

Active members	$ 1
Contributing members	10
Sustaining members	50

Through this means the annual income of the Neighborhood House Association amounts to about $1,800, irrespective of the income derived from the fees, etc., mentioned above. Without any great strain on any one's purse, therefore, the house has been maintained by the association without a deficit.

Towards the equipment of the house gifts were received to the amount of $2,635.82. But besides these gifts of money, the village people themselves donated both labor and building materials and furniture and rugs. The summer kitchen, so far as labor was concerned, was the gift of the village carpenters. The infirmary was furnished principally by the women and the girls of the village who raised the money among themselves. The farmers of the neighborhood donated wood, potatoes, apples, etc., to the store-closet. One man donated his weekly Sunday paper, another the vines for the porches. One New York physician, whose child had profited by the care of the visiting nurse, gave the sleeping porch, three or four of the other physicians who had summer cottages gave the surgical instruments for the operating room, the children of the village brought plants for the garden, one old lady knitted washcloths for the bath room, the village house painter helped hang all the pictures and the bracket-lamps, and the village artist helped raise the money for the emergency closet by painting the scenery for the benefit play. There was really a chance for every one to give to that house, and with but few exceptions, every one did give, not only willingly and generously, but eagerly and joyfully.



A HOMELIKE CORNER



LOOKING INTO THE SCHOOL ROOM

And because each in his or her way had had a share in making that house a Neighborhood House, the valley people, natives and cottagers alike, promptly and without any self-consciousness turned heartily in and used the house. It had never occurred to most of us that the village had needed such a house, indeed the woman whose beautiful thought it was, had died a year before the Neighborhood House Association was so much as spoken of; but once it stood there, warm and glowing with its happy life that winter night of its opening, there was no question as to its usefulness all day long, summer and winter, in most of our minds.

During the past year the visiting nurse has been occupied in and out of the House over 2,600 hours and has treated fifty-four cases; the infirmary has had seven patients with 160 hospital days; from the emergency cupboard 300 loans have been made. The Women's Club has eighty-two members and has met weekly for lectures and socials. The Girls' Club with twenty-seven members has met once and sometimes twice weekly. The Glee Club has held many

rehearsals and gave a concert in May. The sales from the exchange, open only in the summer, in two years have amounted to about $900.00. The Village Improvement Committee has held two farmers' institutes, has made progress in securing good side walks, has planned for improved roads and tree planting, and has arranged for a prize essay and oratorical contest by pupils of the public school. During the past year there were about 5400 visits to the house; the largest number of visits in one month was 1064 in December.

The question may well be asked, however: Who guides these clubs and classes, who arranges for these parties, who welcomes these guests, who sees to it that the house is clean and orderly, that the meals are properly served, that the patients are well looked after, that the stewardess is up to her work? Who is the hostess, and who, at the close of the house's festivities, speeds the parting guest? It would have to be a woman of tact and gentle blood, for the village people would not brook so much power lodged in any one who was less or even quite one of themselves. It would have to be a person who lived in the valley both winter and summer and who thus understood the conditions of both the summer and winter life. It would also require one who understood the care of an infirmary, as well as the care of the house, who could devise sick room diet, as well as substantial meals for transient guests. Fortunately for our Neighborhood House we found such a woman in our visiting nurse and after some experimenting on other lines, she was made the head of the house. She is a social worker when she is not required in the infirmary or for out-patients, and when these last demand all or more than all of one nurse's time, an emergency nurse is procured who works under the head of the house.

The fact that this head is a nurse has made our social worker the confidant of many families to which another outsider would find but a coolly polite welcome. The fact that she is a social worker makes her interest in her cases widen to their families and remain after her professional duties are no longer needed. Being the head of the house, she can dictate as to the time of meals and the activities of the house for the good of the infirmary patients, yet being the social worker, the interest of the clubs and classes in the house are not needlessly sacrificed to the whims of her patients. Her training as a nurse and her experience has made her more executive than the ordinary young social worker, but her authority as head of a house of so many interests and as executive for so active and powerful an association, gives her prestige, and with that prestige a power for self-development which utilizes the best qualities she possesses. Moreover, in a country district such as our valley, where sickness is the exception, a nurse who was confined to her profession would have much idle time on her hands, and a social worker who was solely a social worker might be discouraged as to the slowness of the growth of her ideals in the minds of those about her. For where people live twenty-five miles from the railroad, tomorrow is always as good as today for beginning a new work. The women are, to say the least, conservative, and the girls are shy about showing enthusiasm for a new idea. The audiences for lectures arrive with sublime dilatoriness, and the boys stay outside until they are quite sure that what is going on inside is a roaring success.

Of course, the head of the house has a comprehending executive committee behind her. Of course, too, each department of the Neighborhood House, infirmary, summer school, exchange, clubs, etc., has its own committee and chairman. Her responsibilities, also, are only those of a trusted agent and all her reports are filed for the benefit of the Association, so that while each department depends practically upon her, she in her turn depends upon each committee and upon the executive committee and above all upon the able president of that committee for her inspiration and encouragement in carrying out her share of the usefulness of the house. All these good things did not come the first night the house was open. They are fruits of a happy growth. There have been many minor difficulties and prejudices and some evils to overcome. The prejudices died easiest, one of them, the fear that Neighborhood House provided for needs that did not exist, went most quickly of all.

Last summer when an army officer from West Point lay convalescing in one room, sharing his nurse with a little blind pauper baby, there was no doubt as to the need of an infirmary for rich and poor. When the exchange, which sold impartially the rag rug made by a guide's wife, the oil painting of an artist, and the home-made candy of a school child, and turned in $500 profits to its members, there was no doubt as to the democratic practicability of the exchange. When the women came from the Adirondack Club, and from the summer cottages to debate with the women of the village on domestic science, there was no question as to the success of the Woman's Club. And when the women of the church sewing society came to count their gains from the country supper, and the village Glee Club met to rehearse for its great concert, and the boys invited the girls to their birthday suppers, and the girls invited the boys to their dancing classes, and the young married people of the village invited last year's debutantes of far away cities to teach them new figures and steps, and the clergymen who supplied the village church and the lecturers sent by the gov-

ernment to answer the farmers' questions about agriculture, all shared the hospitality of the house, there remained no doubt in any one's mind as to its great usefulness to the entire community.

As to whether it has made neighbors of us all in the spiritual sense—as loving one another as we love ourselves—that has not become noticeable to a degree which has affected the price of eggs! And yet I noticed with a pleasant thrill at my heart last summer that when a woman, quite two miles away from my cottage, came down from her porch with a loaf of bread which she insisted upon my taking as a gift from her baking because she knew the bakery was shut and that I was in a sudden stress, she called me: "Neighbor!" "For goodness' sake!" said she. "Don't you dare to pay me. You'd do the same for me, I just guess! Aren't we neighbors?"



THE NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSE IN WINTER

Yes, surely we are neighbors—we city folk and country folk! But it took the Neighborhood House to teach us as a community the beginnings of the art of neighborliness.

A NEW MINISTER TO MINDS DISEASED

MICHAEL M. DAVIS, Jr.
DIRECTOR BOSTON DISPENSARY

AND

MABEL R. WILSON
SOCIAL WORKER, MENTAL CLINIC, BOSTON DISPENSARY

EARLY last June Mrs. R., a rosy-cheeked, attractive Irish-American woman of thirty years, came to the mental clinic of the Boston Dispensary in a depressed and emotional condition. She was obsessed by the idea that every one in the world had syphilis, and that she in particular was a menace to her husband and their three young children. So firm was this conviction that she had seriously contemplated suicide.

Four years previously Mrs. R. had shown distinct manifestations of syphilis, and had received medical treatment. The infection the physicians believed was accidental, and the husband and children had proved, upon examination, to be free from any symptoms. For over a year in Mrs. R.'s case Wassermann tests had indicated that the disease had been cured; but the doctor's assurances were of no avail.

The blackness of this patient's depression had almost wrecked her home. For months she had not prepared a single meal. The patience of her relatives and friends and of the priest of her church—who considered her what she looked, the picture of health—was entirely exhausted.

Ordinarily the income of the family was sufficient for self-support. Mr. R., a bright, clean-looking young bar-tender, who was well thought of by his employers, earned $18 a week. He had been making a desperate effort to meet the extra expenses due to his wife's illness. The strain was beginning to tell upon him, however, and the health of the children was also falling below normal. The family lived in a five-room tenement in a congested and undesirable neighborhood. Mrs. R. for this reason worried constantly about the possible bad influences upon her two elder children, who were just beginning to go to school.

Thus the mental clinic faced an acute situation. If it were not effectively dealt with it would, at worst, terminate in suicide, and, at best, in breaking up a promising family.

The facts just recited were, of course, not secured at the physician's first interview with Mrs. R., but were in part gained by the social worker in the clinic and at the home. It was apparent that the home situation must be considered as well as the medical problem. There was clearly a joint task for the social worker and the mental specialist. Consultation led to the conclusion that the home arrangements would have to be changed until Mrs. R. was able to undertake housekeeping again. A long month of explanation and persuasion passed before the family, friends, and priest were converted to a plan which involved the temporary dissolution of the home. Consent was finally obtained, and the children were placed by a children's agency. Probably most important of all, the earnest co-operation of the patient herself was won. For four months she reported at the clinic two or three times a week. After the many interviews held with her by doctor and social worker, her depression gradually cleared up, and she became ready to take up the battle of life again.

As improvement grew more marked, the doctor advised that she should work three hours each day outside her home. Three hours' work every day in a good restaurant was secured. The benefit was so marked that after a month the doctor suggested that the working time be doubled.

Mrs. R. now reports weekly to the clinic, but her depression has disappeared. She is cheerful, interested in life, and is looking forward to the re-establishment of her home this spring.

Recent conferences on mental hygiene have emphasized the fact that the traditional conception of mental disease, raving insanity, is far behind the times. We recognize today that there are in the community all classes of mental disorders, from the maniac or imbecile to persons who are "just a little queer," or who, like Mrs. R., have a definite and curable obsession.

The time has also gone by when we associated the treatment of mental disease with the straight-jacket. The hopelessly defective and insane must indeed be segregated in institutions. But it is public economy to diagnose and treat the great mass of incipient and curable cases of mental disorder, since these, if uncared for, mean the wrecking of lives, the breaking up of families, and material loss to the community. The psychopathic clinic, or clinic for mental diseases, is an agency the importance of which is now recognized by all who have given attention to this field. Such clinics have usually been conducted in hospitals or institutions which specialized in mental disorders. They have rarely been managed as adjuncts of general hospitals or dispensaries. There is a distinct place for them in this connection, however, for in this way they catch patients who do not know that their troubles are really symptoms of mental disease.

Mrs. R.'s case illustrates not only the service of such a mental clinic, but also the two chief agents in achieving the service, the physician-specialist in mental diseases—and his aide, the social worker. Mrs. R.'s case belongs to one of three classes of mental disease which such a clinic can benefit—the incipient type. The second class comprises cases of mental defect which require diagnosis and institutional care.

For example, Mrs. B., a middle-aged Irish woman, came to the clinic much excited, fancying that people were locking her into her rooms. Among other delusions she feared that she might injure her two children.

The doctor diagnosed her case as involutional insanity, and thought that immediate arrangements were desirable for her entrance into an insane hospital as a voluntary patient. Mrs. B. did not remember her street number, and undoubtedly she would have been a "lost" patient if the social worker had not taken her home. Arrangements were made and carried out for a transfer to the insane hospital that same afternoon, and a children's agency agreed to assume supervision of the children during Mrs. B.'s absence. The help of a friendly landlady was also enlisted.

Within three months Mrs. B. was discharged from the insane hospital in excellent condition, with the understanding that she should report regularly at the clinic. Her improvement continues. She is at present earning good wages as a housekeeper and looks forward in the future to a little store and the re-establishment of a home for her children.

Another illustration of this type is Mr. D., a German forty-eight years old, who has been in the United States twenty years.

Mr. D. became known at the dispensary through his wife, who had been a patient. The man went on periodic "sprees" at this time, apparently because his work as an order clerk had occasioned considerable nervous strain. Temporary financial assistance and a new job outside of Boston, seemed to put the man on his feet again; and, with a happier home life, his wife's health improved.

In a short time, however, distinct symptoms of mental disorder began to manifest themselves. Mr. D. talked much to himself, and was haunted by doubt in everything that he did. If he put on his hat he was forced to step in front of the mirror several times to be sure that the hat was really on his head. After completing a piece of work, he returned many times to make sure that it was really done. Occasionally he remained at home in bed, because his fellow workmen, noting his peculiar actions, had laughed at him. Upon this basis a fear of meeting people grew up, and he shunned every one. Once or twice he approached his wife

threateningly. The superintendent feared to keep him at the factory any longer, and discharged him. After a careful medical examination, the prognosis for the patient was not very favorable. A possible outcome was an active and incurable form of insanity. It seemed necessary, in order to have a reasonable hope of cure, that a radical change of life be made.

Therefore, Mr. D. was induced to go as a volunteer patient to a hospital for the insane. There he remained six months, during which time, with the assistance of the Associated Charities, suitable quarters and light work were found for his wife. Mr. D. was allowed to visit her weekly, until she became ill with an attack of Bright's disease, which, complicated by cardiac symptoms, occasioned her death. This loss retarded Mr. D's. recovery; but, at the end of six months the hospital considered him sufficiently improved to be discharged to the dispensary for continued observation.

At present, six months after his discharge, the situation is very encouraging. Mr. D. is working most satisfactorily as a porter for a large department store. He has secured an excellent room with some old friends, has given up drinking, and, from his twelve dollars a week, is paying back the advances made by the Associated Charities. His "insanity of doubt" seems to have vanished, and his outlook upon life is once more interested and hopeful.

Still another case is that of R, a boy of eleven years. He was born in Russia, of Russian Jewish parentage and has been in the United States six years:—

R.'s own story of his first visit to the mental clinic, was in a manic condition and talked incoherently. A week before his appearance at the dispensary the child had returned from school in a much disturbed state. Since that day he had not been able to sleep, and had manifested great nervous depression with hallucinations and had attempted several times to jump from the window.

R's own story to the physician was broken and confused. He talked much of having been forced by his teacher to go down on his knees, and insisted that his hair was on fire. He appeared a sensitive and intelligent child.

Investigation revealed no history of mental disease throughout the families of both father and mother. A home visit by the social worker showed that the family of seven lived in a four-room tenement in a congested and noisy Jewish section. The father was a tailor with an irregular income.

The boy was immediately sent to the psychopathic ward of the Boston State Hospital, where the diagnosis of acute insanity was confirmed and a week later R. was committed to the Danvers State Hospital. A co-operative connection was established between the social worker and the hospital physicians at Danvers who were in charge of the case. After he had sufficiently recovered, the plan was made that R. was to be placed in the country under the supervision of one of the children's societies for a period of at least six months. Dr. Mitchell, superintendent of the Danvers State Hospital, wrote in approval of this arrangement.

The plan was carried out with most successful results. At the end of six months he was released from the parole of Danvers State Hospital and returned to his home to report once a month to the mental clinic at the dispensary.

The social work in this case was not confined entirely to arrangements for the boy, but extended to the preparation of the family for his return, which involved moving to a less congested neighborhood in a Jewish section of a Boston suburb. It was also necessary to arrange for his attendance in an open air class, win his teacher's interest and co-operation, and educate the father to a realization of the need of discipline, the value of regular hours for eating and sleeping, the desirability that the boy should sleep alone, and the danger of exciting recreations.

R. has now been at his own home for twelve months. A recent entry on the medical record states: "Patient in excellent physical and mental condition."

The third class includes patients who have been discharged from insane hospitals as cured, or as so much improved that they should be able to maintain themselves and take part in family life again.

This work of after-care is extremely important. Many cases of mental disease can be safely discharged from an insane hospital if there is assurance that they will be properly followed up in their homes. Such supervision requires the joint efforts of the physician and the social worker.

Miss C., for instance, a woman of thirty-three years, was sent to the clinic for after-care, by arrangement with the superintendent of the insane hospital to which she had twice been sent for maniac-depressive insanity. Her mother had also been a patient for years in the same hospital. During the first weeks of her treatment at the clinic, she was still nervous, complained of gnawing sensations in the back of her head, and dreaded to ride in the street cars. When sitting, she constantly pulled and twitched different parts of her clothing, beat upon the floor with one foot, and kept one hand on her head, using the other one alone. She lived with a married sister who was in comfortable circumstances, and worked for her brother in an unprofitable little plumber's shop, which he apparently kept mainly to afford employment for Miss C. and a younger brother.

With this history it was plain that careful oversight and regular clinical visits were necessary to prevent future attacks. Advice and encouragement were given with the object of stimulating Miss C.'s normal interests and of

persuading her to return to wholesome companionship. During the summer of 1912 it was decided to remove Miss C. entirely from home associations, and a desirable position as housekeeper was secured in the country. There she gained in weight and spirits, and acquired valuable experience. She still comes regularly to the clinic, and the medical and social prognosis seems favorable.

The value of organized social service in connection with the clinic for mental diseases has been strikingly shown since its recent establishment at the Boston Dispensary. In the department for mental diseases in this institution, which is a large and long-established dispensary taking all classes of diseases, a trained social worker was set at work in January, 1912. At the expiration of a year an efficiency test was made, comparing the clinic during 1911, when the medical staff had no social worker to assist them, with 1912, when she was at their service. The following table summarizes this test:

	1911	1912	Increase Per Cent
New Patients	125	213	70
Old Patients	no record	100	—
Visits by New Patients	388	909	134
Visits by All Patients	516	1568	203
Cured or Substantially Improved	19%	22%	16
Cases Pending at End of Year[1]	2%	22%	1000
Transferred to Other Agencies	16%	49%	206
Patients Lost	27%	5.6%	90[2]
Relative Efficiency	43%	94%	118

The gist of these statistics is that, with the aid of a trained social worker, it is possible to treat certain forms of mental disease effectively in an out-patient clinic. The physician becomes able to keep a grip upon all patients that he wants to hold. There is practically a closed circle, and the results of treatment bear favorable comparison with private work. It is not too much to say that such a clinic, provided with a staff of interested mental specialists and with trained social workers, can perform an important function in treating mental disease and preventing its spread in the community.[3]

The social worker at the Boston Dispensary works actually in the clinic. Here she meets each new patient and takes a careful social history, usually before the patient sees the physician. Often she is present when the doctor interviews the patient, and always, after this interview, the physician consults with the social worker. Then a plan of treatment is made which includes the social as well as the medical factors of the case. In a certain proportion of cases, home visits are not necessary. The efforts of the social worker in the clinic itself are sufficient to secure adequate treatment. Thus there appears a very important classification of the kinds of social work required:

1. Patients presenting acute family problems of poverty, ignorance, or undesirable home conditions and associations. These patients require home visits and intensive social work. In the mental clinic of the dispensary they constituted 48 per cent of the 141 patients.

2. Patients requiring a home visit simply for the purpose of insuring the patient's return to the clinic—that is, cases in which there were no complex home problems but in which it was necessary to go to the home once in order to persuade the patient to come back for treatment. This class at the Dispensary constituted 20 per cent.

3. Patients to whom it was possible to give effective treatment by clinical interviews only, without home visits. This class constituted 32 per cent.

Inasmuch as the cost of the service per patient (estimating the time taken by the social worker) is enormously greater in class one than it is in class three, it is highly important to make this classification, and to keep a close watch upon the proportion of the different types, so that the cost of the work as a whole, with reference to its efficiency, can be accurately estimated.

An efficiency study from this standpoint during 1912 leads to the conclusion that the average cost per patient (the complete treatment of a case) in class three is sixty cents; in class two, a dollar; in class one, four dollars. The medical service is given gratuitously by the physician. More extended studies in this and in other mental clinics should be made in order to work out the cost figures more accurately.

There can be no doubt, however, that even if the cost of medical service were added, it is cheaper to treat mental diseases in the early stages, when patients can retain their places in the community, wholly or partly self-supporting, than to let the disease reach a point where permanent damage is done, and the insane hospital is the only resource.

That out-patient clinics should fill an important place in the new nation-wide campaign for mental hygiene, there can be no doubt in the mind of any one who has given attention to the matter. That organized social service is not only a desirable accompaniment of such clinics, but an essential condition of their efficiency, is a demonstrable and measurable fact.

[1]The increase of "cases pending" is due to the organized medical and social follow-up work, whereby the patients are held at the clinic until the physician feels that they may safely be discharged. Without this service the cases do not "pend" because they are lost.

[2]Decrease.

[3]The preventive work of the clinic takes place in two ways: first, by diagnosing cases of mental defect that ought to have institutional care, and in securing this care for them by placing them or inducing their families to consent to place them in the proper institution; second, by the education of patients and their families in habits of life and principles of mental hygiene which establish a home environment favorable to the preservation of mental health.

CIVIL WAR IN THE WEST VIRGINIA COAL MINES

HAROLD E. WEST

[The Survey has not had staff or means to send a special representative to the West Virginia coal fields to make an intensive investigation of the conditions in the strike area. That is the sort of social interpretation we shall hope to perform with the growth of the slender resources of the Survey Associates. We have done the next best thing—viz., turned to the most promising newspaper source.

It has been current gossip among journalists that the press of West Virginia could not be relied upon to tell the truth about the situation in the Kanawha Valley. Of the metropolitan newspapers which up to March had had staff representatives in the field, the accounts of the Baltimore Sun stood out. They did not mince matters in telling of the brutal murder by the strikers of the mine guard Stringer; nor did they hedge in publishing what was done by the Cabin Creek and Paint Creek Colliery Companies. Mr. West was the representative the Sun had sent into the field, and from him The Survey requested an article, only stipulating that it be fair to both sides and tell not only the events of the strike but the conditions back of them.

"The article may seem unduly to favor the miners," wrote the Baltimore Sun man in sending it in. "I went to West Virginia absolutely unprejudiced, with the idea of telling the truth about the situation. I found conditions I did not believe could exist in America, and I am no novice in the newspaper game, having seen some pretty raw things in my time. I told the truth about them, and am afraid I have gotten myself disliked."

The fairness of the article is disputed by Neil Robinson, secretary of the West Virginia Mining Association. His protest is published in the forepart of the magazine.—Ed.]

FOR nearly a year a state of turmoil amounting in practical effects to a civil war has existed in the coal fields of West Virginia. The situation centers in the Kanawha Valley, hardly more than twenty miles from Charleston, the capital of the state.

The military power of the state has been used with only temporary effect; martial law has been declared and continues in force; the governor of the state has been defied and denounced from the state house steps and within his hearing; men and women have been thrown into prison and are still there for espousing the cause of the miners, and the grim hillsides of the canons in which the mines are situated are dotted with the graves of men who have been arrayed against one another in this conflict between capital and labor.

Of course, there have been errors and excesses on both sides. The men in the mines are not angels by any means, and neither are the men for whose profit they work. But there has been no profit on either side for the last year and it looks as if there would be none for a long time to come. The men of both sides are pretty good fellows away from the mines and the subject of mining; on the matter of mining, they show the obstinacy of men who look at a proposition from but one point of view, who see no justification of the position of those who oppose them and who seem to have lost absolutely the sense of proportion.

If the efforts made by William B. Wilson, former Congressman from Pennsylvania and former secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America, to have a federal investigation of the situation early in the struggle, had been successful, the whole matter might have been settled long since. But his resolution calling for a congressional investigation was buried at the last session of Congress and was never resurrected.

Wilson charged that a condition of peonage existed in the mines and that men were held there by force and compelled to work against their will. The coal operators denied this vehemently, at the same time fighting bitterly a federal inquiry. Evidence I was able to gather on a trip of investigation to the mines convinced me that a form of peonage does, or did, exist; that the miners were oppressed; that the rights guaranteed under the constitution were denied them; that the protection of the law of the state was withheld from them and the law openly defied and ignored by the coal operators. These things were done, apparently, not because the operators were cruel, but—the old story of dividends—because they thought it necessary that a balance be shown on the right side of the ledger, and because competitive conditions in the coal fields were such that more of this balance had to be produced from the men themselves than from the bleak hills in which they toil.

The investigation is bound to come. Wilson is a cabinet member in the new administration, and could of his own volition carry it on under

the broad terms of the act creating the new federal Department of Labor. But there is another agency which may look into the situation. When fellow members of the lower house balked Congressman Wilson's proposal, he interested Senator Borah of Idaho and the latter promised to introduce into the Senate, at the coming special session, a resolution calling for a full and complete investigation, by a committee of the Senate, of the whole situation in the West Virginia coal mines, including the question of peonage, the use of mine guards and other means of oppression. This would be a Senate resolution, it would not have to be concurred in by the House of Representatives, and it is understood that Secretary Wilson has votes enough pledged to pass it.

Even the close of the strike which has been rumored the past fortnight would not make such a fundamental inquiry during the spring and summer inopportune, but rather a measure of precaution in anticipation of future labor conflicts in the region. The fact that such an inquiry has been actively contemplated is not generally known; information about it has not been published in the newspapers, but has been given me for use in THE SURVEY.

Backward View of the Trouble

The Kanawha trouble dates back about ten years. At that time the miners' condition was good, as things go for men in the coal fields, and the miners along Cabin Creek were organized. An ill-advised strike was called then, and it resulted in a disastrous defeat for the miners. This strike was ordered by officials of the union against the desire of the miners directly affected and it is charged by Cabin Creek miners that it was declared in the interest of the Ohio operators who desired to cripple their West Virginia competitors. Some of these operators have since admitted that they helped finance the strike. As long as the trouble lasted, operators in competitive fields could gobble the business of operators whose plants were shut down. Of course, after the men had been beaten and the strike broken and non-union conditions and wage scales went into effect, the competition was more bitter than it had been before, yet the pickings were good while they lasted. That, however, is all ancient history.

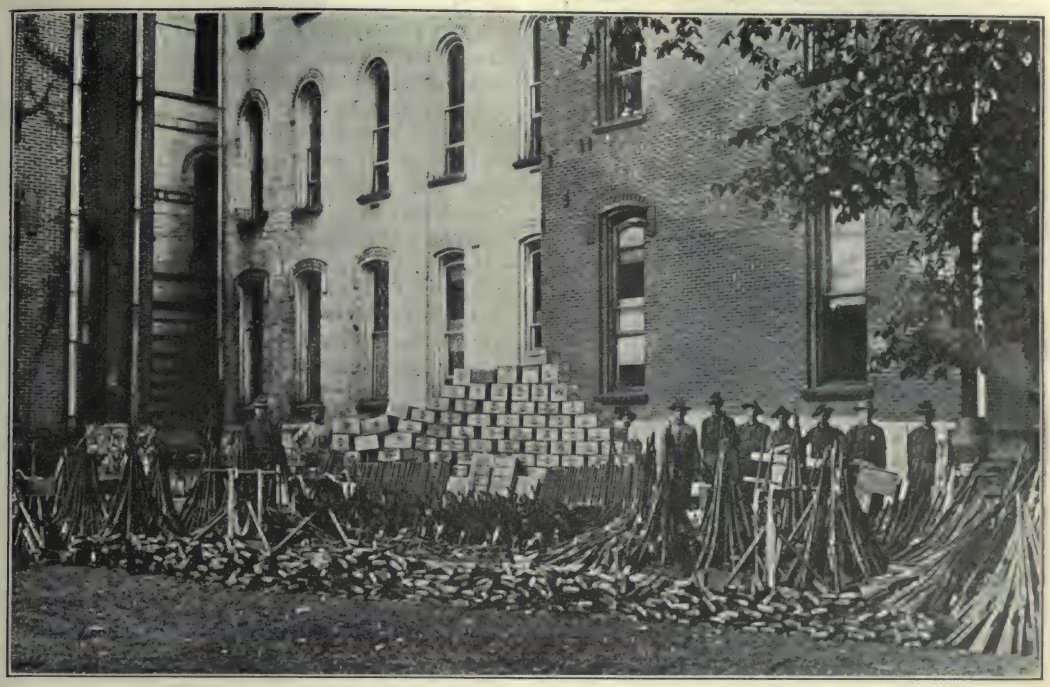
Ever since the strike of a decade ago the men on Cabin Creek have been restless. Conditions were burdensome although they were not so bad on Paint Creek which was organized. The operators were out after business and they cut prices on coal to the limit in order to meet the competition of Illinois, Ohio and western Pennsylvania operators and get a share of the "lake trade." For the driving force behind this civil war in the hills of West Virginia is to be found in the coal bins of 10,000 factories of the Middle West and beyond whose managers and workmen know little or nothing of the struggle.

By "lake trade" is meant the coal that goes to ports on Lake Erie for transportation by steamer and barge to Detroit and as far as Duluth and Superior for distribution throughout the Northwest. All the trade that passes over the lakes, no matter what its ultimate destination, is known as the "lake trade." The Pittsburgh operators have held that the opening of the West Virginia fields was an economic blunder, that the lake demand was no greater than Pittsburgh and Ohio could supply, and that it was a mistake for the West Virginia operators to enter that field. The latter took the position that they had the coal, and did not propose to let it remain undeveloped because it would interfere with the market of the operators of other fields. They would mine their coal and would sell it wherever they could, and if they could grab a big share of the lake trade they proposed to do it. It has been a battle of millions.

To strengthen their position the Pennsylvania operators have bought large blocks of West Virginia coal lands. The Lackawanna Coal Company has, for example, secured control of the principal operations on Paint Creek.

The operators in the Ohio, Illinois, and most of the Pennsylvania fields, get out their coal under terms as to hours and wages imposed by their agreements with the United Mine Workers. In order to be in a position to meet the growing competition of the West Virginia fields on an even footing in the matter of labor, it is an open secret, that they have given aid and comfort to the union in the effort to organize the West Virginia field. They have been fighting on the other hand for a reduction in their own freight rates or an increase in those of their West Virginia competitors, they did not care which, as the consumer finally pays the bill. Until a comparatively recent time, the rate from the Pittsburgh district to Ashtabula and Cleveland has been 88 cents a ton, while to Toledo and Sandusky, the rates from the West Virginia field have been 97 cents and $1.12 a ton.

Something more than a year ago the pressure on the railroads became so great that a meeting of the officers of the coal carrying roads and the operators from the Pittsburgh and the West Virginia districts was held in New York in an effort to settle the difficulty. No agreement could be reached and the roads, unable to resist the pressure of the Pittsburgh operators advanced the rate from the West Virginia fields 9¼ cents, making the differential in favor of the Pittsburgh field 18¼ instead of 9 cents.



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CONFISCATED ARMS AND AMMUNITION

The revolvers and rifles were taken from both mine guards and strikers

The West Virginia operators appealed to the Interstate Commerce Commission for an investigation, and an order suspending the rate was granted. Then John W. Boilleau, a big operator in Pennsylvania, demanded a reduction of 50 or 55 cents a ton from the Pittsburgh district, further complicating the situation. Early last year, the Interstate Commerce Commission handed down a decision reducing the rate from the Pittsburgh district 10 cents and held that the Chesapeake and Ohio and the Kanawha and Michigan rates should remain as they had been but that the Norfolk and Western rate might be increased. This decision resulted in increasing the differential in favor of Pittsburgh to 19 cents.

With this handicap in freight rates, the operators on Paint and Cabin creeks say that it is impossible for them to pay the union scale and submit to union conditions and keep going. It is a fact that although the average price of coal in West Virginia for 1911 was a cent above the price in 1910, many coal companies failed. Some mines have been operated by receivers while others have been closed down on the ground that coal cannot be produced at the mouth of the mines and put on the cars at the price it brings in the market. Others are just about coming out even while some are making money.

Profits from Mine or Men?

The strikers answer by charging that the losses and difficulties incident to competition are many of them paper losses and paper difficulties, that the mines would pay well under union conditions and rates of pay if the mines were not working on an inflated capitalization and were not endeavoring to earn money on a lot of watered stock.

In one of the talks which I had with Neil Robinson, secretary of the West Virginia Mining Association, he went into the cost of production and told of the efforts of the Pittsburg operators to shut the West Virginia coals out of the lake trade. He produced the calculations of G. W. Schleuderberg, general manager of the Pittsburgh Coal Company, which were given in the lake rate cases before the Interstate Commerce Commission, showing that the average cost of production in 52 mines, including general office expenses, depreciation, royalty, fuel, supplies, and labor, was 99.09 cents per ton of coal on cars.

As against this, he showed a generalized statement, which he said was based on actual working conditions in the Kanawha splint coal mines indicating a cost of 99.11 cents on cars, a difference of two hundredths of a cent in favor of the Pittsburgh operators.

The Schleuderberg figures showed a total labor



Courtesy of the Coal Age

ON GUARD
A Cabin Creek ridewoman before her tent

cost of 72.16 cents a ton while Mr. Robinson's figures showed for the Kanawha fields a labor cost of 65.66 cents a ton, a difference in favor of the Kanawha fields of 6.5 cents, and if superintendence and certain other costs be included, a cost of 68.78 cents, which is a per ton difference in favor of the Kanawha fields of 3.38 cents. This would more than cover the increase asked by the miners which is half of the Cleveland compromise scale or approximately 2½ cents a ton.

Of course, there is the railroad differential in favor of Pittsburgh to be considered. In spite of the differential of 9 cents against the West Virginia field, which existed up to the time of the settlement of the lake trade cases by the Interstate Commerce Commission, the West Virginia operators shipped in 1910 to lake ports more than six million tons of coal, a growth of over four million tons since 1906; or 125 per cent and even with the differential spread to 19 cents, they are shipping coal as rapidly as they can mine it.

The explanation of the Kanawa Valley miners is that in their efforts to capture the Lake Trade the West Virginia operators in competing with the Pittsburgh district operators have been selling coal at less than cost and making their profits out of their men.

The miners told me that ever since the fight began their condition has been becoming harder and harder to bear. One of the men, answering my statement that the operators said they were barely meeting expenses said: "Damn it, I know there is no money in coal at 80 cents at the tipple; any fool knows that, but by God, they've got no right to take it out of us."

And that in my judgment is about the truth of the situation. Or, as Neil Robinson explained to me in all seriousness: "Labor is simply a pawn in the game."

Yet the game has cost the state, the operators and the miners millions of dollars and many lives, has caused untold hardship to women and their children, has engendered a bitterness that a generation in time will not heal and hatreds that will last a lifetime.

In making that statement, I am convinced that Mr. Robinson did not know how it would sound to one who puts the well being of men, women and children above the necessity of capital for dividends. He was simply stating a business fact. I had several talks with him in the course of my stay in the mine region and found him a cultivated, courteous man. I think I got his point of view which coincides with that of the operators generally. They seem to look upon labor as material, to be bought as cheaply as possible and to be utilized in the manner which will be most profitable to the mine investments.

Whenever I went in to see him to discuss the situation he immediately produced account books, and books of statistics and began giving me figures. The whole case of the operators, he seemed to think, could be shown by the books and the balance sheet. He told me of tonnage, cost of production, railroad freight rates, yield on investment, the yield of competitive fields and the cost of operation in those fields, capitalization and rates of dividends. But of the human side, he had substantially nothing to say. Of the outrages of the miners—and they have been numerous—he spoke with bitterness, but of the outrages committed upon them he was silent.

Of course, figures such as Mr. Robinson produced are important but they are not everything. The trouble is that the operators do not seem to be able to see beyond them into those desolate little cabins under the everlasting hills, to the rights of men, to the causes that make for anarchy—that have made for anarchy, in this very region.

The State at Stake

It is hard to tell just how many men have been out in recent months. Five thousand would be a fair estimate. And remarkable as it is, these men have been able to hold out through a winter—and winters are severe in those West Virginia mountains—and they enter the spring and the long season, when cold does not fight them from the ranks of their opponents, full of cheer and determined to continue the industrial war in which they have engaged.

It must be remembered that this fight is not simply one between miners and operators on Paint and Cabin Creeks. It is localized there, but every miner and every operator in the state is involved more or less directly. It is really a fight for the unionizing of the entire coal fields of West Virginia, now largely non union.

If the operators stamp out the effort to restore unionism on Paint and Cabin Creeks and prevent its going further than it has already gone on Coal River it will mean the checkmating of unionism in the coal fields of the state. Fights will be made, one after another, in places where the United Mine Workers have organizations and they will be broken up as they were broken up on Cabin Creek ten years ago. Once broken, they will not be permitted to be formed again.

If, on the other hand, the miners win, their organization will be pushed first into one field, then into another, until the whole state shall have been unionized. It will take them years to do this. This explains the extreme bitterness of the present fight, each side practically staking its all on this one throw. Of course, the operators do not admit that they are battling to crush out unionism in the state and the officials of the mine workers' organization do not talk much about extending the fight to other fields if they win in this. That is their purpose, nevertheless.

The miners are receiving assistance from other operators in non-union parts of the state. All the resources of the United Mine Workers of America are being thrown behind the miners. As explained to me by perhaps the most prominent man in the organization a few days ago, there is now no big fight on hand anywhere else in the country, and there has been none for a year. This has enabled the mine workers to collect a big fund and they are still collecting. The organization's war chest is kept in good shape by contributions from every mining district in the nation and all this will be poured into the Kanawha field if necessary. In addition to this, the miners again have the sympathy, if not the active co-operation, of the operators in the Pennsylvannia, Illinois and Ohio fields where the union scale is paid.

In fact, the operators in the fields which are organized look upon their brothers who have been able to prevent the union getting a hold in their operations very much as the union laborer looks upon the non-union laborer, although the operator is not so frank in expressing his opinion. He is perfectly willing to upset the labor conditions in his competitors' operations and aid the laborers in making their fights. And the operator in the unorganized field is perfectly willing to see his competitors' fields organized to the limit.

The country in which this war between the miners and the coal companies is taking place is as wild as any that lies out of doors. Cabin Creek Junction is sixteen miles east of Charleston and Paint Creek Junction is seven miles further east. On Cabin Creek the railroad runs south along the bed of the creek sixteen miles



MOTHER JONES

to Kayford while on Paint Creek the road extends for twenty-two miles. These creeks are little streams, ordinarily, which sometimes reach the proportions of torrents, flowing along the bases of the mountains. The elevation of the creek beds above tide ranges from 800 to 1,000 feet, while the tops of the hills which rise abruptly on both sides of each creek are from 1,000 to 1,500 feet higher. The sides of these hills are so steep that only an experienced mountaineer can climb them, yet here and there near the creek beds the miners have raised little patches of corn and vegetables.

The workable veins of coal lie high up on the sides of these hills, and from each mine mouth a track leads to the coal tipple below from which the coal is dumped from the mine cars to the cars of the railroad which runs beneath the tipple. Here and there at the base of either of these ravines is a narrow strip of flat land, and on these flats, the mining villages are located. At places the bottom of the ravine is so narrow that there is not room for the railroad track, the creek bed and the county road, so the road runs along the bed of the creek and is impassable at times of high water and oftentimes in the winter.

It is estimated that before the strike began, there were approximately 10,000 men, women and children living along Cabin Creek and somewhat more than half that number along Paint Creek. A train runs up each creek in the morn-



MINERS' HOMES LEASED FROM MINE OWNERS

Courtesy of the New York Sun

ing and there is another in the afternoon and if you happen to miss the afternoon train out there is no way out except to walk, and walking is very difficult in that country.

For that reason little real news of the exact condition of affairs has reached the outside world. Newspaper men are decidedly unwelcome along the creeks; that is, their presence is distasteful to the mine owners. Few strangers had been allowed to enter the creeks for a long time prior to the entry of the militia last summer, without explaining their business to some man, and usually a man with a gun. Ordinarily a stranger would not get beyond the junction of the main line and the branch road. If the explanation of his business did not happen to be satisfactory, he was told to get out. If he demurred or showed a disposition to argue he was frequently beaten up. If he got up the line, his chances of getting beaten up were largely increased. One labor organizer told me that a couple of years ago he was pulled off a train and kicked into insensibility by the mine guards and when he recovered was made to "walk the creek" in water up to his waist because he had gone up Cabin Creek to see what the labor conditions were.

The Mine Guards

These mine guards are an institution all along the creeks in the non-union sections of the state. They are as a rule supplied by the Baldwin-Felts Detective Agency of Roanoke and Bluefield. It is said the total number in the mining regions of West Virginia reaches well up to 2,500. Ordinarily they are recruited from the country towns of Virginia and West Virginia, preferably the towns in the hill country, and frequently have been the "bad men" of the towns from which they came. And these towns have produced some pretty hard characters. The ruffian of the West Virginia town would not take off his hat to the desperado of the wildest town of the wildest west.

These Baldwin guards who are engaged by the mining companies to do their "rough work" take the place of the Pinkertons who formerly were used for such work by the coal companies. Since the Homestead strike in the steel mills years ago when the Pinkertons fired into the strikers and killed a number of them, this class of business has gradually drifted away from the Pinkertons and much of it has been acquired by the Baldwin-Felts agency.

In explanation of the employment of these guards, the operators say that their property must be guarded, that the state does not give them sufficient protection. Men who do service as mine guards cannot be expected to be "ladylike." They deal with desperate characters and are constantly in peril. The guards act on the principle that they must strike first if they are to strike at all, and evidence shows that they have not the slightest hesitancy about striking first. The operators also say that it is necessary to require explanations of strangers in order to keep out labor agitators and to prevent the miners from being annoyed and threatened by them.

No class of men on earth are more cordially hated by the miners than these same mine guards who are engaged to "protect" them from annoyance by outsiders. Before the state troops went into the region and took their rifles away from them, the mine guards went about everywhere, gun in hand, searching trains, halting strangers, ejecting undesirables, turning miners out of their houses and doing whatever "rough work" the companies felt they needed to have done. Stories of their brutality are told on every hand along the creeks. Some are unquestionably exaggerated, but the truth of many can be proved and has been proved.

In spite of the work they do some of these Baldwin men seem to be decent enough chaps to those who are not "undesirable," and they are, for the most part, intelligent. But they are in the mines for a definite purpose. They understand what that purpose is and they have no hesitancy about "delivering the goods." They seem to have no illusions about their work. It pays well and if brutality is required, why, brutality "goes." Whenever possible they are clothed with some semblance of the authority of the law, either by being sworn in as railroad detectives, as constables or deputy sheriffs.

But for all that a number have been indicted for offenses ranging from common assault to murder. In every case, however, bail has been ready and it is rare that charges against them have been brought to trial. Some of the assault cases in which they have figured have been of great brutality, yet rarely has any serious trouble resulted for the guards. They go about their work in a purely impersonal way. If a worker becomes too inquisitive, if he shows too much independence, or complains too much about his condition, he is beaten up some night as he passes under a coal tipple, but the man who does the beating has no feeling against him personally; it is simply a matter of business to him.

Just what the services of the guards cost the coal companies is difficult to learn. The companies contract with the Baldwin-Felts agency for them and the sum they pay is kept a secret. It is generally understood that the guards get about $5 a day, or between $100 and $125 a month. A man in the mines who knows one of them intimately told me he "picked up his gun" for $105 a month. When a man joins the Baldwins he "picks up his gun," and that stamps



Courtesy of the United Mine Workers' Journal
A GROUP OF STRIKERS' CHILDREN

him forevermore with his former associates if they were of the laboring class as an enemy and a man who has turned his back on his class and his kind.

Unless the miners are beaten in this fight, and utterly and completely beaten, there will never be a settlement of the difficulty here until the mine guards are driven from the region. "The mine guards must go," is the slogan of the striking miner everywhere. His going is of more importance than an increase in pay. There will be no lasting peace in the region until they are gone. All over the state when the situation in the Kanawha valley comes up for discussion you are told that the mine guards are at the bottom of the trouble. They are the Ishmaelites of the coal regions for their hands are supposed to be against every miner, and every miner's hand is raised against them. They go about in constant peril—they are paid to face danger and they face it all the time. But they are afraid, for they never know when they may get a charge of buckshot or a bullet from an old Springfield army rifle that will make a hole in a man's body big enough for you to put your fist in. A number of guards have been killed since the trouble began, and it is generally understood that some of these were buried by their fellows and nothing said about it, there being a disposition down in the mines not to let the other side know when either side scores and gets a man.

Beginning of Hostilities

Preparations for the warfare, which began in April of last year, had been going on for months before the actual opening of hostilities. The miners on Paint Creek began buying old Springfield rifles which the government had discarded and which were offered in quantities by junk dealers and department stores in Charleston. There had been rumors of trouble, and the Paint Creek miners who were organized had received intimations that Cabin Creek conditions would be established in their operations. There had been no mine guards on Paint Creek for they are seldom seen in union operations. The miners had received imformation that the operators would not sign the scale for the new year but would repudiate the union and bring in the guards.

Their information proved correct. When the Kanawha Operators' Association met to consider the scale, the Paint Creek operators declined to sign it and withdrew from the association. The miners struck and the guards appeared over night. A big fight took place at Mucklow when the first blood was spilled in the trouble. It has been spilled in quantities since with more or less regularity.

The companies immediately prepared for a long fight. Miners were evicted from their homes and many of them have since been living in tents furnished by the United Mine Workers. Machine guns were imported and mounted in concrete fortifications that were hurriedly built on the roofs of the company stores and mounted in positions of vantage in the hills. Whisky, cartridges, rifles and machine gun ammunition were brought in in large quantities.

The strike spread at once to Cabin Creek and from the beginning the warfare has been more serious on Cabin Creek than it has been on Paint Creek. More machine guns were established on Cabin Creek than had been planted in Paint Creek. The situation grew so threatening that Governor Glasscock ordered out the militia early last August at the solicitation of the mine owners. By that time almost every man on Cabin Creek had his rifle and ammuni-



Courtesy of the United Mine Workers' Journal

A TENT VILLAGE OF STRIKERS
The deserted town is in the background

tion, hidden but where he could get at it without trouble. For the most part the arms were smuggled in over the hills. The mine owners informed Governor Glasscock that the miners were armed and were threatening to wipe out the mine guards, one of the guards, William Stringer, having been slain in a most brutal manner. The miners did not ask for protection, saying they could protect themselves. It is generally believed that they were waiting for some particularly bad move on the part of the guards, when they proposed to exterminate them if possible. The mine owners expected that when the troops came they would disarm the miners but allow the guards to retain their rifles, in other words, and to put it very plainly, they expected that the militia would be used as an additional force against the miners. But when the troops began disarming the guards as well as the miners they protested most vigorously. But for every rifle taken away from a guard in the early days of the trouble, dozens of new ones were brought in.

Martial Law

Governor Glasscock's attitude pleased neither the operators nor the strikers. The miners at the outset wanted him to proclaim martial law, to search the whole place, run out the guards, take their arms away from them and take the machine guns out of the improvised forts. They received the soldiers with open arms—no set of soldiers ever went into a strike region and received a heartier welcome. In the presence of the troops, the guards had no terrors for the miners, and even the children were unafraid.

When martial law was really proclaimed, however, the strikers did not like it. The law was enforced with vigor and a number of the strikers were put in prison for violating the law against unlawful assemblages. The shoe had begun to pinch and it pinched pretty hard before the soldiers were withdrawn. It was a mistake to take away the troops before the strike had been definitely settled. It would have cost the state a good deal to have retained them after things quieted down, but if a comparatively small force had been kept, it is hardly likely that the recent trouble would have occurred, and it would not have been necessary to send the soldiers back and proclaim martial law a second time. Then many lives would have been saved.

The trouble that followed the withdrawal of the troops could have been, it seems, foreseen by almost anyone. One of the miners said when I was in the mines:

"Hell is going to break loose here as soon as the troops are recalled unless the mine guards go out at the same time. They have it in for us and we have it in for them. As soon as the troops go out, we fellows who have been working to unionize this region are going to catch it. But when they start something the fun will begin.

"If you want to see some hot doings just wait around until the troops go. Conditions such as prevail here are a disgrace. The like of them does not prevail in any civilized country on the globe. And we are not going to stand them any longer. I have never had to kill a man and hope never to be compelled to kill one, but I would kill a dozen of these guards as I would kill so many rats if they should attempt to lord it over us as they have been accustomed to do. And I would do it with a perfectly clear conscience."

The man who made this statement was killed in one of the recent fights in the valley. I saw his name in the list of the dead.

One of the things that give the coal operators such complete control of the men who work for

them is the ownership of great tracts of land. Everywhere you are confronted with a notice that you are on private property.

Landlordism

Because the West Virginia mining villages are nearly all on private property, the operators owning the highways as well as the houses of the miners, they can control their going and coming and determine who may or may not visit them and talk with them. It is idle to say that the men can come and go as they please, as the operators claim. Each individual among them has the right to go from his home to the mine and back again and to travel on the county road, which is merely an excuse for a highway. But he has not the *right* to go from his own home to that of a fellow workman nor has his wife and children. When they do so, it is by the sufferance of the mine owner, unless they go by the county road and then half the houses cannot be reached. It is idle to say that this power is not exercised by the operators. It is. I have seen it exercised, and this very fact contains a serious menace to the country. I talked it over one day with Governor Glasscock in the early days of the trouble.

"How can it be remedied?" he asked. "The whole situation bristles with problems like this. In this case you are up against a man's constitutional right to control his property as he sees fit and to keep trespassers off it."

Such a situation offers a serious problem in government. Take Cabin Creek alone, with its branches to Kayford and Decota. There are more than twenty square miles of territory in which live ordinarily about 12,000 persons. In all that territory there is scarcely a place in which a man may go without being under surveillance, and except at the little "free" or incorporated town of Eskdale, hardly a house into which a friend may be invited for a drink of water except by the grace of the coal companies.

The miners say that such a condition is un-American. They want it solved and they do not care how it is to be solved. While this matter is not put in the list of their demands, it is one of their serious grievances. Here are the things they are demanding:

Abolition of the mine guard system.

A reform in the system of docking.

The employment of checkweighmen on the tipples to represent the miners and to be paid by the miners. The law provides for these checkweighmen, but this law is ignored by the coal companies.

Permission for the men to trade where they please without discrimination against them for so doing.

The payment of wages in cash every two weeks and not in script or credit cards.

Improved sanitary conditions, with the requirement that the companies remove garbage and keep the houses in condition.

Payment for mining coal on the basis of the short ton on which the coal is sold and not on the basis of the long ton, on which it is at present mined.

Rentals of houses based on a fair return on their cost with allowance for upkeep and electric lights on the same basis.

The nine hour day—the men now work ten hours.

Recognition of the union. This implies, in the bituminous districts of the middle West, the check-off system by which the companies deduct from the pay envelopes of individual miners not only the charges for powder, rent, medical attention, store accounts, etc., but also for union dues which are turned over to the union treasuries direct. This method of recognizing the union has been most vigorously opposed by the operators in the anthracite district.

An increase in pay. This last the miners regard as the least vital of all their demands as a present issue.

Charges as to Peonage

It has been charged that a condition of peonage exists in some of the mining districts of the state. This is a subject on which the operators are very sensitive. They deny vehemently that such a thing is possible.

Peonage, as it is usually understood, means compelling men to work under duress until debts they may owe are paid. It is a violation of state and federal laws.

Men who come into the mines usually have little or no money. Sometimes their transportation into the mines is paid and they are charged with the cost of it on the books of the companies employing them. They are given a cabin to live in and if they have no money when they start and seem to want to go to work in good faith they are given credit for small amounts at the company stores. Accordingly, unless the miner is an unusually thrifty fellow, he is usually in debt at the start.

Miners have told me that in the Cabin Creek region they are paid only once a month, but when they start in, they are not paid any cash for sixty days, the first month's pay being held back. In the meantime, however, after they have earned sufficient money to pay the rent and other charges in connection with their cabins, their school tax, burial tax of twenty-five cents a month, their assessment for the maintenance of the mine physician, and sometimes an item for "protection" which is an assessment for the pay of the mine guards they will, "on applica-



Courtesy of the New York Sun

SOLDIERS IN CAMP AT CABIN CREEK JUNCTION

tion" be given a "script card" entitling them to purchase from the company store goods to the amount indicated on the card. On the edges of the card are figures and the amounts purchased are punched out very much as the waiters in a quick lunch restaurant punch out the amount of a customers order on his check.

These script cards will not, it is said, be given to a miner for the total amount which stands to his credit on the books of the mine company, but is usually for $2 or $3 if the man has that amount due him after deductions are made for rent in advance and other charges. If a man is very anxious however, to have some cash, a clerk in the store, will, it is said, discount his script card, charging him 25 per cent.

For the first two months, then, the miner, who starts out in debt, has to get everything he needs from the company stores. The prices at these stores are high, much higher than the miner would have to pay elsewhere for exactly the same grade of stuff. For the most part, the grade of goods sold at the company stores is much higher than is usually purchased by laboring men and their wives when they buy where they please. Here are some of the prices I found prevailing at stores along Cabin Creek:

Eggs 35 cents a dozen; "white bacon," pure fat and popularly known as "sow belly" 18 cents a pound; smoked bacon 22 cents a pound; white sugar 20 cents for a two pound bag; lard 15 cents a pound; brown sugar 15 cents a pound; coffee 30 cents a pound; tomatoes 15 cents a can; peas 15 cents a can; corn two cans for 25 cents; cheese 30 cents a pound; bread 5 cents a loaf; flour $7 a barrel, and salt 5 cents for a two pound bag. Salt is not sold in bulk.

Compelled to buy at high prices, it can be readily seen that a man cannot save much money, although it is a fact that a few of the very thrifty ones have rather respectable bank accounts. So when the average fellow starts out in debt, he usually stays in debt. His work is hard and he eats heartily when he can. Then the miners' wives have never been taught how to make much out of little or to conserve their resources, so there is naturally much waste in cooking, much is spoiled and much is poorly prepared.

All this tends to keep the man in debt. At the end of his two month's work he may have a couple of dollars coming to him or he may be still in debt and if he is in his house a day over the first of the month, rent in advance is charged against the first money he earns even though he and his family may be in need of food. Sometimes he does not get any cash for months, and you have to have cash to get out of the mines for the railroads will not permit the miners and their families to travel without paying fare.

Most of these people have no one outside on whom they may call for help in leaving the district, and without money, they must stay in the mines and work. Heretofore their best means of getting out was to develop strong union tendencies and to talk about the necessity of organizing. Then, if they were not beaten up, their fare was sometimes paid, and their furniture and families moved to some other point. Once out, however, it would be unpleasant for them to try to get back.

A point is made by the operators that they have offered to pay the fares of any of their men and of their families, including transportation charges on their household goods, to Charleston or to fields operating under union conditions. It is a fact that such offers have been made and because the miners did not avail themselves of the offer, it is cited against them as unreasonable, and that they did not care so much about bettering their condition as about harassing the operators.

As a matter of fact the men do not care to leave the region. They are engaged in a fight to unionize it and are as anxious to succeed as are the operators to prevent them from doing so. "Stay where you are and unionize your district but do not crowd into organized operations," is the advice given by the union organizers. That is why the unions in the other districts are supporting the strikers and have been doing so for a year.

The Glasscock Commission

Last summer after the mine companies refused point blank to be a party to the appointment of a commission by the governor for the investigation of the situation in the mines, Governor Glasscock appointed one anyway. Bishop Donahue, the Catholic bishop of Wheeling, S. L. Walker, and Fred O. Blue were appointed as commissioners. Extracts from the report of this commission are interesting:

"From the cloud of witnesses and mass of testimony figuring in the hearings, there emerges clearly and unmistakably the fact that these guards [the mine guards referred to heretofore] recklessly and flagrantly violated in respect to the miners on Paint Creek and Cabin Creek, the rights guaranteed by natural justice and the constitution to every citizen howsoever lowly his condition and state. . . . Many crimes and outrages laid to their charge were found upon careful sifting to have no foundation in fact, but the denial of the right of peaceable assembly and of freedom of speech, many and grievous assaults on unarmed miners show that their main purpose was to overawe the miners and their adherents and, if necessary to beat and cudgel them into submission. We find that the system employed was vicious, strife prompting, and un-American. No man, worthy the name, likes to be guarded by others, armed with black jacks, revolvers and Winchesters whilst he is endeavoring to earn his daily bread. . . . We are unanimously of the opinion that the guard system as at present constituted should be abolished forthwith."

The commission also found that the company stores overcharged the miners, that the system of docking was unfair to the miner, and that a system of blacklisting of miners prevailed.

On the other hand the commission found that in a general way, the miners in the Paint and Cabin Creek districts were fairly well off, that their wages were above the average prevailing in the organized fields, that their cabins were above the average, and that the rent, while "slightly excessive" was not exorbitant, and that the sanitation was "as good as can be expected." On the question of wages, the commission found that the annual wage of miners in West Virginia for the years 1905-1911 was $554.26 while the average annual wage of miners on Paint and Cabin Creeks "is from $600 to $700." It will be noticed that in the first instance a definite, fixed figure is given for the average. In the other the statement is a general one "between $600 and $700."

The statement is also made that "a minute examination of the pay rolls discloses the fact that 16 or 17 days' work a month constitutes a high average and that many engaged in the mines *decline* (the italics are mine) to labor more than 12 or 14 days."

There are two sides to this. The "unwillingness" of the miners to work more than a certain number of days a month is proved to the satisfaction of the commission by an "examination of the pay roll." As a matter of fact in most instances the reason the men do not work more days in a month is due to the system of "crowding" which prevails all over the non-union districts of West Virginia. This is one of the things the miner complains about most bitterly. It is worked in this way: An operation has, say a capacity of 200 men. On the pay roll of that operation may be anywhere from 300 to 400 men. All these men cannot work in the mine at one time, but the company always wants to have plenty of men on hand. So the men are allowed to make but little more than half time. The advantage to the operators is that the more men they have the more cottages they will rent, the more mouths there will be to feed from the company stores, and the more money collected for physicians' fees, insurance and other things for which the miners have to pay. It is absolutely true that the men do not work more than from 12 to 17 days a month, but the pay roll will never tell you the real reason. The men want to work, but they are not permitted to do so.

As to the cabins being above the average—they may be. I went into some of them. I would want a more comfortable stable for my horses. The greater number of the cabins contain four rooms each and are absolutely without any sanitary or other arrangements for the convenience of the occupants. Some few are larger and some are smaller but the four room cabin is the type. They are nearly all alike, built of rough lumber and roofed with a composition roofing such as is bought by the roll. The rental is on the basis of $1.50 per room per month. A four room cabin costs $6 a month, a six room cabin costs $8 or $9. But take the average four room cabin at $6, the yearly rate is $72. That is interest at 6 per cent on $1,200. The labor cost on these houses was not more than $40 each on the average. Including the land on which the houses stand they did not cost the companies more than $300 each. Six per cent on $300 is $18.

Now, the houses are put up as much for the convenience of the companies as for the miners. There would be no coal mined unless the miners had houses in which to live, so a 6 per cent rate on the houses would seem fair. But even allowing 10 per cent, the rate would be $30 instead of $72. At the rentals charged these houses have paid for themselves over and over again and everything the companies get out of them now is pure "velvet." I would call the rental charges exorbitant rather than "slightly excessive" as the commission finds.

As a matter of fact, that Glasscock commission report will not bear close analysis. It is a straddle, made so perhaps in order to protect "the good name of the state." I do not believe that it is accurate in a number of particulars. I do not believe that the average wage of the miners on Paint and Cabin Creeks is between $600 and $700. A good miner will average $2.50 to $3 a day for the days he works. The impression is sought to be created that many of the miners have money in bank. Some of them have, undoubtedly, but they form an exceedingly small percentage of the whole number. I know that as soon as the strike was called the vast majority of the miners and their families had to be supported by the union. I saw wagon loads of provisions sent up to the head of Cabin Creek to feed those who were hungry and who had nothing coming to them according to the books of the companies and who could get nothing at the stores.

As a matter of fact the whole truth has never been told of the real conditions existing in the mines of West Virginia. One of the most illuminating pieces of testimony available to the non-partisan investigator is that of former Governor W. M. O. Dawson. Governor Dawson sent a special message—a rare document and hard to find now—to the legislature of 1907. Three cases of peonage in lumber camps had been called to his attention by Secretary of State Elihu Root at the request of the Italian ambassador. In his message Governor Dawson declared without equivocation that a system of peonage existed under the guard system. One of these cases resulted in what he called a "wanton murder" as a result of a controversy as to whether the murdered man owed $1.50 for the railway fare of his son. The man was killed by a guard. The governor goes on:

"The use of guards in this state is not restricted to cases like these under investigation. They are used at some of the collieries to protect the property of owners, to prevent trespassing, and especially to prevent labor agitators and organizers of the miners' union from gaining access to the miners. . . . Many outrages have been committed by these guards, many of whom appear to be vicious and dare devil men who seem to aim to add to their viciousness by bulldozing and terrorizing people. It is submitted in all candor that it is not to the best interests of the owners of these collieries to employ such lawless men or to justify the outrageous acts committed by them.

"In certain parts of the state miners are oppressed and wronged. They are compelled to work in ill ventilated and otherwise unfit mines. They are cheated in the payment of the compensation for their labor. They work on the condition that they receive so much per ton for the coal mined by them, the coal is not weighed but is calculated by the mine car. These cars, at least in some of the collieries, are rated at a capacity of two and one half tons, whereas they often have a capacity of four tons and in some cases even up to six tons, but the miner is paid for only two and a half tons, for all above that he mines, he gets no pay whatever. This is robbery of the poor and oppression of the weak. At some of the stores conducted by the collieries the miners are charged extortionate prices for merchandise. This is likewise robbery of the poor and oppression of the weak."

Mother Jones

The developments of the winter have been under the regime of a third governor, who came to the state house at a season when part of the commonwealth was under martial law. In March came the trials of a number of the strikers and their sympathizers—approximately fifty—by a military court on charges of inciting to riot, conspiracy to murder and conspiracy to destroy property. Among those in prison is Mother Jones, the "Stormy Petrel of Labor" who is always present in big labor disturbances, especially those of the miners and the railroad men. She has given the best part of her life to the cause of laboring men and they adore her.

This old woman, more than 80 years of age, was in the mines when I went there and I got

to know her well. She passed the word along to the men that I was "all right" and reticent as they are to strangers, they told me their side of the case without reservation.

I have been with Mother Jones when she was compelled "to walk the creek," having been forbidden to go upon the footpaths that happened to be upon the property of the companies and denied even the privilege of walking along the railroad track although hundreds of miners and others were walking on it at the time. She was compelled to keep to the county road although it was in the bed of the creek and the water was over her ankles. I protested to the chief of the guards saying that no matter what her attitude might be, no matter how much she might be hated, that she was an old woman and common humanity would dictate that she be not ill treated. I was told that she was an old "she-devil" and that she would receive no "courtesies" there, that she was responsible for all the trouble that had occurred and that she would receive no consideration from the companies.

I was with her when she was denied "the privilege" of going up the footway to the house of one of the miners in order to get a cup of tea. It was then afternoon, she had walked several miles and was faint, having had nothing to eat since an early breakfast. But that did not shut her mouth. She made the speech she had arranged to make to the men who had gathered to hear her although they had to line up on each side of the roadway to avoid "obstructing the highway," a highway that was almost impassable to a wheeled vehicle and on which there was no travel. And in that speech she counseled moderation, told the men to keep strictly within the law and to protect the company's property instead of doing anything to injure it.

I had several long talks with her. When she speaks to the miners she talks in their own vernacular and occasionally swears. She was a normal school teacher in her early days, and in her talks with me in the home of one of her friends in the "free town" of Eskdale, she used the language of the cultured woman. And this is the old woman whom nearly all the operators in the non-union fields fear, and whose coming among their workers they dread more than the coming of a pestilence. They now have her safely in jail.

When I left the field[1] the conflict was still on. It seemed likely to continue until one side or the other gave in. The presence of the military could only bring about a peace that is temporary. Having held out through the winter, the miners were preparing to hold out through the spring and summer and autumn if necessary, and the United Mine Workers of America were preparing to back them up with all the resources of the national organization.

[1]Since the writer left the district an unavailing effort was made to secure from the civil courts an order restraining the military commission from conducting the trials of those held on charges of participation in various deeds of violence in connection with the strike. Later, however, Governor Hatfield who, as head of the military forces of the state, has the power to review the acts of the military commission, discharged from custody a majority of those held.

Recently negotiations have been carried on between the miners' union and one of the large companies involved in the strike with the result that there is a possibility of a settlement being effected in that quarter, though the matter remains *in statu quo* until the return from the tropics of the president of the company. Recently some of the troops have been withdrawn from the strike zone, though martial law is still in force.



Courtesy of the Coal Age

MILITIAMEN ESCORTING PRISONERS TO COURT MARTIAL

SOCIAL FORCES

By EDWARD T. DEVINE

CONSTRUCTIVE RELIGION

GREED, selfishness, privilege, injustice, exploitation, ignorance, and neglect are the seven deadly sins of modern civilization. These evils are alike in this, that they all have their roots in defective or abnormally developed character. Weakness and pathological strength are their opposite but closely related and interdependent poles.

Revolution will not exterminate them, except that revolution within the soul of man which transforms weakness and moral disease into health and normal vigor; which cuts away the abnormal excrescence of harmful qualities and transforms the monster into a sane and self-controlled individual.

Laws will not of themselves exterminate the least of the social evils, save as they correspond to a previous clear recognition of their wisdom and justice in the free minds of citizens. If graft and privilege express the habitual manner of doing business, the natural mental reaction of the average man of the community, then it will be true, as an investigating committee has said, that there is no virtue in the legislative printing press.

Philanthropy is no cure for the evils which cause crime, poverty, squalor, and degeneracy. It is a necessary means of dealing with certain definite conditions, but those conditions are symptoms of ulterior maladies which the charitable relation does not reach. Neither alms-giving nor preventive measures touch the real sources of regeneration and health.

Education, in the specific sense of preparation for efficient work and the development of the mental powers, such education as by mutual consent we expect from our public schools, does not begin early enough, or last long enough, or go far enough into the fields of personal habits, ideals, and motives to guard even against ignorance, at least that kind of wilful and appalling ignorance which prevents half the world from knowing how the other half lives, even when the facts are spread abroad equally in official reports and in popular literature; that kind of ignorance which blinds the eyes of the more favored of fortune and blasts the tender shoots of altruism which their hearts here and there put forth. If education cannot prevent even ignorance of this kind how much less can it be regarded as a remedy for deliberate exploitation and conscienceless greed.

If neither revolution nor laws nor yet formal education can cure these root evils, is there no cure? There is one potent, wholly efficacious cure, and that is such teaching and such an experience as will supplant selfishness and greed by generosity and compassion, the desire for privilege by the desire for equal opportunity, the instinct of injustice by the passion for justice, the tendency to exploit by the tendency to nobly serve, ignorance and neglect by a clear-eyed and persistent determination to know and understand and to act on that knowledge and understanding. This teaching, wherever it is carried on and in whatever name, is essentially religious teaching, and this experience, seizing upon the individual, is nothing else than a religious conversion. This is not to distort words from their established and usual meaning but only to apply them as they must be applied.

No rich and educated Jew can justly claim a share in the glorious traditions of his religious faith if he oppresses the poor and crushes the needy; if, lying upon beds of ivory, inventing instruments of music, drinking wine in bowls, and anointing himself with the chief ointments, he is not grieved for the afflictions of Joseph, if he afflicts the just, or takes a bribe, or turns aside the poor in the gate from their right. The afflictions of Joseph are different in these days, the form of bribery has changed, the rights of the poor from which they are turned aside are not precisely those which the prophet Amos had in mind; but the teachings remain, and the curse upon those who "rejoice in a thing of nought" may not unprofitably ring in the ears of Jews and Christians with all the old time authority and effect.

But how about the position of the prosperous and influential Christians professing a law of love, the sonship of all men to a common Father, a gospel of good will embracing justice and implying obligations stretching in all directions infinitely beyond justice, but never denying it in the least iota? If this profession is not arrant hypocrisy or pure self-delusion, the faith which he holds

will instantly expel the very evils from which we suffer, and nothing else except such faith will expel them. Religion goes to the very roots of character, cleansing the evil nature, revealing new motives, illuminating the mind, transvaluing values, strengthening the will, lessening the power of temptations, setting the feet on safe paths, giving a new meaning to common experiences and a new zest to life.

The question remains whether this kind of constructive religion, this vital, living and vibrant faith, is to be found today in the churches and synagogues, or whether it has departed from its ancient altars, perhaps to reappear in strange disguises in the labor movement, in art or poetry or philosophy, or among humble people who do not have the means as yet of expressing the new impulses.

It is a grave question—for the churches. One interesting indication that it is to be answered in favor of the continued claim of the existing religious bodies to represent the main current of flowing religious faith, work, and thought is to be found in a new journal which appeared on the news-stands in March with the captivating title *The Constructive Quarterly*. Silas McBee, former editor of the *Churchman*, is its editor, but it is to have no "editorial pronouncements."

What is distinctive about this new periodical is that it is to work for a better understanding among the various communions of Christendom, building on what the churches are actually believing, doing, and thinking. It is not seeking neutral territory where courtesy and diplomacy would tend to avoid issues and round off the sharp edges of truth and conviction, but rather common ground where loyalty to conviction will be secure from the tendency to mere compromise and to superficial and artificial comprehension. In the first number there is a striking array of able articles from Roman Catholic, Greek Orthodox, Evangelical Protestants, from Europeans and Americans, clergymen and laymen. It will be difficult to maintain so high a standard; but the idea is an inspiring one and deserves to succeed.

The tragedy of ecclesiastical history in all ages is the spilling of blood and treasure by the churches in warfare against other forms of faith. It is true that the decay of religious controversy has usually meant a decay of interest in religion. A writer in the *Quarterly* quotes Tennyson as having said, "You must choose in religion between bigotry and flabbiness." What the present venture is in some measure to test is the possibility of laying aside hostility while yet maintaining *esprit de corps*, to act in the spirit of Von Moltke's dictum, "March apart, strike together!"

The success of the effort will depend on the clear perception of the enemies against which the allied forces of religion are to strike, or dropping the figure, on the concentration of effort on the positive results which the forces of organized religion are to seek to secure in the social order. These lie partly at least, avoiding dogmatic exaggeration, in those social relations in which the evil tendencies to which we have referred are so apparent. The religion which is constructive is one which makes men unwilling to exploit the vices or weaknesses of their fellow men, and at the same time makes the other men unexploitable, which destroys privilege through just laws, impartially enforced, and upheld by enlightened public opinion, which dispels ignorance by full and exact knowledge bearing fruit in sound measures of social reform, which protects the sub-normal and emancipates the handicapped from their limitations, which permeates education, business, politics, and eventually the entire social life.

There may be other tests of true religion, but these are concrete, easy to understand and to apply. They have ancient and sufficient sanction. They are unsectarian and non-controversial.

STRANGE INCENSE

CARY F. JACOB

A tiny, tangled head bent down
Within a city's gutter—
A laughing face of tan and brown
Amid the rubbish of the town.

Mud-pies and broken glass all day
Bring fairyland from far away
To thee, sweet innocence, at play.

But mud-pies blacken; glass gives pain,
And laughing eyes are turned to gain
'Mid cold and hunger, snow and rain.

God shield thee, tangled head bent down
Within a city's gutter!
Poor lily of the noisome town!
Strange incense, shed o'er stranger ground!

THE SURVEY

Volume XXX, No. 2 April 12, 1913

In the Wake of the Flood

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Dayton, O., April 6.

Two weeks after the flood disaster, Dayton is still struggling to rise,—is not yet over the emergency period. This is not from lack of energy or organization but because not only homes but essential business and public service undertakings are destroyed. Fire is terrible but leaves a clean track. Flood like this is equally destructive and leaves mud, misery, danger to health and dread of even slight rise of river before levees are mended.

American Red Cross now charged with full responsibility for relief, with continued co-operation of National Cash Register Company and many local committees and organizations. Every effort now bent towards restoration of normal conditions. All aid directed to that end.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,

Special Representative
American Red Cross

This Issue Ten Cents Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

THE PITH OF IT

JUST a week ago Governor Sulzer signed eighteen of the bills, originally thirty-two in number, drawn up by the Factory Investigating Commission of New York. As all the bills reorganizing the State Labor Department were consolidated into one, this leaves only a handful of measures still to pass. Among the bills which have become laws are those relating to housing conditions in labor camps; fire risks in factories; physical examination of child workers; sanitary arrangements in factories; the use of seats for women workers in factories and workrooms; night work; general accident prevention; dangerous trades; and the bill for the reorganization of the labor department.

AT two recent conferences held in New England earnest was given of the genuine support which the leaders of rural development are receiving in their efforts to revitalize country life. P. 65.

THAT child labor is even more a cause than an effect of poverty was the point emphasized at the ninth annual conference of the National Child Labor Committee at Jacksonville, Florida. One result of the conference was the organization of the Florida Child Labor Committee. P. 60.

IN Morals Commission and Police Morals Prof. Graham Taylor points out that, although the diagnoses are alike in New York and Chicago, different treatments are under consideration as the remedy for the police corruption which has been revealed. P. 62.

HAS the organized peace movement "guts" is the question which John Haynes Holmes of New York asks in his plea for the democratization of the peace movement. P. 62.

WOMEN police are serving in a dozen cities on the Pacific coast. Portland, Ore., appointed Mrs. L. G. Baldwin, for this work as early as 1905. This led to the establishment of a municipal department of public safety for young women. Louise de Koven Bowen, president of the Chicago Juvenile Protective Association, tells of the special protection which women police can give girls and boys against city dangers. P. 64.

WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD of the Industrial Workers of the World, who was arrested in Paterson, N. J., for a violation of the "unlawful assemblage" act, while leading a crowd of striking silk workers away from the city, has been released as the result of an appeal to the Supreme Court. Justice Minturn in rendering the decision said: "Our statute was never directed in the history of English law to an organization of people assembled for the purposes of discussing common grievances."

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

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(Signed) Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 17th day of March, 1913. Edward B. Bruch, Notary Public, Westchester Co. Certificate filed in New York Co. New York Register No. 3225. (My commission expires March 30, 1913.)

GOVERNOR DONAGHEY of Arkansas turned loose 360 convicts as one way of striking a blow at the system of hiring out prisoners to private contractors. Although his purpose has now been achieved, for his successor, T. F. Robinson, has signed a bill which abolishes the lease system, hardly a paper outside the state has noted the fact. P. 54.

THE COMMON WELFARE

IN THE WAKE OF THE FLOOD

By the end of last week, according to reports from the Red Cross representatives in the flood district, the relief situation was being satisfactorily handled; and out of the chaos a careful survey was revealing more definitely the extent of the rehabilitation problem. This unfortunately does not shrink in magnitude, on the basis of later reports, as does the list of dead. It is clear that large sums will be needed. Every message from Red Cross agents emphasizes the urgent necessity for continuing and redoubling the efforts to secure funds.

The New York office of the Red Cross received a despatch at the end of the week from Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the Red Cross at Columbus, which gives the most comprehensive summary of the situation thus far received. He says:

"Have just returned from tour of flooded towns with Governor Cox and Flood Relief Commission. Governor and Commission have requested Red Cross to take charge of relief operations in Ohio and all money contributed through governor will be expended under direction of the Red Cross. This assures absolute freedom from conflict of authority or confusion in expenditure in Ohio.

"The emergency relief situation in each flooded district in Ohio is well covered. Dayton, Columbus, Cincinnati, Piqua, Troy, Ottawa, Sidney, Hamilton, Miamisburg, Middleton, Zanesville and Tiffin are covered by Red Cross representatives. Information is being rapidly accumulated on which to base rehabilitation. Am pushing men into other flooded towns as fast as water subsides and we can get the men. It has been most difficult to get reliable information; wires are still down and transportation extremely difficult. Further rains are impeding progress.

"The best information we can get indicates the following conditions throughout state. Four hundred sixty dead in Ohio, 4,200 homes destroyed, estimated 40,500 people temporarily homeless and 9,000 families, outside of Dayton, Columbus and Cincinnati, will need rehabilitation.

"Col. Miller, chief quartermaster, reports need of underwear of all sorts, as well as bedding and blankets. Some Ohio towns are just being heard from. At least thirty cities and towns are inundated in Ohio, twenty in Indiana and many in Illinois, Kentucky and West Virginia. Boundary line surrounding flooded territory more than two thousand miles long. Situation very serious in a number of Indiana cities. I am going to Indianapolis tomorrow at urgent request of Governor Ralston.

"Following report from Adjutant General F. S. Dickson of Illinois indicates gravity of situation in that state: 'We have a flooded territory on the eastern side of the state along the Wabash River and its tributaries, and another through the heart of the middle western part of the state along the Illinois River and its tributaries, but the most serious situation confronting us is along the Ohio and Mississippi, particularly the Ohio. The entire territory from above Mount Carmel on the Wabash down past Cairo is either submerged or in grave danger of being submerged. Shawneetown has been abandoned and is now under water to the extent of approximately twenty-five or thirty feet.

" 'On duty there are two companies of national guard and a division of naval militia. People driven from their homes numbering approximately eight hundred to one thousand are in the hills back of the city and are appealing for shelter and food. Mounds City is making a desperate fight and there are four companies of national guard working on the levees. The saving of the people is in doubt because there is no high ground in their rear to which it is possible for them to go, they are entirely shut off in the rear by from fifteen to twenty-five feet of water. Cairo is practically an island and the water from the Ohio has driven people along the territory I have indicated, away from their homes and back into the hills to distances of ten to fifteen miles. This distance is entirely covered by water. The state is furnishing all the tentage at its command and food supplies to every possible point within our power. From the reliable reports from my officers who have personally visited these places, I would say that in the present flooded area in southern Illinois there are from eighteen to twenty thousand people homeless and in dire need of food.' "

SMASHING THE LEASE SYSTEM IN ARKANSAS

When Governor Donaghey of Arkansas just before Christmas turned loose 360 convicts as one step in his effort to break up the system of hiring out prisoners to private contractors, nearly every editor in the country found space for the story. But when, last month, T. J. Robinson, the new governor, signed a bill which finally abolished the lease system and established in its place a state farm where prisoners are henceforth to be worked, the news was not so picturesque and only a few papers outside of the state of Arkansas thought it important enough to even publish the fact.

The new law brings to an end one of the most spectacular campaigns ever waged against the lease system.[1] "The penitentiary was not designed for a revengeful hell," ex-Governor Donaghey said the day he pardoned 360 of the state's convicts. This extreme measure was taken as the last means, before his retirement, of rousing the people of Arkansas to immediate action. By hiring out to contractors persons whom it is the state's duty to protect and reform, declared the former executive, the state was in a way giving its sanction to cruelty and exploitation.

The new law replaces the former Board of Penitentiary Commissioners, which consisted of a number of state officials who had heavy duties in other directions, with a new Board of Penitentiary and Reform School Commissioners. This board has only three members and the law stipulates that two of these shall be experienced farmers. They are to give their entire time to their new duties.

The law declares that this commission "shall not hire out or lease or permit any person to hire out or lease any of the convicts of this state to any person or persons whomsoever." Instead, it shall "use and work" all convicts on a state farm, which it is authorized to purchase. A farm of 8,000 acres is now being used for the purpose, and it is said that all of the prison population can be profitably employed there the year round.

Several reasons led to the selection of farm work for prisoners. One was that there is less competition with free labor in farm work than in other lines of production. Another was that it gives the men a great deal of healthful outdoor exercise. A third was that it will enable many of the men after release to take up work from which there is less chance that their prison records will exclude them than would be the case in many of the trades ordinarily followed in prison factories.

[1]See THE SURVEY for Dec. 28, 1912, page 383; also Jan. 4, 1913, page 410.

GOV. FOSS URGES THREE PRISON REFORM BILLS

Three messages on prison reform in as many weeks were recently sent to the Massachusetts Legislature by Governor Foss. This is an unusual record even in these days when a growing list of state executives are trying to rouse their people to prison reforms. Attention has heretofore been centered mainly on Governor West of Oregon, whose use of the honor system among the prisoners of that state has been stamped by many as one of the two most notable advances during 1912 in the treatment of the criminal; Governor Hooper of Tennessee who spent one night in prison to experience some of the conditions of cell life; Governor Donaghey of Arkansas whose sensational pardoning of 360 convicts has just resulted in the legal abolition of the lease system in that state; and Governor Blease of South Carolina, known as the "pardoning governor," who complained that Governor Donaghey's release of 360 prisoners in one day had "lain him in the shade."

Governor Foss's last message was accompanied by three bills. One provides for new buildings for defective delinquents; another calls for the appointment of an expert alienist to assist in the proper treatment of female defective delinquents, and the third directs the prison commission to report upon the best method of providing institutional accommodations for those now in prison and state care for all convicted felons.

The first measure is designed to change the present policy of trying to reform feebleminded people by the methods employed for normal persons. It has been established in recent years that large percentages of those convicted for law-breaking are irresponsible mentally. The following table showing the percentage of mentally deficient persons in seven correctional institutions has been published by the Russell Sage Foundation:

	Per cent.
New York state reformatory, Elmira	37
New Jersey state reformatory, Rahway	33
New York reformatory for women, Bedford	37
Massachusetts industrial school for girls, Lancaster	50
Maryland industrial school for girls, Baltimore	60
New Jersey state home for girls, Trenton	33
Illinois state school for boys, St. Charles	20

Governor Foss believes, as do more and more people, that these persons, if left at large in the community, constitute one of our gravest social dangers. "But neither the prison nor the asylum," he adds, "is adapted to their incarceration, and they are rarely capable of reform." He therefore recommends that two special cottage buildings for male patients of this type be erected at the state farm. In these they can be under the medical direction of the hospital for the criminal insane. For female defectives he

urges the erection of two or more cottages near the present reformatory for women at Sherborn.

Declaring that "the county prison has no place in a model prison system and no logical reason for continued existence," Governor Foss suggests that all such jails be taken over by the state, "with complete disregard of the personal interests and protests of county officials, who depend largely for their political power and patronage on retaining the county system intact." While recognizing that this perhaps can not be done at once, the governor sees no reason why there should not be an immediate reclassification of prisoners, so that long-term men can be located in one kind of institution, instead of in three as now. Likewise those amenable to instruction and remedial treatment he thinks should be confined by themselves. The present system, he says, was constructed mainly at a time when no attempt was made at such a classification. For these reasons he thinks new prison accommodations must be provided.

Until the county jails are taken over by the state, Governor Foss thinks they ought to be improved. Accordingly he is in favor of a bill now before the legislature providing for prison schools. This measure permits the prison commissioners to maintain, in not more than five houses of correction, schools for the mental and manual instruction of prisoners. The state board of education is directed to devise plans for the organization and administration of these schools and to maintain supervision over them. The teachers and instructors are to be appointed by the prison commissioners from civil service lists.

It is declared by many persons engaged in prison administration that this apparent division of responsibility between the State Board of Education and the prison commissioners is disadvantageous to the best administration of prison schools. It is said that while there ought to be close co-operation between the educational and prison authorities the actual supervision of the schools should be in the hands of the latter.

NEW ENGLAND CONFERENCES TO PROMOTE RURAL PROGRESS

Conferences devoted to various aspects of rural community life were held in Boston during the first week in March. Perhaps the most important was that which drew together professors from the state colleges, representatives from the state boards of agriculture, directors of the experiment stations and men in charge of extension work, delegates of the state granges, and scores of farmers throughout New England interested in the promotion of agriculture.

This was the fifth annual New England Conference on Rural Progress. As an earnest of its purpose to do actual constructive work along some of the lines of rural betterment it has heretofore talked about, it changed its name to the New England Federation for Rural Progress. To further this purpose, the association enlarged its executive committee and created a working advisory council to include representatives from each of the New England states. The new constitution also provides for three classes of membership: first, state federations and state organizations; second, local, district and county organizations; third, individuals.

Some of the more important discussions were by H. W. Tinkham of the Rhode Island State Grange, urging the establishment of municipal markets; C. E. Embree, general manager of the Farmers' Union of Maine, describing its plan to establish consumers' stores in New York and other large cities; Leonard G. Robinson of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, telling of credit to the sum of $1,500,000 given by the society to over 2,500 farmers in twenty-eight states; and Kenyon L. Butterfield, president of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, setting forth the program to which the organization should hold:

"To secure an adequate inventory of New England agricultural resources; to carry out educational campaigns for the best use of every acre of New England soil; to improve vastly our methods of marketing farm products; to gain a better system of rural schools and to inaugurate a comprehensive system of public agricultural education; to try to solve the problem of farm labor; and to maintain upon New England soil a class of people representing the best of American traditions—people who have sufficient means of wholesome recreation, who maintain strong churches, who develop a satisfying home life and who are content with the work and the life of the farm."

This emphasis on the human side of the problem characterized the entire conference. For instance, Mr. Twitchell, after an exhaustive discussion of the financial aspects of marketing, proposed as the final word of his report:

"Success in agriculture must be measured not by the magnitude of the crops grown but by the quality of the men and women developed on the farm. The sucking power of the town has become a serious menace to our civilization, and only live organized effort can effect that readjustment of industrial conditions necessary for the stimulating of desire for mastery over rural conditions on the part of a steadily increasing number. . . . If you would make your cities safe, strong, secure and enduring, look well to the development of your only source of supply of fresh blood, the country boy and girl."

The officers elected were: President, J. R. Hills, director Vermont Agricultural Experiment Station; vice-president, R. N. Bowen, treasurer Rhode Island Horticultural Society; secretary and treasurer, James A. McKebben, secretary Boston Chamber of Commerce.

The part the church plays in country life, particularly in recreation, in public health, and in community advancement, was under consideration in another conference. Ministers and teachers told what individual churches and schools were doing, and the general discussion indicated a growing realization of the whole problem as well as notable efforts to grapple with it.

The various sections of the School Garden Club met in Horticultural Hall, while at the Twentieth Century Club, under the joint auspices of the Massachusetts Federation of Women's Clubs and the New England Home Economics Association, a mass meeting for home makers was held. The economic and hygienic aspects of markets were discussed by Mrs. Julian Health of New York, president of the Housewives' League; Sarah Louise Arnold, dean of Simmons College; George C. Burington, manager of the Charles River Co-operative Society, and others.

ST. LOUIS WINS NEW TENEMENT HOUSE LAW

St. Louis has just won an unremitting fight of five years for a tenement house law. Though there has during these years been much newspaper publicity, even an "extra" once when a public hearing ended in a riot, the final passage has been scarcely mentioned.

This law, social workers feel, marks a great advance for St. Louis. It requires running water on every floor of every tenement house, and a light from sunset to sunrise in every common hallway. Further provisions are that all halls of every tenement house must be kept by the owner in good repair and free from dirt, filth, ashes, or refuse, and that the rooms must be so maintained by the tenant. Fruit, vegetables, rags, junk, etc., may not be stored in a tenement house. For every tenement dwelling containing more than eight families there must be a caretaker or janitor.

Other provisions of importance are that cellars may never be used for living purposes and basements only under certain restricted conditions. Finally, no apartment nor any room of a tenement-house shall be occupied by more persons than will allow for each adult 500 cubic feet of air space, and for children 350 cubic feet each. This does not apply where the occupants make up a single family. It is designed especially to reduce the number of lodgers, whose presence results in so much overcrowding and immorality.

Those who have won this battle look back over as varied a struggle as social workers have ever encountered. In 1908 Charlotte Rumbold prepared for the Housing Committee of the Civic League a report on tenement-house conditions, so vividly written and illustrated that not only St. Louis but many other localities were stirred and eventually framed reform legislation. The St. Louis bill as first drawn was changed only in a few small details during its long career before passage. At the beginning it was fiercely fought by real estate men, who at one public hearing packed the house with pleaders, mostly tenement-house tenants, against the bill. Its defenders encountered hissing and hooting. All the lights were suddenly turned out, and half a riot followed. After this the crowd surged to the mayor's office before it quieted down. The bill was defeated.

Shortly after the Civic League and the Real Estate Exchange held a conference and, to every one's amazement, found that after all they disagreed only in certain minor matters. The same bill was re-introduced in 1911, but failed, owing to contention at the eleventh hour concerning certain legal aspects. When a new Board of Health was organized in 1912, its program included the passage of this bill. It was again introduced in September, 1912, and, in spite of repeated efforts of several legislative members to let it sleep to death, the constant prodding by other members brought the bill to final passage.

THE SEATTLE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

The committee on organization has been in many respects the keystone of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The executive committee is, of course, the year-round authority, and has as its core the former presidents of the national body. The committee on organization has usually been appointed after the conference delegates are on the ground, but to it has been entrusted a two-fold responsibility to be mastered in a single week.

The proceedings of the conference are divided into six or seven main sections. Each section has a committee. Several of these sections have been more or less permanent, appearing again and again in the make-up of succeeding conferences. The trend, however, has been away from such a stereotyped organization. Each year new sections and committees have been devised to discuss new needs—committees on public health, on occupational standards, on probation and the like.

In other words, the temporary committee on organization has had practically to open the channels through which the conference of the succeeding year was to run, an exacting and fundamental piece of work. In addition, it has had the nomination of officers for the new year on its hands and all the turmoil of convention politics has descended on this committee. The result has been that usually a dozen of the most active and valuable members of the conference

have been busy from early morning until midnight throughout the entire conference week, some of them scarcely taking part in the real proceedings at all.

At Cleveland last year a change was made and a by-law was passed providing that the work of the old committee on organization be handled by two committees, one on organization and one on nominations, and requiring that the first should be named by the president at least three months in advance of meetings. Frank Tucker of New York, president of the conference which meets in Seattle in June, has carried the reform a stage farther. The committee on nominations this year will not only have to choose a president and a slate of committee chairmen, but must find a successor to Alexander Johnson, who for eight years has been general secretary of the National Conference, and has resigned to become director of the new extension department of the Training School for Feeble-Minded at Vineland, N. J. Mr. Tucker has, therefore, named committees on organization, nominations, and time and place, in order that all three shall have ample time for their deliberations.

These three committees are given below:

FAMILY DESERTER BROUGHT TO BOOK

Probably the first check of its kind ever received by a charitable organization is for $755.43 reimbursed to the United Hebrew Charities from the bank account of a deserter who was brought to book through the action of the National Desertion Bureau.

Six years ago Elias Zepnick deserted his wife Yetta and their eight minor children in New York city, leaving them penniless. Their condition was so serious that the United Hebrew Charities gave rent, clothing and living expenses to the unfortunate family. For two years Zepnick kept under cover but in the latter part of 1910 he was located at St. Louis. He was defiant and the Legal Aid Bureau, in whose hands the case was at that time, brought proceedings under the Child Abandonment Law. The arrest of the offender and his extradition to New York quickly followed.

He was convicted and the court was about to pronounce sentence when it was discovered that the prisoner had a considerable sum of money upon deposit in a St. Louis bank. The judge pleaded with him to provide for his wife and his eight

THE NEW COMMITTEES OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

Committee on Organization

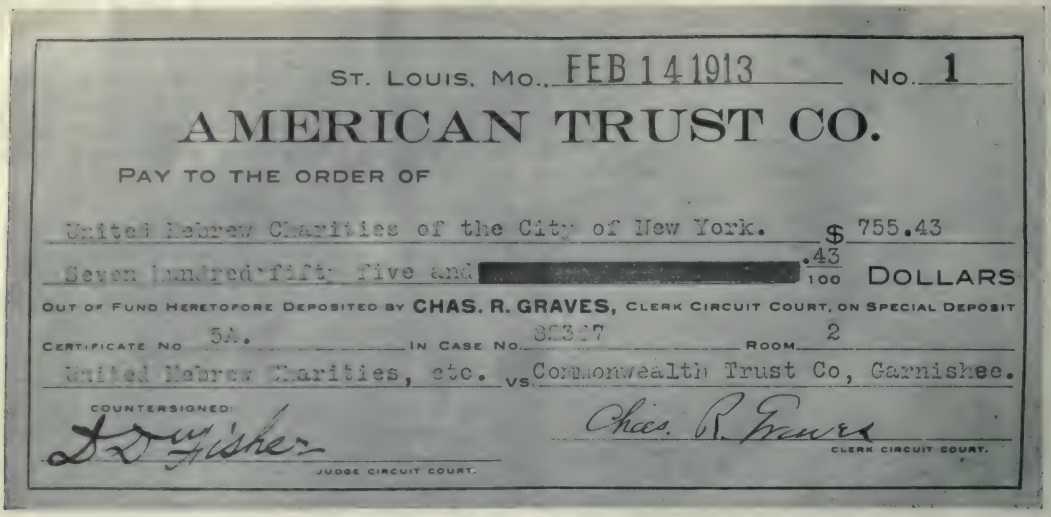
Kingsbury, John A., Chmn.	New York	Assn. for Improving Condition of Poor
Weir, L. H. (Capt.)	San Francisco	Playground Association
Field, Parker B.	Boston	Children's Mission
Hubbard, C. M.	St. Louis	Provident Association
Magruder, J. W.	Baltimore	Federated Charities
McLean, Francis H.	New York	Assn. of Soc. for Organizing Charity
Miner, Maud E.	New York	New York Probation and Protective Assn.
Montgomery, J. B.	Coldwater, Mich.	State School, Children's Inst.
Bowman, H. C.	Topeka	State Board of Control
Tilley, David F.	Boston	State Board of Charities
Deacon, J. Byron	Pittsburgh	Associated Charities
Abbott, Grace	Chicago	Immigrants Protective League
Amigh, Ophelia L.	Birmingham	Ala. Home of Refuge.

Committee on Nominations

Wilson, George S., Chmn.	Washington	Bd. Public Charities
Persons, W. Frank	New York	Charity Organization Society
Baldwin, Roger N.	St. Louis	Civic League
Krans, James B.	Memphis	Associated Charities
Murphy, J. Prentice	Boston	Children's Aid Society
Ryan, Rev. John A.	St. Paul	St. Paul Seminary
Lovejoy, Owen R.	New York	Natl. Child Labor Committee
Little, R. M.	Philadelphia	Soc. for Organizing Charity
Taylor, Graham	Chicago	Chicago Commons

Committee on Time and Place

Bowen, A. L., Chmn.	Springfield, Ill.	State Charities Commission
Gates, W. Almont	San Francisco	State Bd. Char. & Correction
Almy, Frederic	Buffalo	Charity Organization Society
Fox, Dr. George	Fort Worth	Charities Commission
Wing, Frank E.	Chicago	Muncie Tuberculosis Sanatorium
Riley, Thomas J.	Brooklyn	Bureau of Charities
Glenn, Mary Willcox	New York	
Darnall, O. E.	Washington	Natl. Training School for Boys
Logan, Joseph C.	Atlanta	Associated Charities



ST. LOUIS, MO. FEB 14 1913 No. 1

AMERICAN TRUST CO.

PAY TO THE ORDER OF

United Hebrew Charities of the City of New York. $ 755.43

Seven hundred fifty five and [redacted] .43/100 DOLLARS

OUT OF FUND HERETOFORE DEPOSITED BY CHAS. R. GRAVES, CLERK CIRCUIT COURT, ON SPECIAL DEPOSIT

CERTIFICATE NO 5A. IN CASE NO. 8837 ROOM 2

United Hebrew Charities, etc. vs. Commonwealth Trust Co, Garnishee.

COUNTERSIGNED: L D W Fisher JUDGE CIRCUIT COURT.

Chas. R. Graves CLERK CIRCUIT COURT.

CHECK WHICH BROUGHT ONE DESERTER TO BOOK

little ones and held out the hope of a suspended sentence. His refusal aroused the court and the maximum punishment, two years at hard labor in Sing Sing and a fine of $1,000, was meted out to him.

This did not seem to unnerve him. He made repeated requests for release and the remission of the fine, but when reminded that he had money in the bank and should evidence his good will by applying part of the funds to his family, he became sullen and would not yield.

There was one point that Zepnick apparently overlooked. A husband and father is responsible for the necessaries furnished to the wife and children if he neglects to provide for them. Any stranger may make the necessary provision and hold the parent to account. It this case it was the United Hebrew Charities. After consultation with the National Desertion Bureau it was decided to institute a civil action and attach the money that Zepnick had in the St. Louis bank. The necessary papers were drawn by the desertion bureau. Then, through Bernard Greensfelder, a St. Louis attorney, a writ of garnishment was served upon the Commonwealth Trust Company and the money, amounting to $790, was attached.

Notice was served by the bureau's representative upon Zepnick at Sing Sing Prison, and what a change! For once he became meek and tractable. Realizing the futility of opposition, he defaulted and confessed judgment. On February 11, of this year final judgment was entered against him in the sum of $790 which less court costs left a balance of $755.43. The United States Circuit Court of St. Louis sent a check for the money, which was at once turned over by the Desertion Bureau to the United Hebrew Charities. Although the struggle lasted for five years, some little redress has been secured and now the Zepnick family will be able to enjoy a legitimate gratuity. Zepnick himself, however, is still obdurate and is believed to be in London and thus beyond the jurisdiction of our courts.

THE ITALIAN AND THE SETTLEMENT

Said an American afterward: "It was not a man who spoke but a bewildered people." The speaker was Vittoria Racca, professor of political economy at the University of Rome, and his audience was a gathering of settlement workers in New York to whom he endeavored to interpret the protests of the Italian immigrant usually heard only as a grumbling in dialect. Professor Racca has a two years' leave of absence in which to study the opportunities for his fellow country men and women in America and the efforts that are being made in their behalf. He purposes to write a book on the subject when he returns.

The speaker described the Italian parent in this country calling his children to his knee and crying in tragic amazement: "These are not like the children we had in Italy." Whence, he asked, came this strange brood and how was it hatched out under the parents' wings? With his explanation was bound up sane advice for many of his listeners.

More stress, said Professor Racca, should be laid on the building up of human personality by settlements. The buildings should not be so fine that the Italians do not feel at home. He went on:—

"The settlements should try to learn something about Italian customs, habits, employments, amusements, traditions—they should feel the spirit of the Italians and see things from the

Italian's point of view. For example, one headworker was discouraged because she had introduced basketry into a club of Italians and they did not like the work. It would be a good thing for a headworker in such a case to find out what parents do in Italy, and in that way she might easily find some handwork which Italians would like to do. The Italian mother should be enlightened as to what the settlement is doing, so that she may understand why her daughter is out after dark, which is quite against Italian custom. If these suggestions were followed, the settlement would be the center for the whole neighborhood, and not only for the boys and girls."

Turning to what the Italian might gain from the land of his adoption, Professor Racca said:

"It would be a good thing if the young Italian could acquire something of the strong will of the American and could retain something of the geniality and taste of his Italian parents. As it is, fathers of boys who go to settlements make most extraordinary comments showing that they do not at all understand what is being done at the settlements. For instance, one says he is so sorry that the boys spend their evenings with those bad women there.

"The new life of the immigrant is sometimes a tragedy. They must adjust themselves to a totally different kind of economic life. Wages are seemingly high, but the cost of living is high also. It would be much easier for the immigrants if, on their arrival, they had to fight Indians than for them as now to combat the complexed social and economic conditions of a strange land. Amusements here are different. In Italy after work all meet in 'the coffee house of misery,' where there is little to eat or to drink, but where there is a flow of geniality and conversation. Here everybody stays by himself, and all wear beautiful hats and dresses, which hide the poverty of their lives. They are here ashamed to show their lack of success. They are exploited by employers, by employment agencies, by neighbors, by the Black Hand, by the police—by everybody with whom they have to do. They always get the worst of the law. If it is enforced, it is enforced against them. If it is for their protection, it is not enforced. The immigrant Italians feel that they are despised, which they often are, and so they congregate in villages, which makes matters worse, and they learn American conditions more slowly.

"Here the children learn much in the schools and in the settlements, but much more in the streets. In the schools they learn that the United States is the greatest nation in the world, and on the streets they learn that Italy is a despicable nation. So they think that everything Italian is to be thrown away. There is no family life, so the children acquire awful habits."

Not in the school or settlement, but at home, said Professor Racca, we learn not to steal and lie. In Italy and Russia the home, he said, is the center of the intellectual and moral life. Therefore the responsibility is America's if in America these homes crumble and the morals of the children crumble with them. To prevent family disruption the adults as well as the children must be adjusted to the new environment. This adjustment is to be made, he declared, through the right kind of settlement. And this is what a social settlement should be:

"It should be a small institution for all the poor, not merely for the children. At its head should be one boss—a man. He should be married or a widower, and have varied experience. He should not be a minister, for if he is of the same religion as the people he would duplicate the work of their minister, and if he proselytizes, the people will run away. He should not be a professor, because he sees through narrow academic spectacles, and he should not be an amateur who goes into the work for a few years. He ought to be a practical sociologist, not necessarily acquainted with the theories, but he should know the facts. He should be a psychologist. He should know America thoroughly. If he is working for Italians he should have lived at least two years in Italy in the very provinces from which immigrants come. He should know dialect. He should not think that he can learn to know the Italian and his traditions by "doing Italy"—by visiting museums, art collections and churches. He should work in a narrow field and should take the place of the priests in Italy.

"He should visit every person every day, and in this way really be their friend, father and brother. He should be connected with all their organizations, so that the settlement could be the bridge between the organizations and the workers. If he thus knows everybody, the bad elements would dread this headworker. He would know that certain men were not working, and he would know that if they were nevertheless getting a living they are probably blackmailing. He must know individuals so well that he can handle each in his own way; one through an appeal to pride, another through a command, and so on."

Some headworkers, he said, are out of town several days a week. Social workers should not be "out" so much at lectures and parties. They should be at the disposal of the people of the neighborhood at every moment of the day and night. Educational work can be done better through chats than through lectures. "No one's system of life is ever changed because he has heard a lecture," he said. A headworker once made an appointment with him, he said, to explain to him what her settlement did and to take him around. Her telephone called her away every few minutes, and he had to content himself with reading a folder on the settlement's work.

Another mistake, said Professor Racca, was to let Italians speak at the settlement. "Southern Italians speak marvelously before they are born,"

he said; "though what they say may mean nothing. They always speak against America and praise the old country. And when poor people hear these hollow words they think this speaker worthy to be their leader."

Professor Racca in his address expressed the opinion that volunteer workers should be avoided because they usually have little preparation and the settlements cannot command them as well as if they were paid. Not many girls, he thought, should do social work for young men, because young men, of southern races especially, although they have respect for women, "do not have enough respect to accept a woman as their leader as confidentially as they would a man." For work with women and children he was of opinion there should be a woman as headworker. "She should be married and of mature age, so that she may have had varied experience. If possible, she should also be a nurse."

EDITORIAL GRIST

IN PROGRESSIVE KANSAS!

ISABEL C. BARROWS

How hard it is for a man who has at heart the principles of prison reform to carry them out in an old institution that should be leveled to the ground! J. K. Codding, warden of the Kansas State Penitentiary, writing in his eighteenth biennial report, expresses a wish to repair broken men and remake defective ones by plenty of productive labor, wise and firmly administered discipline, proper bodily care, and such mental and spiritual training as is possible under the limited opportunities afforded by a penitentiary. Prison recreations he advocates "not solely for the purpose of giving pleasure to the prisoners, nor as a prison fad, but for the same reason that we give them work, discipline and wholesome food."

But what can he do to carry out such a program in a prison where the cells are "little dingy, dark holes in the wall, damp, musty and disease breeding—an absolute disgrace to Kansas"? The prison physician echoes this complaint:

"If the institution hopes to make its inmates strive for better things in life it will have to set a better example. Compelling a man, after a day's work to go into one of the little cells now provided, and sleep on a bag of straw only half wide enough, and almost as unyielding as the floor, will certainly never do it."

Yet the power of personality is felt in spite of this. The officers are all under civil service and selected only for fitness. The warden says "a more courteous, prompt and efficient lot of prison officials cannot be found in any other penitentiary in the United States." The prisoners themselves respond to the wise treatment they receive and show it "in their willingness and ability to do the work assigned them; in their almost uniformly kind and courteous treatment of the officers; in the absence of any destruction of prison property; in the few punishments and in their general cheerfulness and obedience."

Kansas ought to give a good warden a good prison with plenty of land about it.

CHILD LABOR AND POVERTY

A. J. McKELWAY

Child labor is even more a cause than an effect of poverty. This was the point emphasized at the ninth annual conference of the National Child Labor Committee, which was recently held at Jacksonville, Fla. The meeting was characterized by fearless and frank descriptions of conditions in the different states and especially in the South. Apology and defence, based on a comparison of child labor conditions from the sectional point of view, found no place at the conference. Delegates from the North and from the South vied in acknowledging the shame of a common sin.

The other distinctive note was that co-operation among all classes of social workers is needed to gain this reform. This note was sounded in a strong resolution which called upon many national organizations to supply not only the active sympathy of their membership but special investigations of child labor conditions from the different points of view which these organizations have taken in their respective spheres of work. Mention was particularly made of the National Education Association, the American Medical Association, the American Academy of Medicine, the National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, the American Red Cross, the American Bar Association, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the National Council of Jewish Women, the Social Service Commission of the Federation of Churches, the Russell Sage Foundation, the Conference of Catholic Charities, the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the American Association for Labor Legislation, and the American Federation of Labor. Finally, since the child-employing industries, while forming only a small percentage of industrial establishments, have brought the reproach of child labor upon American industry itself, the National Manufacturers' Association was also mentioned.

At the opening meeting four questions were discussed: Is the immature child a proper object of charitable relief? Shall the state pension

widows? Shall the school support the child? Shall charitable societies relieve family distress by finding work for children? The last question, so far as it was referred to at all, was emphatically answered in the negative, as the first was in the affirmative. The discussion turned chiefly upon the question of mothers' pensions and the respective value of public relief and private philanthropy. The sentiment of the conference was plainly for a carefully guarded form of mothers' pension by the state. This, it was felt, should be considered in relation to other remedies such as the minimum wage, workmen's compensation, and the prevention of those industrial accidents which so often deprive the family of the chief breadwinner. It was also felt that such pensions should be regarded from the standpoint of justice rather than of charity, the mother to be looked upon as rendering service to the state as the bearer and rearer of children.

A thorough acquaintance with the recent discussions of the problem in THE SURVEY was displayed and there was some apprehension expressed of the many failures through ill-considered legislation probable before success would be finally reached. The majority apparently believed that pensioning mothers was not simply a problem of relief but one comprising other elements, as the word "pension" rightly indicates. While it was recognized that hungry children make poor pupils, it was felt that any further weakening of parental responsibility for the child by the school would be unfortunate. The discussion along these lines included talks by Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago; Jean Gordon of New Orleans; Mrs. Florence Kelley of New York; Grace Strachan of New York; Mrs. W. L. Murdoch of Birmingham; A. T. Jamieson of Greenwood, S. C., president of the South Carolina Conference of Charities; R. T. Solensten of the Associated Charities, Jacksonville, Fla.; Leon Schwartz of the B'nai B'rith, Mobile, Ala.; Mary H. Newell of the Associated Charities, Columbus, Ga., and others.

Rabbi David Marx of Atlanta added a touch of scholarly research to one session in his paper on Ancient Standards of Child Protection. Economic factors were discussed by Miss Gordon, who spoke on the eight-hour day and by Richard K. Conant, secretary of the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee, who dealt convincingly with the fact that the textile industry in Massachusetts no longer depends upon child labor in spite of the numerous plaints concerning the ruin of the industry of the sort which Dickens satirized in Hard Times.

W. H. Swift, secretary of the North Carolina Child Labor Committee, who had just come from a struggle with the Legislature, vigorously attacked the contention that mill work is better for children than the squalor of some of the mountain towns. He described his own childhood in an "average mountain home" in the South as the oldest of ten children, all of whom, he said incidentally are now doing pretty well in life. He told of the sacrifices by his father for their education and said that any time within the past twenty years, his father might have moved to a cotton mill town and lived on the labor of his children if he had been willing to do so. In all probability in that case the children would have been doomed to the common fate of cotton factory workers, with the low wages and hopeless outlook of an unskilled trade. Then he said that he was the father of three children and had lived for years next door to the best cotton mill in North Carolina. But if he should lose his means of livelihood and be forced to labor with his hands, rather than put his three young children in a cotton mill, he would "take them back to the mountains, build a shack by the side of a spring and plow with a brindled steer on the barren, ivy-covered plains of the Pick-Breeches." His reference was to a well-known area in North Carolina where no one has ever been known to make a living. Mr. Swift's partial defeat in the legislative fight—the abolition of night work for children under sixteen only was secured—has made him all the more determined to continue the war until his state shall adequately protect its working children from exploitation.

One especially significant address was by Rev. C. E. Weltner of Columbia, S. C. After many years' experience in charge of the "betterment work" of one of the noted mills of Columbia, Mr. Weltner said he had come to the conclusion that a better way to spend any surplus earnings is in adding to the pay envelope so that the people may do a few things for themselves. The message of the conference was carried to many sections of the city through a series of parlor conferences, eleven in all, held on one of the afternoons.

The principal speakers at one of the evening meetings were John A. Kingsbury, of New York, who spoke on the poverty caused by child labor, and Julia C. Lathrop of the Federal Children's Bureau, who gave an admirable outline of the functions of the new bureau and of its first effort to secure birth registration laws and to learn the causes of infant mortality. Lewis W. Hine, social photographer, threw upon the screen pictures of child labor conditions among the canneries of the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, showing children of tender ages engaged in shucking oysters and shelling shrimp. Child Labor and Health occupied a morning session. Dr. W. H. Oates, state factory inspector for Alabama, made a forcible protest as a physician against conditions which tend to cause diseases

of the throat and lungs in the children of the cotton mills. Mr. Brown spoke of the evils of the night-messenger service and Dr. Lindsay discussed improvement in child labor legislation.

A successful new feature of the conference was a meeting for children held at the Imperial Theater. It developed into two meetings, for the thousand children expected were doubled in number. Children themselves gave the stories of different child-employing industries, with the help of the stereopticon.

At the final meeting Senator Hudson, of Florida, presided. The writer made his annual protest against cotton mill conditions in the South, the subject this time being Our Modern Feudalism. Jerome Jones of Atlanta, prominent in southern labor circles, spoke of the connection between child labor and low wages. Mrs. Kelley gave one of her vigorous talks on the child breadwinner and the dependent parent. Owen R. Lovejoy appealed for more effective support of the cause of child labor reform by showing how widespread the evil is, how fearful the abuses are in many instances, and explained that the resources at the command of the committee, in the face of the enemies and obstacles to be overcome, are very meager.

Florida conditions and legislative problems were discussed at an informal gathering and this culminated in the organization of the Florida Child Labor Committee, with Dr. John W. Stagg of Orlando, as chairman and Marcus C. Fagg of the Children's Home Society, Jacksonville, as secretary. The Florida Legislature is now in session.

MORALS COMMISSION AND POLICE MORALS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

It is as obvious in New York and Chicago as it has been in some other cities that the effort to secure a morals commission for city governments is intended not only to repress and prevent the social evil but also quite as much to protect and improve the morals of the police, which are corrupted under the present conditions.

Indeed, this is directly stated in the Report of the Citizens' Committee appointed at the Cooper Union meeting held in New York last August, after a commanding officer of the police force had been implicated in the murder of Rosenthal by the "gun men":

"The corruption is so ingrained that the man of ordinary decent character entering the force and not possessed of extraordinary moral fiber may easily succumb. . . . Such a system makes for too many of the police an organized school of crime. . . . We know that the connection between members of the police force and crime, or commercialized vice, is continuous, profitable and so much a matter of course that explicit bargains do not have to be made, both the keeping and breaking of faith being determined by these policemen for their own profit.

"Our recommendations on the excise and prostitution problems are intended to benefit the police situation. . . . While improvement in the police department will incalculably improve the tone of the city's morals without any change in the statutory standards, nevertheless we have throughout hewn to the line of police reform and not of vice suppression."

The Chicago Vice Commission came to a similar conclusion:

"In certain restricted districts the laws and ordinances of the state and city are practically inoperative in suppressing houses of prostitution. Because of this condition certain public officials have given a certain discretion to the police department and have allowed police rules and regulations to take the place of the laws and ordinances of these districts. As a result of this discretion certain members of the police force have become corrupt, and not only failed to strictly obey the rules and regulations in the restricted districts themselves, but have failed adequately to enforce the law and ordinances outside the restricted districts."

The diagnoses are alike, but the treatments proposed in New York and Chicago differ materially. This should be pointed out, not only to avoid the confusion incident to designating different measures by the same or similar terms, but also to correct the injustice of applying objections which are only pertinent to one measure to defeat the other.

The board of social welfare proposed for New York and the morals commission recommended for Chicago resemble each other in organization, but are radically different in scope and in the means suggested for carrying out their functions. The members of both are to be appointed by the mayor. In New York it is proposed that the members shall serve seven years; in Chicago the term recommended is but two years; and the appointments are to be approved by the city council. No salaries are provided in either city, but the commissioner of health in Chicago is to be one of the members of the commission.

The function of both bodies is to deal with vice, but the jurisdiction of the New York board is broader and corresponds to the statutes relating to prostitution, gambling and liquor selling. In Chicago the function of the commission is restricted to the social evil. It is "to take all legal steps necessary toward the effective suppression of bawdy and disorderly houses, houses of ill-fame and assignation, to protect, indict and prosecute keepers, inmates and patrons of the same." This commission and a morals court are

both aimed, by the Chicago Vice Commission, at the "constant and persistent repression of prostitution as the immediate method, and absolute annihilation as the ultimate ideal."

While the morals commission is to be limited to six clerks, attorneys and medical inspectors, together with their helpers, and must depend upon the courts and the regular police force to fulfil its duties, the New York board of social welfare would have under its direct command secret service vice squads. These, it is provided, are to be distinct from the constabulary forces of the police, "so that the regular police shall no longer be responsible for the control of the vices and shall be left to their original function of preserving peace and order." The suggested bill in New York, creating a department of public morals, provides for a large staff of "public morals" police, including captains, lieutenants, sergeants, doormen, surgeons and policemen. The number would probably be between two and three hundred, all to be exempted from civil service restrictions.

It is against this separation of the control of vice from the regular police force, which the citizens' committee felt "driven to recommend," that the committee of the Board of Aldermen in the Curran report present the following objections:

"The morals policemen would lose the information which the regular police could furnish; the contact of the regular force with vice cannot thus be removed, as they must still enter vicious resorts for the detection and arrest of other criminals; friction and collusion between the two police forces would be inevitable and the collection of graft would not be eliminated; the restriction of the morals police to dealing only with vices would tend to low standards of character among the men enlisting in this service only; the exemption from civil service restrictions would still further contribute to lax discipline and demoralization; the division of responsibility between two commissioners of police would lessen the accountability and efficiency of both."

In Chicago the responsibility has already been divided by the recent ordinance reorganizing the police force. Under this a second deputy superintendent of police has been appointed, on the basis of a competitive civil service examination, which was thrown open to applicants from other states. His qualifications and duties are thus specified:

"He shall not be a member of the active bureau of the department, but shall have supervision of the clerical, mechanical and inspection bureau; and shall be charged with the care and custody of departmental property and the distribution of the same; the supervision of departmental records; the inspection of the personnel of the department and of stations, equipment and departmental properties; the instruction of officers and members of the department; the ascertaining and recording of departmental efficiency, individual and group; the receipt and investigation of all complaints of citizens regarding members of the police force; the supervision of the strict enforcement of all laws and ordinances pertaining to all matters affecting public morals; and the censoring of moving pictures and public performances of all kinds; the furnishing of a card index system to all district commanders in their respective stations, which they shall keep to show, at all times, up to date, the name, description, character, haunts, habits, associates and relatives of every known person of bad character residing in or frequenting such district, including pick-pockets, hold-up men, safe blowers, confidence men, vagrants, pimps, prostitutes and people who are operating or have operated gambling houses. All these functions shall be performed under the direction of the general superintendent of police."

This second bureau with its second deputy superintendent well discriminates and divides the clerical, inspectional and disciplinary functions of the police department from those of the active force. But to superimpose upon all these well co-ordinated duties the entire responsibility for "supervising the strict enforcement of all laws and ordinances pertaining to all matters affecting public morals" threatens to make impossible either the efficient fulfilment of those routine functions or the effective repression of vice. Yet this measure was evidently preferred by the city administration to the morals commission and was substituted for it, because the ordinance recommended by the Vice Commission to the mayor has never been introduced in the city council.

Against the precedents and preferences of the regular police force for the segregation and regulation of vice, backed by the mayor's preference for the same policy, what can this lone "second deputy" do to secure "the strict enforcement of these laws and ordinances"? His appointment and helplessness are new arguments for a morals commission to support him both in the enforcement of the law and in publicly placing responsibility for its non-enforcement.

The substitution of this subterfuge in lieu of the morals commission can be explained in the same way that Chief Justice Harry Olson, of the Municipal Court of Chicago, accounts for the unexpected closing of the segregated districts. He traced the sudden change in the attitude of county and city officials toward segregated vice to the decision of the Circuit Court which granted a permanent injunction restraining the use of certain property in the segregated district for immoral purposes. "This order of the Chancery Court was," he said, "the Appomattox of the war upon openly tolerated vice in Chicago." For this decision served notice that any citizen,

by invoking the aid of the courts, could restrain vice, if the public officials were unable or unwilling to do so. "It was thus the beginning of the end," he declared.

The morals court, he said, would further act as a check upon the second deputy superintendent of police, because "the records and the statistics of the court will show the names of the owners of such houses, together with their proprietors, inmates and frequenters, and will disclose the business of the promoters of the traffic and others who may profit therefrom." So if this feature of the reorganized police department was intended by the city administration to effect its escape from the morals commission as one horn of the dilemma presented by the Vice Commission, Justice Olson clearly shows that the morals courts is the other horn. Neither the police of the city administration, nor the state's attorney of the county, can escape if citizens seek warrants from the morals court or injunctions from the Circuit Court.

The inquiry into the relation of low wages to the demoralization of young girls and women, and the propaganda to correct this tendency by minimum wage laws will bear close watching. It may not only injure the broader movement to secure minimum wage laws based upon just and safe economic grounds, but it may also divert attention from the enactment and enforcement of laws against commercialized vice. For the ensnaring of victims is accomplished through many more devious ways than can be charged up to low wages.

WOMEN POLICE

LOUISE de KOVEN BOWEN

In all our large cities thousands of young people, weary from their monotonous work in shop or factory, seek the streets in the evening imperiously asserting their right to pleasure. Business enterprise has taken advantage of this natural desire for recreation, and commercialized amusements have sprung up on all sides ready to cater to every taste of this childish multitude. Penny arcades, slot machines, moving picture shows, cheap theaters, amusements parks and dance halls are all attempting to lure children with every device known to modern advertising. Young people are thus without protection and exposed to temptation at the very moment when they are least able to withstand it.

Many students of municipal affairs believe that every large city should have morals police, of whom a certain number should be women, if it would properly protect young girls for whose unwary feet so many pitfalls are spread, and if it would deal adequately with prostitution—that grave menace to health and morals.

We need women police in the theaters of every city to watch the girls who attend these entertainments and accept the invitations of young men offered with disreputable intentions. In the majority of cheap theaters the moving pictures are shown in a dim light and the danger to young people has been shifted from the stage to the auditorium. The darkened room affords opportunity for familiarity, and there should be women police to see that conventionalities and decencies are observed.

There should be women police in our dance halls—the happy hunting ground of the white slave trader—to watch the girls and also the boys, to warn the girls when they are seen taking too much liquor and to watch that if intoxicated they are not accompanied from the hall by young men who have plied them with liquor for illicit purposes. They should also see that young unsophisticated boys are not victimized by professional prostitutes who take advantage of inexperienced youths who come to the city for the first time and visit the dance halls to "see the sights."

Women police should be stationed on pleasure boats and at bathing beaches and should ever be on the alert for conditions which demoralize children. We need women police in our amusement parks to mingle with the crowds at the gates and to save young girls from accepting invitations from men who hope to be repaid later in the evening. We need women police in such places to follow girls who are seen going to lonely parts of the parks accompanied by young men. In fact, we need women police to "mother" the girls in all public places where the danger to young people is great.

In our station houses we should have women police in whose charge girls should be placed. Women police could accompany the girls to trial and be with them when they are subjected to harassing questions so often put to them by attorneys, and women police should accompany girls to the institutions to which they are committed by the court. The work of the woman police officer would not be very different from that of the woman probation officer. The Juvenile Court officers investigate homes and neighborhoods, watch their wards to see that they attend school or are at work, and take charge of children after they have become delinquent. It would be only one more step, but one urgently needed, to have women police who would lessen the work of the probation officers by carefully watching for those causes which lead children into the courts, by reporting these conditions to the proper authorities and by carefully supervising all places of amusement.

Women truant officers attached to the compulsory education department, the women adult probation officers connected with the municipal courts, the women factory inspectors, the women

sanitary inspectors of the health department, the women school nurses, the women supplied by the Travelers' Aid Association, the officers of the Juvenile Protective Association and all other officers paid by private organizations are doing valiant work for the young people of our cities. But we especially need the police power which the city might vest in women trained for the work and which would give them the necessary authority to cope with certain dangerous situations with which private organizations have tried in vain to deal.

Women police are not needed to handle crowds, to regulate street traffic, to arrest drunkards and criminals, but they are sorely needed in order that they may adequately protect the thousands of children and young people who every day are exposed to the dangers of unsupervised and disreputable places of amusement and for whose safety and welfare the city is responsible.

DEMOCRATIZE THE PEACE MOVEMENT

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES
Church of the Messiah, New York

"How long, O Lord, how long!" is the cry one is moved to utter when considering the war mania of our time and the ever-growing burden of armaments which this delirium is forcing upon the world. The Balkans swept from end to end with the scourge of "fire and sword," Italy fattening upon the unholy spoils wrested from effete Turkey, Russia recreating the armies and navies annihilated by Japan, Germany increasing her military forces to hitherto unheard-of proportions, France answering her neighbor's challenge by raising her enlistment period for citizens from two to three years, England insisting on a five-Dreadnoughts-a-year basis, and her colonies building ships for the imperial navy! What a spectacle! And Jesus Christ dead two thousand years ago!

Here in America, there is a cheering sign in the refusal of the Democratic Congress, through two successive terms, to provide for the construction of more than a single battleship. But this was more than counterbalanced by the defeat of ex-President Taft's arbitration treaties, the fortification of the Panama Canal, and the movement to place the militia of the various states in the pay of the federal government!

In the face of these facts, one is tempted to ask if there is not something the matter with the organized peace movement, that it makes so little headway against the onsweeping flood of frenzied militarism. The movement has ample brains and sufficient money; it is active, intelligent, resourceful. But has it the passion of a great ideal—does it really mean business—has it got "guts," to use the fine old Anglo-Saxon phrase, as well as "gray-matter?"

It is on this point, the most essential of all, that one begins to have doubts and fears. Why are there so many vice-presidents of peace societies who are supporters of the big navy policy—why so many advocates of peace who are enthusiastic preparers for war—why so many disciples of good will who believe in peace in the abstract but in battleships in the concrete? Above all, if the peace societies are really in earnest, why are they so slow in joining hands and hearts with the vast hosts of labor throughout the world—the unionists, Socialists, syndicalists, and all the rest, who constitute at this moment the one really serious menace to the supremacy of the war lords?

It is here, to my mind, in this last query, that we find the real weakness of the organized peace movement. This movement is too academic, too aristocratic, too exclusive. It is too much confined to earnest scholars who deal in theories, and amiable social leaders who deal in fads. It holds too many dinners at $10 a plate, conducts too many meetings in luxurious parlors and salons, and puts its privileges of membership and co-operation at too high a price of refinement, culture and material wealth. There is too much "function" and not enough "crusade!" Too much library dust, midnight oil, pink tea, after-dinner speaking, and not enough sweat and tears and blood. Bankers, lawyers, clergymen, college professors, club women—these are all right and we need them every one. But they can never in the world accomplish their aim alone.

It is the common people—peasants, artisans, factory workers—who pay the price of war and it is only through the organized revolt of these people that the curse of militarism can be destroyed. Here, in "the multitudes," whom Jesus sought out with so true an instinct, do we find the hope of future peace upon earth. No movement which ignores this factor in the situation can be regarded either as efficient or genuinely in earnest. Sincere it may be, I grant you, but sincere in that narrow, unsympathetic, petty way which has blasted many a precious hope and destroyed many a noble cause! It is time for the peace movement to democratize itself, to work from the bottom up and not from the top down, to organize, inspire, co-operate with the workers in their rebellion against militarism. This done, something will happen in the world of armies and navies, and happen quick! But not before!

And is it not here that the social worker may count for much? No one hates or should hate war more bitterly. No one sympathizes with the organized peace societies more deeply. No one understands the common people more truly. Is it not time for him to act?

BOOKS

MODERN PROBLEMS

By Sir Oliver Lodge. George H. Doran Co. 348 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.13.

Sir Oliver Lodge is a scientist with a world-wide reputation, whose opinions on the structure of atoms, on X-rays or on Hertzian waves command instant attention. But when he expounds such remote and multifarious subjects as "free will and determinism," "Bergson's philosophy," "universal arbitration," "the production and sale of drink," "the functions of money," "charity organization" and a score of others, he rouses the suspicions of the wary. "Nobody could possibly be as wise as Daniel Webster looked," and nobody could possibly be as wise as an authoritative knowledge of these topics implies.

Yet the learned knight has acquitted himself creditably. The essays are random papers, addresses at commencement exercises and the like, as good as such occasions warranted, though hardly, in some cases, worth the dignity of permanent print.

Sir Oliver Lodge, despite his rise to the presidency of Birmingham University, has escaped the commonest of British diseases—snobbery. His eyes are not blinded, by fatty layers of prosperity, to the misery that stalks about the country. He is not elated at the sight of those piles of iron and slag, those miles of furnaces and factories, those leagues of rabbit-hutch cottages, which stretch, northwest of Birmingham, a "Black Country" that even Satan might disown, the heart of manufacturing England, a blasted region where no blade of grass is green and no life can be clean and elevated.

The author is saturated with the feeling and teaching of Ruskin, in whom these blighted acres, and other fair districts which Mammom had despoiled, raised such righteous tempests of wrath. It is refreshing to find in high places the gospel of Ruskin, that half-forgotten prophet of social righteousness, re-stated with conviction and re-applied to fresh problems.

Sir Oliver is grateful to the organized charity workers who "immerse themselves in this mass of misery and incipient or threatening degradation, in hope that they may raise individuals out of it"; but, with more pleasure, he pleads for that statesmanship which will root out the causes of wretchedness. He must be a whole-hearted supporter of Lloyd-George's schemes of social insurance, old-age pensions, taxation of land values and better education. With tax-payers' associations he is surely unpopular, for he actually denounces thrift in government and advocates spending more and ever more on public undertakings. He laments that a surplus in the national revenue is made the excuse for lowering taxes, while there are a thousand good objects on which the surplus could be spent. Perhaps that argument is the easier because, like the great majority, he owns not a foot of soil in what is euphemistically styled "his" country. Were he in America he would appear before boards of estimate and the like and plead for more money for schools, playgrounds, hospitals, and health work.

Sometimes his economics are disputable, as when he asserts that "human labor is the ultimate standard of value, and coins might instructively be inscribed in terms of labor." Even the Marxian Socialists are shy today about defending their prophet's theory of labor value. But slips like that are inevitable where so wide a range of topics is attacked. Altogether the volume can be recommended to those numerous casual readers who like a little of everything and not much of anything.

JOHN MARTIN.

THE BURDEN OF POVERTY

By Charles F. Dole. B. W. Huebsch. 124 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.55.

THE KINGDOM OF GOD AND AMERICAN LIFE

By Chauncey B. Brewster. Thomas Whittaker, Inc. 143 pp. Price $.80; by mail of THE SURVEY $.87.

THE MINISTER AND THE BOY

By Allen Hoben. University of Chicago Press. 171 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

BOY LIFE AND SELF-GOVERNMENT

By George Walter Fiske. Young Men's Christian Association Press. 310 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.06.

THAT BOY OF YOURS

By J. S. Kirtley. Geo. H. Doran Co. 256 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

THE FAMILY

By Charles Franklin Thwing and Carrie F. Thwing. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co. 258 pp. Price $1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.75.

The distinctive notes in Dr. Charles F. Dole's The Burden of Poverty are two—the new consciousness of the spiritual nature of man whereby poverty becomes a problem and the spiritual urgency to meet it due to the mighty idealism of religion. Whether conscious of a religious motive or not, or even in conscious reaction from something repellent in some religious concept, all to whom poverty is a problem and who are urged thereby to sacrifice for others are said to be moved at both points by a religious motive.

The extent and causes of poverty are accounted for in largest part by industrial conditions, the economic burdens of land, rent and interest, immigration, drink and war. But to whatever factors the problem is due it can be met only as man becomes more religious, which the author makes equivalent to being more human and more civilized. Socialism rises above its "difficulties", if at all, only as it becomes so human as to be "a form of the religion of pity and sympathy." It fails most "in not understanding the spiritual implication of democracy, because a materialistic democracy is impossible."

Keeping well "this side of socialism" and claiming something better than it, Dr. Dole presents a platform for social progress which he thinks

appeals to a larger consensus of judgment and synthesis of action. It summons all to end war, intemperance, tuberculosis, and occupational and vice diseases; to educate for responsibility and efficiency; to redress industrial injury and injustice; to abolish special privileges, double standards and discriminations against sex or class.

Aside from general dependence upon moral and religious forces to bring these things about, the specific means of so doing are suggested under the title, The Control of the Land—A Dream. By the public possession or control of the land and by taxing out of existence all inheritance above $500,000, the way is open for the dream of the endowment of every one at the age of majority with inalienable possession free from tax and rent, the assurance of employment and provision for old age. But all depends, at last as at first, upon our anchor to the "new" question, "Can you convert brains to go in the way of religion?" This is said to be the biggest problem of religion, as it is the newest, for "it is only lately that man has been able even to formulate the true significance of religion in terms at once rational for the intellect and practical for the conduct of the daily life."

"People will be happy as fast as they learn to face these questions and to say *yes* to them. Only men of good will really know what they want in this world; can meet and make and control conditions in life; can handle successfully the new and tremendous powers of nature and science. Only they can establish thorough democracy. Only their ideas can preserve the nations from the worst of all poverty—starvation of the soul, from the worst of all tyranny—the fear of man."

* * *

In his Kingdom of God and American Life Bishop Brewster seeks to adjust the Christian ideal and ethic with the earlier idealism and standards of American democracy. He identifies them at the very points at which both are at a crisis—liberty, justice, opportunity, loyalty, law, civic courage, the value of human life and the sanctity of the family. Differentiating between "the kingdom of God" which consists in part of such values, and the church whose witness to these ideals is needed alike by religion and democracy, he denies that Christianity is either individualistic or socialistic. "The social character it is impossible to overestimate, because there the social never gets away from the personal." From this vantage he repudiates individualism since "Christianity while never individualistic is always personal"; and he disputes socialism since "in nature and purpose that scheme is economic" and "the church is spiritual and personal", socialism "aims at the economic transformation of environment" and "the church's aim is the spiritual transformation of the persons that make up society", "socialism aims at reconstruction through revolution" and "the church at progressive reform through evolution."

While the author's readiness to stand for the consequences of democracy leads him to claim that "this diversity in aim and operation does not necessitate antagonism in spirit", yet his work would have been more positively and practically effective if it had been less of an argumentative special pleading against socialism and more constructively aimed to build up American democratic institutions. Pointing his emphasis upon the essential value of democracy with the most concrete arguments from our industrial and civic life, his reasoning rings true to this fundamental keynote of Christianity all the way through from preface to conclusion.

"If it be true that Christianity in principle means not individualism but solidarity; if Christianity, while not ignoring personality, yet has, as its ideal, personality fulfilled in social relations; then, in a time like this, of transition, from individualistic principles and ideals, the church of Christ has plainly before it a task in the world. It is no time to yield to that old besetting temptation to hold aloof from contact with the world. The sociological trend of thought and life today is a realization of essential characteristics of Christianity and makes rightful demands upon Christians. Certainly the church is to refrain from seeking to allay the restlessness and fever of social discontent by administering any anodynes that superinduce social lethargy. Its plain task is to heal, tone up and invigorate the social system, to quicken and guide those social promptings and aspirations, and make men know assuredly that Democracy means the wider opportunity and the larger obligation with respect to social service. It should be evident beyond question that the church is bringing the spirit of Jesus Christ to the ferment of social discontent and strife. That would require that it be itself thoroughly possessed by that spirit. The problem that immediately confronts the church is not to Christianize socialism, but first to socialize Christians, until their ideal principles shall be real and ruling principles, until they obey the rule of principle and not contentedly rest in sentiment."

* * *

What the boy does for the minister is as well emphasized in Professor Hoben's suggestive little volume The Minister and the Boy, as what the minister may do for the boy. Basing his whole discussion upon a frank acceptance of the biological order and psychological development of boy life, Professor Hoben in a scholarly, yet very practical way, turns our newest knowledge and experience in dealing with boys to the right and feasible use of the ministers and church workers. Not the least valuable parts of the book are those which account for some of the defects and defaults of the boy, characteristic of certain periods of his development, on grounds which reasonably explain them and suggest ways of counteracting and correcting them. Self-knowledge and control are shown as failing to keep pace with the sense impressions and unorganized experiences of adolescence. The psychological analogy between play and worship is another interesting and original point de-

veloped. The instincts rooted in the sense of solidarity are treated as the basis of training for the family and communal relationships and responsibilities.

"Self-centering the experience of the boy short-circuits the religious life." "Sex instruction should anticipate sex consciousness." "The normal boy will not deliberately choose to sponge upon the world. He intends to do the fair thing and to amount to something. He dreams of making his life an actual contribution to the welfare and glory of humanity. When it is put before him rightly he will scorn a selfish misappropriation of his life and will enter the crusade for the city that hath foundations whose builder and maker is God."

These sentences indicate the author's abiding faith in boyhood and his epigrammatic, suggestive style. At the end of each chapter that deals with the more fundamental principles their most practical applications are given. Whole chapters are devoted to practical suggestions on such topics as The Boy in Village and Country; The Modern City and the Normal Boy; The Ethical Value of Organized Play; The Boy's Choice of a Vocation; Training for Citizenship; The Church Boys' Club. References to readily accessible books also add to the value of the volume.

* * *

The best supplement to Professor Hoben's book is the interesting and useful handbook entitled Boy Life and Self-Government, which Professor George Walter Fiske of Oberlin Theological Seminary prepared for the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations, for the use of those in charge of their boys' departments and other boys' club workers. With these two small volumes in hand and in use, the work of every church and minister for the boys of their parish and community cannot fail to be more effective.

* * *

As a fresh, original and well-balanced study of the boy, inspired by unusual insight and large experience, Kirtley's That Boy of Yours is valuable for teachers, social workers, and above all for parents, to whom by its title it is addressed.

* * *

Thwing's The Family has been for a generation so exclusively the one book combining for the general reader historical and social data, scholarly and practical purpose, that this revised and enlarged edition renders a public service. Unlike the more technical manuals on the family it takes for granted no special acquaintanceship with the history and literature of the subject, though it is introductory to and interpretative of both. The additional material includes the statistical and bibliographical data appearing since the first edition was published, and a new concluding chapter, significantly bearing the title, The Family Under a Socialized Society.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

THE TEACHER'S HEALTH

By LEWIS M. TERMAN. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 136 pp. Price $60; by mail of THE SURVEY $.66.

"Teaching as a Dangerous Trade" might have been the title of this book. Eighty-four per cent of 159 teachers in Springfield, Mass., testified that in their opinion the teacher of average physical constitution suffers distinct impairment of health within five to ten years after beginning service. Between 1906 and 1909 over a quarter of the elementary teachers of Sweden were absent one year or more on account of illness.

But it is not as a matter of mere personal concern to the profession that the teacher's health is here considered; rather as a factor in school efficiency. Medical inspection of schools is partial so long as it takes no notice of teachers, for "the health of the child is intricately related to that of its teacher." There is a subtler way in which weak lungs and neurasthenia among the half million teachers who are molding the intellect and character of twenty million children in this country may affect the development of those children. As the editor's introduction puts it: "If the teacher's conscious pedagogical method transmits truth, it is the unconscious influence of his personality that gives it that bias of meaning which the fact will forever after have for the pupil." And nowadays we are coming to know how much personality is shaped by physical and mental health.

WINTHROP D. LANE.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES

By J. E. WALLACE WALLIN, Ph. D. Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore. 155 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.32.

This is one of the educational psychology monographs edited by Guy Montrose Whipple. The book consists of the results of a series of tests made upon the epileptics at Skillman Village, N. J., by the Binet-Simon scale and by some other tests which are designed to supplement the Binet.

The Binet-Simon test is the nearest approach to a scientific and accurate scale for measuring intelligence that has yet been devised. It is now being used extensively in many parts of the world, particularly in the United States. The work of Dr. Wallin with the epileptics at Skillman is of value in several directions, not the least being its value in testing the Binet scale itself, which has been used repeatedly, at intervals of a year, upon the inmates of the Vineland school, with results which show remarkable accuracy.

It will be readily seen that an accurate test of feeble-mindedness which can be applied by a careful and intelligent observer who has not been specially trained in psychology would be of the greatest possible value. Realizing as we do the absolute necessity of segregating, or in some way controlling, the feeble-minded of every class, the question of how to tell who is feeble-minded is one that is continually recurring.

The scale has been tested quite widely both on normal and defective children, the most important test on normals being that of Goddard

who tried it on nearly 2,000 public school children.

Dr. Wallin found at Skillman that either the Binet scale was not accurate or else that the conditions surrounding epilepsy make the scale less applicable to that class than to normals or feeble-minded. This observation confirms similar facts disclosed at Vineland and elsewhere in connection with epilepsy and insanity; that is to say, both of these conditions produce eccentricities which the scale does not exactly meet.

While the Binet scale is an extremely useful device and one which will be more used, it is only reasonable to suppose that it will be modified, in the future, as it has been in the past, by Goddard and others. But no matter how carefully modified, it is not claimed to be, and will not be claimed to be, an all-sufficient test on such questions as sterilization, final segregation and other very important things. Physical tests of various kinds will also be used.

Dr. Wallin's book concludes with a copy of the Binet scale with directions for its use, all of which are very valuable. On the whole the book is a distinct contribution to the literature of the subject and it is to be hoped that the author's example in testing out large numbers of abnormals of different kinds and then publishing the results will be followed. We know qualitatively a great deal about the feeble-minded and epileptic, but our quantative knowledge is still far from complete.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

PATHFINDERS IN MEDICINE

By VICTOR ROBINSON. Medical Review of Reviews. 317 pp. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.67.

This book contains a series of papers most of which have already appeared in the *Medical Review of Reviews,* the *Medical Record,* and other magazines. It is dedicated to Ernst Haeckel. Dr. Abraham Jacobi wrote the preface.

The Pathfinders include famous men whose names are familiar to every one, such as Galen, Paracelsus, Servetus, Paré, Hunter, Jenner and Darwin, and also some who are only vaguely known to most of us. Among these are Aretaeus, Scheele, Laennec, Semmelweiss. We are not told what prompted the selection of these particular Pathfinders, or why such names as Boerhaave, Sydenham, Pasteur and Virchow were omitted, but one cannot demand that such a book be all-inclusive.

Mr. Robinson has lived with the characters of whom he writes until he has formed a vivid picture of the personality of each, a picture he manages to convey to his audience with great success. Naturally it is the earlier Pathfinders who are most interesting to the ordinary reader and the chapter on Galen holds many surprises for those who have been accustomed to think of the medical skill of the ancients very much as we think of Chinese medicine of today. Galen knew that consumption was communicable, and his disquisitions on dietetics and hygiene are almost incredibly modern.

The chapter on Paracelsus is especially vivid and delightful, while the description of Aretaeus, "the forgotten physician" gives us a picture of a man full of insight and sympathy. Of the later chapters the most interesting are the one on the many-sided Hunter and that which tells of the heroic and tragic struggle of Semmelweiss against the blind conservatism of his own profession.

In the course of one chapter Mr. Robinson remarks that "all writing is autobiographical" and that "prejudices . . . will become apparent, . . . where you least expect." This is true of his own book. No one can read a chapter without discovering the author's antipathy to the Christian religion, and the monarchical system of government. This prejudice against what he regards as superstition and sycophancy, leads him into some extreme statements and mars to a certain extent what would otherwise be delightful reading. If Calvin had been nothing more than the man Mr. Robinson describes, he could hardly have held sway over the minds of several generations as he did. Mr. Robinson will also find that the Bretons opposed the French Revolution not from blind devotion to monarchical tyrants, but because it meant the breakdown of a system of local self-government and common lands to which their Celtic natures clung.

ALICE HAMILTON, M.D.

CIVICS FOR FOREIGNERS

By ANNA A. PLASS, Teacher of English to Foreigners, Rochester, N. Y. D. C. Heath & Company. 186 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.57.

To meet the demand for a book of simple lessons for foreigners which, while aiding them to learn English, should at the same time give information concerning the principles of our government, has been the aim of the author. A very limited vocabulary has been used in presenting the subject. Topics have been limited for the most part to a single page, so that each subject may be treated in as concise a manner as possible. This also makes the book more adaptable for pupils whose attendance is likely to be irregular. The volume, which is well illustrated, gives the elementary facts about the different city departments and officials, about the state government and state law makers, the courts and the national government. Occasionally realistic and practical lessons are included such as a telephone call for the doctor and a petition for naturalization.

At the close of the book is a vocabulary in Italian, German, Swedish, Polish, French, Greek and Yiddish.

JAMES P. HEATON.

ANNUAL REPORT ENGLISH PRISON COMMISSION

For the year ending March 21, 1912. Wyman & Sons, 32 Abingdon St., S. W., London. Price 8d.

Partly because English prison and crime statistics are better and more centralized than ours the annual reports of the English Prison Commission are always well worth reading. In the year ending March 31, 1912, the proportion of persons committed to prisons in England was the lowest within statistical record, 439.2 per 100,000 of the population of England and Wales. The commitments for serious crimes particularly show a decrease. The bane of the English prison

system is still the short sentence for misdemeanants, 81 per cent of all prisoners having been sentenced for one month or less. Over 50 per cent of those committed to prison are sent in default of paying a fine. This is considered by the Prison Commission one of the most urgent social problems demanding the attention of Parliament.

The commission still regrets that the committing magistrates do not take advantage of the chance to classify prisoners when sentencing them. The Borstal Institution (the English Elmira) continues to satisfy; it has now a population of over 400. The Borstal Association, a released prisoner's aid society for Borstal, has placed 250 out of 270 lads received. Of these about seventy-five out of one hundred cases turn out well. The "Borstal girl" from the girl's reformatory has proved satisfactory in conduct after prison in twenty-nine out of fifty-four cases.

An interesting feature is the development of a modified Borstal (or reformatory) system in the local prisons for the younger prisoners, just as though in New York state we introduced into the county jails and penitentiaries a modified Elmira system. The problem of payment to prisoners is engaging the commission.

The Preventive Detention Prison on the Isle of Wight had been running but a few months when the report was prepared. Little can be said about it as yet. The idea is not novel, but "advanced." Following the serving of a sentence for a specific crime, the more professional or habitual criminal may be sentenced to from five to ten years of subsequent preventive detention in a prison with privileges of limited association with other prisoners: in short, a custodial treatment of the criminal who is dangerous to society because of his profession or his nature. Many other interesting features are dealt with in this report of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise and his colleagues; much that our American prison boards and wardens cannot afford to miss.

O. F. Lewis.

ADMISSION TO AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS

By F. Wolfe, Ph.D. Johns Hopkins Press. 181 pp. $1.00 paper, $1.25 cloth; by mail of The Survey $1.08 and $1.33.

SOCIAL PROGRESS IN CONTEMPORARY EUROPE

By Frederick A. Ogg. The Macmillan Company. 384 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.61.

Admission to American Trade Unions is a retrospective study brought up to the present of the methods by which American trade unions control the number and quality of their membership, through their regulations in regard to apprenticeship, competency, admission of women, aliens and Negroes, and the expulsion of members. The conclusions which the writer draws from his study are colorless, but the book presents a wealth of facts, particularly in the footnote references and quotations from primary sources.

* * *

Professor Ogg's review of the movements, which almost within the memory of men now living have transformed the social aspect of Europe, is not profound nor original and does not undertake to interpret these movements. It is, however, a useful reference book of facts, the more so since the author supplements his short accounts of the various movements by bibliographies of the matter covered in each chapter. The subject matter, which is carried practically up-to-date, covers political and industrial changes, the condition of the agricultural population and of the wage-earner, labor organization and politics, and the efforts of governments to improve the condition of the lower classes.

Mary Brown Sumner.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN MARCH

Psychology and Industrial Efficiency. By Hugo Munsterberg. Houghton Mifflin Co. 320 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.62.

Comrade Yetta. By Albert Edwards. The Macmillan Co. 448 pp. Price $1.35; by mail of The Survey $1.47.

The Moral Education of School Children. By Charles Keen Taylor, M.A. Charles K. Taylor, Publ. 77 pp. Price by mail of The Survey $.75.

The Old Law and the New Order. By George W. Alger. Houghton Mifflin Co. 295 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of The Survey $1.35.

The Economic Utilization of History. By Henry W. Farnum, M.A., R.I.P.D. Yale University Press. 220 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of The Survey $1.35.

The Children in the Shadow. By Ernest K. Coulter. McBride, Nast & Co. 277 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.62.

A Catechism of Life. By Alice Mary Buckton. E. P. Dutton & Co. 67 pp. Price $.50; by mail of The Survey $.54.

The Making of Modern England. By Gilbert Slater. Houghton Mifflin Co. 308 pp. Price $2.50; by mail of The Survey $2.64.

Bedrock; Education and Employment, the Foundation of the Republic. By Annie L. Diggs. The Social Center Publishing Co. 70 pp. Price $.25; by mail of The Survey $.30.

Smith and the Church. By Rev. Harry H. Beattys. Frederick A. Stokes. 118 pp. Price $.60; by mail of The Survey $.66.

The Eternal Maiden. By T. Everett Harré. Mitchell Kennerley. 279 pp. Price $1.20; by mail of The Survey $1.28.

A Guide to the Montessori Method. By Ellen Yale Stevens. Frederick A. Stokes. 240 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of The Survey $1.08.

The Upholstered Cage. By Josephine P. Knowles. Hodder and Stoughton. 420 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.60.

The American Child. By Elizabeth McCracken. Houghton Mifflin Co. 191 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of The Survey $1.35.

Syndicalism and the General Strike. By Arthur D. Lewis. Small, Maynard & Co. 291 pp. Price $2.50; by mail of The Survey $2.70.

The Immigrant Invasion. By Frank Julian Warne, Ph.D. Dodd, Mead & Co. 330 pp. Price $2.50; by mail of The Survey $2.70.

American Syndicalism. The I. W. W. By John Graham Brooks. The Macmillan Co. 264 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.60.

Swedish Song Games. By Valborg Kastman and Greta Köhler. Ginn and Co. 95 pp. Price $.75; by mail of The Survey $.83.

School Feeding—Its History and Practice at Home and Abroad. By Louise Stevens Bryant. J. B. Lippincott Co. 345 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.62.

The Case of Oscar Slater. By A. Conan Doyle. Geo. H. Doran Co. 103 pp. Price $.50; by mail of The Survey $.57.

The Nature of Woman. By J. Lionel Taylor. E. P. Dutton & Co. 186 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of The Survey $1.32.

Essays in Taxation. By Edwin Seligman. Macmillan Co. 707 pp. Price $4.00; by mail of The Survey $4.23.

The Social Center. By Edw. J. Ward. D. Appleton & Co. 359 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.61.

Handbook of Municipal Accounting. By Bureau of Municipal Research. D. Appleton & Co. 318 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of The Survey $2.14.

A New Logic. By Charles Mercier. Open Court Publishing Co. 422 pp. Price $3.00; by mail of The Survey $3.17.

COMMUNICATIONS

WAGES FIXED BY LAW

To the Editor:

Your San Pedro correspondent[1] has got his figures on wages wrong and he leaves the expenses of business out of account. The 1910 Census bulletin of manufactures gives the figures thus, stated in thousands of dollars:

Value of Product.....		20,767,546
Wages (16 11/20%).....	3,434,734	
Salaries (4 11/20%).....	940,900	
Cost of Material (58 14/20%)....12,194,019		
Miscellaneous expenses (9 8/20%)....	1,955,773	
		18,525,426
Balance for manufacturers.....		2,242,120

This balance is 10 16/20 per cent of the value of the product. Out of this interest on capital and wear and tear have to be met. The employes, in wages and salaries, get 21 2/20 per cent—just about twice what the manufacturers get. If 13 per cent were to be added to wages, as Mr. Deegan proposes, there would be a loss and business would not be done.

He may say charge more for the goods. But he complains of the high cost of living now. To increase it would be an injury—not a benefit.

My advice to all my labor friends would be to reduce the cost of production by making labor more efficient. Avoid strikes, settle differences by arbitration. If existing arbitration tribunals are inadequate, provide better, and remember that the real interests of labor and capital are identical. Labor would be fruitless, without factories and machinery. The men who invent or provide these are entitled to their share.

Everett P. Wheeler.

New York.

PLAY CENTERS FOR THE POOR

To the Editor:

Henry De Peyster's article on Play Centers for the Poor in The Survey for March 22 is interesting and illuminating. Evidently he has made a profound study of the question. But with regard to France I should like to add a few words to correct a false impression which Mr. De Peyster surely had no intention of giving.

As he says, the problem is different in France and Germany from that in other countries; but he does not mention (except tacitly by the picture on page 856) the admirable provision made by the *Mission Populaire* (the McAll Mission) to meet the actual condition.

In all the larger stations of that mission, both in Paris and in the provinces (Rouen, Nantes, Lille, etc.) the daily *Ecole de Garde* (supervised study and play hours) is an important feature. The children leave school at four—their parents reach home from work not much before half past six. Therefore the boys and girls within walking distance hasten to the McAll station. After a light lunch they are turned into the play-ground for an hour on the parallel bars and the other apparatus. At five they are collected in the mission rooms, where their preparation for the next day is supervised by volunteer teachers.

Mr. De Peyster evidently uses the word "religious proselytism" in the French, not the English, sense. The French word "proselyte" is nearly equivalent to the English "convert." That the *Ecoles de Garde* of the McAll Mission do have a religious motive goes without saying. About ten minutes of religious instruction are given daily, but absolutely without proselyting intent. Most of the parents of these children are free thinkers or violently opposed to religion, a few are Roman Catholics, but never a word is said which could mar the influence of any religiously disposed parent. As for the others, the widely established fact that more children from the McAll *Ecoles de Garde* pass their examinations than any others makes even anti-religious parents eager to have their children attend them. For in France the whole future of every child depends upon his school examinations.

Louise Seymour Houghton.

Washington, D. C.

[1]See The Survey of February 8, 1913, p. 653.

THE NEW PUBLICITY

To the Editor:

In a recent book review of a modern novel, the writer speaks of "episodes which violate the reserve that is bred in the bone of the English-speaking peoples."

It is a serious matter, to my mind, that that reserve is being deliberately violated by a number of well-meaning people at this time in the campaign that is being carried on against certain diseases.

"It is necessary," these people say, "to speak plainly. Great harm has been wrought by ignorance. The innocence of the child has been its weakness. Under plea of modesty fathers and mothers have been foolish and cowardly," and so on. You hear and see it everywhere, and lectures are being delivered, to mixed audiences, on things which, the apostle said, it was a shame even to speak of.

Now I believe that the necessary information can, and should, be, given to children from twelve to fifteen; but it is my positive belief that it should be done by the parents, or else by the use of carefully prepared printed matter. A short, modestly written pamphlet can tell all that is necessary. It can be placed in the hands of the child with instruction that it should be *read and destroyed;* also that the parent will give any further information required. I believe that oral instruction on these matters, *to more than one chi'd present at a time*, is bad and harmful.

I feel deeply in the matter, for I feel that harm is being done when a strong, fine, racial

trait is being violated, in attempting a good work that can be *better* done, in my opinion, when it is done in harmony with our best traditions.

Attempts at allegory, comparisons with plant life, and so on, are all best left aside. The child should be told what is right and what is wrong, and why. But it should not be told in company with others, and especially not in mixed audiences. The inbred reserve spoken of is too precious a possession to be thrown away, even in a good cause.

Something of the same purport may be said of the social evil now so freely discussed in the press and forming so large a part of the subjects written about in your issue of March 8. "Frankness" and "freedom" are excellent, but some things are too fine to be tarnished by careless use, and modesty is one of them.

Where we are getting to in this new movement to tear away the veil that has screened the family life of America can be seen in some of the new fiction. For instance, in Arnold Bennett's Carlotta the hectic heroine thinks that truth demands that one should follow the dictates of animal instinct!

The logical result will be that morality, either ethical or religious, will be sent to the waste basket.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

TO THE EDITOR:

In the March 8 issue of THE SURVEY there appeared an article by Paul Kennaday, entitled Big Business and Workmen's Compensation. This article is full of inaccurate statements and should never, in justice to your readers, have been printed.

On page 809, in the first column, it is stated: "Seized upon with alacrity by reformers, fought at first at every step by the casualty insurance companies and employers, 'elective' acts are now cherished like a prodigal son," etc. This statement is unqualifiedly untrue. Employers generally have been notoriously in favor of elective compensation laws. Of course, they have been far from unanimous, and their expert advisers have generally been in favor of compulsory laws, but anyone familiar with the attitude of employers in the movement for compensation can bear witness to the fact that the majority of employers have throughout entertained a preference for elective laws. On the other hand, the casualty insurance companies have not fought such laws, nor have they generally specifically favored them. There has been as much difference of opinion among the insurance men on this question as there has been among all other classes of people. But in general the representatives of the casualty insurance companies have favored any kind of a law which would substitute the liability for compensation in place of the liability for negligence.

Of course, the casualty insurance companies have objected to such elective compensation laws as the Ohio Act of 1911, for the reason that that act gave the state insurance office a monopoly of the compensation insurance. That left the casualty companies to deal with the old negligence liability with all its abuses and consequent unpopularity, while it gave them no opportunity to demonstrate their ability to administer compensation insurance better than the State Office and without the abuses incident to negligence insurance.

The statement on page 809 at the bottom of the first column and the top of the second, that the "club" features of the elective compensation law has a peculiar advantage from the casualty companies' standpoint is also diametrically the opposite of the truth. What the casualty insurance companies most desire is that the compensation law shall be so framed as to induce all employers, or all large employers, pretty unanimously to adopt one course or the other; that is, en masse to elect the compensation features of the law, or, en masse to reject them. Otherwise the casualty companies have to do business under two different laws, providing for two different kinds of insurance, the consequent of which is to duplicate the work and a large part of the expenses of the insurance companies. They naturally do not want a law which will cause employers to jump back and forth from the compensation features to the negligence features and vice versa, and experiment, but rather one which will induce all to come permanently under the compensation features or to stay out permanently.

On page 809, in the second column, it is stated, referring to casualty companies: "With equal determination they stop, where they can, laws which give the employer no election, but compel him to insure." That is a purely gratuitous misstatement of the facts. The casualty companies have not—whatever some few exceptional representatives of some companies may have done—tried to stop the enactment of compulsory compensation laws. They have, on the other hand, opposed the enactment of so-called compensation laws which would give a monopoly of the insurance business to political boards. In so doing they have adopted the natural attitude of protecting their own business; and have done no more than would the persons engaged in any other business if it were proposed to transfer their business to politicians.

On page 809 in the same column, it is stated: "Prospective annual profits in enormous amounts are at stake for the casualty insurance companies in this fight." That statement is a pure figment of the imagination. The writer cannot point out anywhere on this earth where casualty insurance companies have made profits in enormous amounts. What is at stake for the casualty insurance companies is the total value of the machinery and good will of their business, which ill-advised enthusiasts, under the secret guidance of Socialist agitators, are trying to destroy. But more important, the employes of such companies have their bread and butter at stake; it being proposed to transfer their jobs to political appointees and to leave them out in the cold.

Lower down in the column it is stated that "casualty insurance companies are to be found advising, wherever workmen's compensation is under discussion." As a matter of fact, the casualty insurance companies have been very reluctant about advising except when called upon; but their actuaries have been in constant demand, and naturally should be, since they are about the only persons except the officials of the state insurance departments, who know anything about the business and the subject matter involved. The further statement that "At meetings of bar associations their attorneys have resolutions passed deprecating state insurance" is a gratuitous insult. No attorney for an insurance company would offer a resolution at a meeting of any bar association affecting the interests of his clients without stating that fact; and thereupon the resolution would be considered on its merits and would express the opinions of the members of the bar unaffected by the interests of the casualty insurance companies.

On page 810, in the first column, it is argued that no doubt big business and the insurance companies would be glad to see the pending constitutional amendment defeated. That is a pure assumption. Inasmuch as said amendment goes infinitely farther than authorizing a compensation law, and generally repeals the Bill of Rights in application to the relation of employer and employe, there may be many conservative opinions opposed to its enactment. But big business, the casualty insurance companies and a host of conservative people have been most active in the movement for an amendment permitting the enactment of a compensation law in this state in such form as the judgment of the legislature might decide, without any restrictions in the interests of any party.

On the same page, near the top of the second column, it is objected to the insurance committee's compensation bill now pending in the Legislature that it leaves the function of fixing rates in the State Insurance Department. Why not! Is the objection to that provision that the Insurance Deparment, being already constituted and being composed of officials expert in the subject of insurance, will fix rates properly and not use state-administered insurance as a political weapon? Why create a new body to deal with the technical subjects with which the Insurance Department is qualified to deal?

Further down it is stated, sneeringly, that "three constitutional objections to one bill is good measure." The objections are then stated. Now as a matter of fact three constitutional objections to one bill don't amount to much unless these objections are valid. All the objections recited in this paragraph have been carefully considered and the overwhelming weight of opinion is that they are not valid.

It is then stated that a certain change in this bill from its earlier form has "in effect, turned the whole rich New York field over to the casualty companies." And the reason for that conclusion is stated to be that the employers will do nothing until the casualty companies' agents come to them, and will then do what the casualty insurance agents advise. That is nonsense. When the casualty insurance agents go to the employers under a law such as is proposed in this bill, they will go with a proposition involving an extremely large increase in rates. Employers throughout this state have been aroused over the subject of compensation and have studied the question of insurance sufficiently to turn out en masse against a proposition to give a state office the monopoly of insurance. Does it seem probable that when they are approached by the casualty insurance companies' agents they will suddenly turn into fools and in effect submit to a monopoly by those companies? On the contrary, they will study the problem of mutual insurance very hard, and there will undoubtedly result many experiments in that line. Large establishments also will study out the problem of carrying their own insurance. It is also probable that a few employers may venture to experiment with state insurance. But the fact is, as the writer of this article knows, that no well informed and substantial employer will have anything to do with state insurance except as a last resource, or unless he is compelled.

Finally it is stated that no spokesman for the casualty insurance companies appears upon the field in New York. That is rather ridiculous. Officially, the two best informed persons upon casualty insurance in this state should be Mr. Hotchkiss, the former, and Mr. Emmet, the present, state insurance commissioner; and they both have spoken for, although not as the representatives of, the casualty companies of New York. At the same time, Frank E. Law, of the Fidelity and Casualty Company, and Edson S. Lott, of the United States Casualty Company, have made many addresses and published a considerable amount of literature on this subject. Naturally, the insurance companies have sought to avoid anything that would cause the false impression that any bill was in their particular interest. They have therefore rather confined themselves to opposing thoroughly bad measures than to advocating anything that they particularly desire or recommend.

The whole animus of this article is clearly betrayed in the opening words of the last paragraph, where the writer says, "while men are deliberately and openly planning the utter rout of the casualty companies. . . ." Who are these men that are deliberately and openly planning the utter rout of the casualty companies? The writer is among them. They are those who seek to destroy private business in all its forms and to substitute state management and control in its place. Their activities in the present campaign have nothing to do with the particular merits or demerits of the compensation measures in question. Their whole attitude is false, in that they do not admit their motives, and besides wantonly misstate facts as to their adversaries.

F. Robertson Jones.

[Secretary-Treasurer Workmen's Compensation Publicity Bureau.]

New York.

MOTHERHOOD AND PENSIONS

To the Editor:

After all, the discussion of State Funds to Mothers has not left us breathless. Even after the clear statements of two opposing social points of view in The Survey of March 1, and the summing up by Dr. Devine it seems to me that there still remains another point of view—that of the mother.

Speeches in a Mother's Congress do not always give the right idea of the mother's point of view. One must make allowance for fervour. A speaker of charm and imagination will be quoted, but the great body of mothers are as calm and collected in thinking on this subject as on any other domestic problem which comes to them for solution. For there is no doubt that the women, and above all, the mothers, will have something to do and say about the solution of this problem.

I belong to the class of mothers who would not usually speak in public except for an accident. The accident was that I discovered a woman trying to do the impossible and found that society seemed organized to ignore her. She was not very good, but she was not bad. No one tried to help her to be better. They said they had been observing her, and that they were not satisfied. She was a widow of thirty-five with eight children under the working age. The conditions under which that woman was struggling were absolutely impossible and I broke the boycott. Since then I have been interested in mothers with minor dependent children.

It seems to me that taking away the children from a mother, is like taking away her life, for the connection is so close and subtle. Many a mother would prefer a quick and sudden death to that slow and living one. It is like giving capital punishment for a trivial offense. Sometimes the offense is unintentional. It may be poverty.

There is a certain temporary relief gained, when children have been entirely dependent on the mother, and she has had no bread to give them. At first, when the relieving officer takes the children and she knows that at night they will be snug and warm and in the morning dressed and fed, there is a great wave of thankfulness and relief. But soon the mother asks herself, "why could not I have warmed and fed and dressed them, since I could have done it for less?" Even the simplest mothers have heard the whisper now. In their desperate loneliness they are gathering, by tens and by thousands, to ask for the custody of their own children.

This social revolution may be like the French revolution, but it is surely not like the burning of witches, unless the witches are the ones that stand by the cradles of neglected childhood.

How carefully Miss Richmond, appealing to our judgment and sound sense, figures out the seemingly fabulous sums that might have been saved to fight tuberculosis and feeble-mindedness, from the sums wasted in soldiers pensions. But why, I ask, is the whole country spell-bound, helpless and hopeless at the prospect of the mounting pension ladder? If we admit that the granting of pensions to disabled soldiers was right, why attack the principle instead of the abuse of the practise? Surely that could be helped. If a thing can be proven to be wrong and illogical by mathematics, as Miss Richmond has proved it to be, then it can be solved by mathematics. There is a leak somewhere.

In the same way, if there are more children with their mothers, after a certain law has been passed, and at the same time more in the institutions, it shows, surely, that the attention of the community has been called to a lot of children unknown before or that someone has blundered in counting them. A new law does not produce a spontaneous crop of children, under the Juvenile Court limit. Where were those children? These are the things that a mother naturally asks. They say that the soldiers are dying out. But unless the risks and dangers and lack of independence of the life deter women in the future, there will always be mothers.

But will there always be poor mothers? Have we not begun a war on poverty?

Why is not the prevention and cure of poverty as wide and noble a field as the cure of tuberculosis? Are we not studying to eliminate it in the same way by destroying its breeding places, by rescuing the child, by no longer considering poverty as "the curse of God?" Poverty and tuberculosis and other dark shapes go hand in hand. Why is not the prevention of needless poverty also a constructive health measure?

And why, if we are to be so very careful and scientific about it, is the question of non-support always confused with that of the death of the wage-earner? The man cannot take his responsibilities with him into the next life, whatever we say, and the poor cannot carry adequate insurance till we copy England or Germany.

Let us have "more individualized, more skillful, more thorough treatment of the widely diversified causes of dependence" by all means. But let us not forget that the fact of bearing and rearing a child in itself creates a certain, if variable, state of dependence for a woman. No amount of learned reasoning can change the fundamental fact that while the child is coming into the world and is young the mother must forfeit a certain amount of her independence to care for the child. What I do not have patience with is the preaching of that good old-fashioned dogma "the mother's best place is in the home." Nothing can be more valuable to the state than the mother's contribution, but the home has no safeguards other than those which the man, with his willing or unwilling hands can give her.

It is the preachers and the social workers, I have thought to myself many times who have waked our sleeping "social conscience." It may be a good genie that is waked but it wants something to do, and will not be put off with promises.

Clara Cahill Park.

[Secretary of the Commission to Study the Question of Support of Dependent Minor Children of Widowed Mothers.]

Wollaston, Mass.

PERSONALS

WILFRED S. REYNOLDS, executive secretary of the Cook County Board of Visitors during its first year has succeeded Prof. Henry W. Thurston and Dr. Hastings H. Hart as secretary and superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. A graduate of Earlham College, Indiana, Mr. Reynolds was for six years superintendent of schools and assistant superintendent of the School for Delinquent Boys at Plainfield, Ind. Under Amos W. Butler, he was for four years in charge of the department of the Indiana Board of State Charities for the supervision of dependent and neglected children.

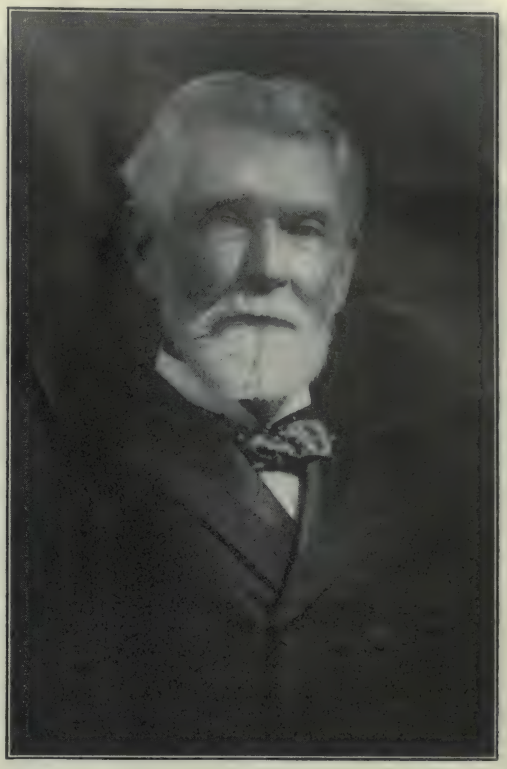
The Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society is devoted to home-finding and the supervision of children in foster homes, the aid and helpful oversight of dependent parents with children, and to the administration of the four institutions conducted by the society in different parts of the state of Illinois. A careful survey of Chicago and of the state at large will soon be undertaken by Mr. Reynolds and his staff to determine anew the specific demands for the society's work and the scale upon which it can now be undertaken. Its expenditures last year, as reported by the subscriptions investigating committee of the Chicago Association of Commerce, were $62,616.

* * *

THE death of Samuel Allan Lattimore, Ph.D., LL.D., emeritus professor of chemistry of the University of Rochester, at the age of eighty-five, marks the passing of a notable educator and social worker. Though born in the central West of southern ancestry, he spent most of his professional life in the East. He combined in character the courtesy of the South, the vigor of the West and the conservatism of the East. He was a real aristocrat, the kind that makes a true democrat. As a teacher, and even as a friend, he gave the impression one has in the Alps of distance without remoteness, of aloofness without coldness.

Dr. Lattimore's reputation as a scientist was such that in the face of bitter political opposition, his report recommending the present source of Rochester's water supply was accepted. This secured to the citizens an ideal water system. He was one of the organizers of the Western New York Institution for Deaf Mutes, of the Mechanics Institute and of the Reynolds Library, three of the most useful institutions of the city. For several years he was a member of the city Board of Health, of the Monroe County committee of mental hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association, and of the board of visitors for that organization to the state hospital for the insane. He was a pioneer advocate of cremation on the ground of its sanitary value, and his body was one of the first to be reduced to its elements in the crematory just completed by his city.

The scholar and the gentleman blended in him so perfectly that we think of him first as a citizen. The community is as much his debtor as the university. He had unusual opportunities to make large sums of money as an expert chemist, but never would lower his professional standards for commercial gain. One of his most conspicuous early services was a course of free public lectures on science given to large audiences of working men for several successive years in Buffalo, Cleveland and Rochester.



PROF. SAMUEL A. LATTIMORE

Professor Lattimore's mind was keenly alert to the very end of his career and kept in touch with all of the movements for social welfare. Only a few days before his death he was deeply interested in the article in a recent SURVEY by Samuel Fels on The Policeman. He suggested that it be reprinted in *The Common Good* and a copy be sent to every policeman in the city. His wish has been carried out.[1] He was a fine type of the new citizen-scholar, with a large and keen sense of the duty which scholarship owes to the community.

PAUL MOORE STRAYER.

* * *

RECENTLY the Board of Directors of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company elected Lee K. Frankel sixth vice-president. As assistant secretary and manager of the Industrial Department, Dr. Frankel has brought his knowledge of social work and conditions into the industrial insurance field.

[1]The Common Good of Civic and Social Rochester. March, 1913, p. 171.

AT THE summit of his usefulness Prince A. Morrow has been gathered to his fathers. Worn out by labor for a cause that possessed him mind, body and estate, he was cut down in the glory of what must almost be considered martyrdom. His zeal for his endeavor engulfed him, rendered him oblivious to all minor concerns. He was happy in death because it occurred when the tidal wave that he had started on its onward course was sweeping a mighty current throughout the length and breadth of the land.

Dr. Morrow was born December 19, 1846, and therefore had not reached the allotted threescore and ten years when death claimed him. He was of gentle birth, and his mental equipment and capacity entitled him to work as a peer among intellectual men. His honesty of purpose, strength of character, and mental courage rendered him a fit champion for the cause he finally espoused. At the age of eighteen, he won his academic degree at Princeton College, Ky. He took his professional degree from the Medical Department of the University of New York in 1874.

His activity in professional work soon brought him into prominence as a surgeon, lecturer, professor, and author. He was an indefatigable worker from the first, and a voluminous writer, contributing essays freely to medical periodicals, translating important works from the French; he stood out as an authority on dermatology and syphilology. Along these lines he gained distinction and emolument.

But this goal did not satisfy the cravings of his moral nature. He had in him the sturdy courage and the indomitable will of a reformer. In his late manhood he set about the herculean task of cleansing the moral atmosphere of the community. He opened the door of publicity and let in the light of knowledge upon the slimy and festering course of the venereal diseases in their ravaging march among the ignorant and innocent.

This led to a broadening of the lines of his endeavor and the inclusion of the sex problem in his crusade. More and more he recognized the necessity of imparting correct information upon sex matters to the budding curiosity of youth and of giving honest food to clean young minds, rather than the distorted nourishment they had been wont to receive. His studies, his writings, his teachings, and his special line of practice and hospital work, all had served to fit him peculiarly for his chosen task. The final outcome of it all was the crowning glory of his life, the formation of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, of which he was the life and the soul and which above all else is worthy of record among his achievements.

After months of thought and much counsel and consultation among his friends, who furnished him scant support and at best only lukewarm approval, he finally called a meeting on February 8, 1905, at the New York Academy of Medicine. A handful of men, twenty-five in all—timid, half-hearted associates—gathered around him to discuss the propriety of organizing a society for "the study and prevention of the spread of diseases which have their origin in the social evil."

A movement of this nature was already under way abroad, notably in France, Belgium, and Germany, but England was nearly silent on the subject and not a ripple of the current had started on this side of the Atlantic. The medical profession of New York was indifferent, if not passively hostile, to the new movement, while the country at large was apathetic. But Dr. Morrow struggled in season and out of season against indifference, opposition, and ridicule. From this small beginning he pushed ahead, until death snatched his tired body from the arena. Yet his accomplishment lives and is his monument—and practically his alone—for he was its life and its spirit.

Today the society in numbers approaches 2,000 and embraces in its membership individuals in every quarter of the globe—Canada, England, Scotland, Mexico, Asia, Africa, New Zealand. Largely from the seed sown by the pioneer society, there have sprung up in the United States over twenty kindred bodies, most of which were helped in organization by the literature of the New York society and the kindly counsel and encouragement of Dr. Morrow. The laity even more than the profession, and notably women, have put their shoulders to the wheel and assisted. The press is no longer timidly hostile, but opens its columns and lends its editorials to spreading the idea which is now slowly sweeping over the land.

Dr. Morrow has been recognized as the general at the head of the advancing army, a recognition which may be epitomized by quoting the words of a resolution passed by the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography at Washington, September 27, 1912:

> Be it resolved: That the participants of this section on sex hygiene of the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, consider it a privilege to make public record of their sense of obligation to Dr. Morrow for his courageous and unflinching attitude in the face of difficulties that would have discomfited an ordinary man, and of admiration for the achievement that has culminated in the prominent position that education in sex hygiene has commanded in the deliberation of this congress.
>
> "Be it also resolved: That the delegates here assembled join with rare pleasure in the attempt, inadequate though it be, to express to Dr. Morrow the gratitude not only of the American people, but of the world of nations."

Dr. Morrow's gracious manner and courtly dignity, the balanced charm of his cultured and deliberate diction, a combination that quite justifies the seeming pretension of his praenomen—these things, and many others, will long be remembered by those who have the honor to believe that they may be classed among the number of his friends.

E. L. KEYES.

PROF. CHARLES E. MERRIAM of the University of Chicago was again elected alderman of his ward on April 1. The circumstances of the victory give it unusual significance. All Chicago watched the struggle so closely as almost to forget the aldermanic battles in other wards. The way in which he took up the cudgels shows again Professor Merriam's high degree of civic courage. For scarcely a man who had served with distinction as an alderman and then as the leader in a mayoralty campaign that attracted the nation's attention, would have entered an aldermanic fight again with the odds against him. His ward, the boundaries of which were recently changed, no longer includes the university as it did when he was previously elected alderman. It now stretches far to the south, and takes in some industrial sections. Professor Merriam not only had an able opponent but, in making nonpartisanship a main issue, he decided to run solely as an independent candidate nominated by petition.

His opponents all ran on party tickets. There was even a candidate under the Progressive Party designation despite Professor Merriam's prominent identification with that party during the last presidential campaign. The progressives in Chicago tried hard to arrange an agreement between all the parties to abandon party names and leave the field throughout the city clear for nominations solely by petition. When this failed they nominated their own candidates. The candidacy of a "progressive" against Professor Merriam is said by some to have been part of a scheme to beat him.

Professor Merriam has aggressively worked for public rights and welfare and the newer methods of bringing the control of government back to the people. His election is a triumph for this type of public service as distinguished from the "business administration" type which his chief opponent personified.

G. R. T.

* * *

KARL DE SCHWEINITZ, for nearly two years secretary of the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, will shortly become head of the Bureau of Advice and Information of the New York Charity Organization Society. This bureau undertakes to investigate, at request, agencies and institutions accepting donations from private individuals.

Mr. de Schweinitz brings to his new task experience in investigation, publicity and social work. He has been a reporter on both the Philadelphia *Public Ledger* and *Press*, and has served in the circulation department of the Curtis Publishing Company. For a year he engaged in publicity work at the University of Pennsylvania.

* * *

OLIVE CROSBY has been appointed office secretary of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. Miss Crosby was formerly secretary of the New York Diet Kitchen Association, and earlier, head of the investigating department of the New York Charity Organization Society.

TREND

LEADERS IN THE MONTH'S MAGAZINES

WHY CHILDREN WORK. By Helen M. Todd. *McClure's.* The answers of eight hundred of the little workers who were questioned by Miss Todd as factory inspector in Chicago. A little less than half the Chicago children gave their father's illness or death by industrial accident or disease as the reason. An almost equal number said they liked work better than school, and their reasons, as given by Miss Todd, constitute a pretty serious criticism of our educational system.

SAFETY BY SANCTION. By John Anson Ford. *Technical World Magazine.* Tells of the "safety first" campaign set on foot by R. C. Richards, claim agent of the Chicago and North Western Railroad, which, in less than two years, has resulted in saving the life of one trainman out of every two who under former conditions would have been killed under the cars; saving similarly one out of every three of the trackmen formerly doomed to death in the performance of duty; reducing the accident toll among passengers by 152 more passengers saved from death and almost 5,000 more spared from injury than the year before.

This novel and enlightened effort to reduce claims by preventing accidents has now spread to forty-six railroads operating 60 per cent of the railroad mileage in the United States.

THE FIRE INSURANCE TRAP. By William B. Ellison. *Pearson's.* As the expert chosen by Governor Sulzer to frame a new form of fire insurance policy for New York, Mr. Ellison tells of the sixteen "teeth" by which policy-holders can be caught at the present time. These teeth are clauses in the policy by which the companies can escape from their liability.

A UNIVERSITY THAT RUNS A STATE, by Frank Parker Stockbridge, and

WHAT I AM TRYING TO DO, by Adolph O. Eberhardt. Both in the *World's Work.* In Wisconsin, the university "writes many of its laws, directs much of its public service, increases its crops, makes better farmers and housekeepers, conducts correspondence schools, and carries a college education to the door of every citizen who wants it." In Minnesota a governor who writes of his own plans, is trying to keep farmers on their farms, by using a generous state educational fund, with further grants by the Legislature, to make the country school houses centers for social intercourse for recreation and for practical instruction in agriculture and household economics.

CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATION, by Albert Sonnichsen, and CO-OPERATION IN WISCONSIN, by Robert A. Campbell. Both in the *Review of Reviews.* A résumé by the secretary of the co-operative league of the progress of the co-operative movement in Europe and America, supplemented by the intensive study of one state by an official of the State Board of Public Affairs, created last year with instruction, to make a special study of the state experience in this field.

INDUSTRIAL PEACE AND WAR. By Everett P. Wheeler. *Atlantic Monthly.* A plea for a compulsory arbitral tribunal, which would substitute continual peace for recurrent warfare in the relations of labor and capital. Mr. Wheeler does not believe such a method of settling labor disputes would be impracticable or unsuited to American conditions or that the compulsory powers of such a tribunal should be any more repugnant to our ideas of liberty than is the power of our courts to decide disputes between individuals.

* * *

THE FOOL

Mary Eleanor Roberts in the *Independent*

There's a fool runs the mission, that place on the pike,
For darkies, and dagoes, and bums, and the like,
And if I had his job, why I'd go on a strike.

With coal at eight dollars, and working alone,
All smiling, and eager, and thin as a bone,
"For the Lord," so he says, "will take care of His own!"

And the ghost of a coat, and a stitch in his side,
And his eyes bright and starved, and his boots gaping wide—
I got tired of waiting for Thee to provide.

So I sent him a check; just to shame, it might be
Such a God by an out and out sinner like me;
But he fell on his knees and gave thanks unto Thee!

HOW THE FACTORY GIRL IS BETTER OFF THAN THE STORE GIRL

A GRAPHIC PRESENTATION IN THE REPORT ON WORKING GIRLS AND WOMEN OF ROCHESTER OF THE RELATIVE POSITIONS UNDER THE LAW OF TWO GROUPS OF GIRL WORKERS.

FACTORY	MERCANTILE
Law requires one seat to each girl.	Law requires only one seat to every three girls.
60 minutes for meals.	45 minutes for meals.
Indifferent appearance.	Must dress well.
Many sit to work.	On legs most all the time.
MINORS	**MINORS**
8 hours a day, 6 days a week. Not before 8 a. m. or after 5 p. m.	9 hours a day, 54 hours a week. Not before 8 a. m. or after 7 p. m.
WOMEN	**WOMEN**
9 hours a day, except when making up for a holiday.	Over 21, no limit to hours she may work. Up to 21, 10 hours a day, 60 hours a week.
54 hours a week.	(Law does not apply between Dec. 18th and 24th)
Not before 6 a. m. or after 9 p. m.	Not before 7 a. m. or after 10 p. m., if under 21.

—*From the Common Good.*

THE COMMON GOOD, a civic and social periodical of Rochester, devotes its February issue to a compilation by its editor, Edwin A. Rumball, in collaboration with Catherine Rumball, of the facts in regard to the working girls and women of that city who numbered at the 1900 census about 19,000, or over 31 per cent of all the women of Rochester. The facts are for the most part taken from the last census or from the Federal Report on Women and Child Wage-Earners and other authoritative sources, and are handled so as to show Rochester people just how high up or low down in the scale of cities, Rochester stands in its treatment of its women workers. The report is also issued as an "equal pay" document by the woman suffrage organization.

* * *

AMONG the answers to the question why they quit school which Helen M. Todd put to Chicago factory children are the following taken from Why Children Work in *McClure's*:

"Because you get paid for what you do in a factory."

"Because it's easier to work in a factory than 'tis to learn in school."

"You never understands what they tells you in school, and you can learn right off to do things in a factory."

"They ain't always pickin' on you because you don't know things in a factory."

"You can't never do t'ings right in school."

"The boss he never hits yer, er slaps yer face, er pulls yer ears, er makes yer stay in at recess."

"The children don't holler at ye and call ye a Christ-killer in a factory."

"They don't call ye a Dago."

"They're good to you at home when you earn money.'

"You can go to the nickel show."

"Yer folks don't hit ye so much."

"You can buy shoes for the baby."

"You can give your mother yer pay envelope."

"Our boss he never went to school."

"School ain't no good. The Holy Father he can send ye to hell, and the boss he can take away yer job er raise yer pay. The teacher she can't do nothing."

* * *

RUNNING THE HOME, by Martha Bensley Bruère in *Good Housekeeping,* is an argument for the use of public utilities in place of certain old-fashioned forms of "elbow grease," on the ground not merely of the saving of labor but of expense. Mrs. Bruère's conclusion is that the city, with its superior facilities for using centralized facilities for heating, lighting, etc., co-operatively, comes out far ahead of the country. In the budgets she studied the percentage of income spent for the "operation of the household—heat, light, repairs, services, etc." —in the city was only half what it is in the country.

* * *

IN Parenthood and the Social Conscience, Seth K. Humphrey (*Forum*) recommends the lifting of the burden of the hereditary defective from society by "parenthood laws" which would not force sterilization on defectives but would give them the choice of sterilization or segregation. The much controverted Indiana institutional experience is the basis of Mr. Humphrey's conclusion that many defectives will accept the former method of "ending their miseries with themselves."

* * *

FOLLOWING up Burton J. Hendrick's narrative last month of the Jewish invasion of America, Abraham Cahan, "editor, author, and general counselor of the Jewish East Side of New York," this month begins in *McClure's* the material and spiritual history of David Levinsky, a Russian Jew who became an American millionaire.

FRANK BARCLAY COPLEY in an article in the *American Magazine,* which receives the commendation of Frederick W. Taylor in an introductory note, thus defines the position, of the new science of management toward trade unionism:

> "The only way the workers, herded into gangs and treated as machines for grinding out dividends, can defend themselves is through organization. Ordinary unionism, therefore, finds its justification as a war-measure. Scientific management, however, by establishing that community of interest between capital and labor which has so long been obscured by ignorance, creates industrial peace, and the only persons who have reason to oppose it are those who have a personal interest in the continuance of warfare. Under scientific management the workers are not subordinates, but coordinates, and each individual is free to earn, learn, and rise as the Almighty has given him the power. No form of collective bargaining would seem to be called for, because tasks are set and wages fixed, not by arbitrary action, but by knowledge. The only real boss, in fact, is knowledge; and if anyone can speak with knowledge, he will be listened to, and he will have his reward. On the other hand,the tongue of ignorance must be still; and so it follows that to the extent that unionism means the placing of ignorant men in the saddle, or to the extent that it involves high labor costs, to that extent must scientific management always be against it."

As an indication of those interferences with shop administration which, with the growth of scientific management, the unions will be called upon to abandon, the passage is significant. But progressive labor men will fail to find in it any glimmer of understanding on the part of the scientific managers of the larger democratic safeguards of unionism. Who, for example, is to set the base rates from which the wages of any given line of craftsmen are to be scientifically built up and calculated?

* * *

CHARACTER (Boston) publishes the following resolutions adopted by W. E. Wroe and Company, a Chicago paper house. They are written in the first person, thus making them apply to the man who runs and reads as well as the man who formulated them:

> I will be square, fair, and just towards all my fellow-men, and by fellow-men I mean, not only those I meet in a social way, but my associates and employes in business.
>
> I will keep myself clean and decent, and my desires worthy of a true man.
>
> I will listen to the dictates of my conscience.
>
> I will do my best in everything I undertake, and will undertake nothing unless I can give it the best there is in me.



Courtesy Rochester Common Good.

WORKING AFTER HOURS

A Rochester woman collecting fire wood. This is a regular part of the daily housekeeping of poor families.

> I will speak only optimistic, uplifting words—nothing which can possibly bring pain to my fellow-men merely to give gratification to my own fancies.
>
> I will remember that life embodies *giving* as well as *taking* and that what I receive depends entirely upon what I give.
>
> I will be thankful for life because it gives me a chance to work and accomplish.
>
> I will despise nothing but meanness. I will fear nothing but cowardice.

* * *

THE beginning of a homesteading policy for Egypt is thus described in a Consular Report:

> "Lord Kitchener laid the foundation stone of an agricultural school in the Egyptian Delta on November 6 and initiated a scheme for the distribution of land which has become available for cultivation through drainage. As an experiment, 610 feddans (or acres) were distributed in five-feddan lots to the landless fellaheen (peasants), the idea being to help the poor fellaheen and at the same time to increase the number of small landholders and to create family homesteads. During the first three years, when they must do work of reclamation, the fellaheen will receive the land practically free, and in the following ten years they will pay a moderate rental, after which the holding becomes theirs for life. Afterward the land descends in the families if the government approves. Alienation is forbidden, except with the consent of the State."

JOTTINGS

ST. LOUIS SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY

A plan contemplated for over a year to make the St. Louis School of Social Economy a department of Washington University has just been consummated. The university now assumes full direction and control of the school, but the relationship which has always existed between the school and the Russell Sage Foundation remains unchanged.

The staff, consisting of George B. Mangold, associate director, T. W. Clocker, assistant director, and Ora A. Kelly, assistant, has been increased. Charles E. Persons was recently appointed assistant director and immediately entered upon his duties. Mr. Persons is a native of Iowa, a graduate of Cornell, and received his Ph.D. at Harvard University. He has taught at Wellesley and at Princeton. From Princeton he went to Northwestern University. Mr. Persons' brother, W. Frank Persons, is superintendent of the New York Charity Organization Society. Mr. Persons has courses on public health and immigration and will assist in research work.

"THE UNAFRAID"

The Whitehaven Tuberculosis Sanatorium has a training school made up for the most part of young men and women who have been cured of tuberculosis, and who thus fit themselves to become workers against the scourge. Under the title The Unafraid, William Warren Keller, former secretary of the Child Labor Committee for western Pennsylvania, and himself a man who, during the past year, has downed an incipient case of tuberculosis, wrote some verses in congratulation of the last graduating class. To quote two stanzas:

Resolved to a life full of service
To those who must suffer to breathe,
You added your strength to God's purpose,
The finest to mankind bequeathed.

The indentured years now are finished,
Though scarred, bravely forth do you go,
To relieve and restore wounded brothers,
Driving out from their lives pain and woe.

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Volume XXX, No. 3 April 19, 1913

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THE PITH OF IT

OHIO, Minnesota, New Jersey and Missouri are the latest additions to the list of states which have passed mothers' pension laws. The report of the Massachusetts State Commission, based upon the first official investigation of the subject, has recently been given to the public.

SECRETARY HOUSTON has created in the Department of Agriculture a "rural organization service," and appointed T. N. Carver, professor of economics at Harvard, director of the work. This will be an extension of the division of markets, for which Congress provided last year, and which is to study the "marketing and distributing of farm products." Secretary Houston, deciding that the work should be broader, has accepted an offer from the general education board, which has co-operated with the department for several years in its farm demonstration work, to do likewise in the problems of the "rural organization service."

NEW YORK social workers are protesting against certain of the recommendations of Governor Sulzer's Committee of Inquiry which has urged the abandonment of some important humanitarian projects, such as a farm colony for tramps, to which the state is committed by legislation. P. 84.

FOR seven weeks the 27,000 workers in the silk mills of Paterson, N. J., have been on strike against a proposed change in method which will, they declare, alter the character of an industry that has hitherto paid more generous wages than most branches of textile manufacturing. P. 81.

EDITH M. Hadley, president of the Chelsea House Association of New York, tells how the housing problem affects girls. P. 92.

ACCORDING to Leonard P. Ayres of the Russell Sage Foundation there are just three physchological tests in vocational guidance which have for their object the difficult task of selecting from among all the applicants those best fitted to perform the work. P. 95.

FIFTY thousand dollars has been spent by the National Association of Manufacturers during the last three years in a nation-wide movement for industrial safety. Ferdinand C. Schwedtman, chairman of the association's Committee on Accident Prevention and Workmen's Compensation, tells of some of the concrete results that have been achieved. P. 101.

IN New Orleans is the oldest orphanage in the United States. P. 115.

THAT social workers are too prone to seek from courses on sex hygiene absolute information, a precise formula, that can be applied under any or all conditions in their daily work is the apparent lesson of a series of lectures given last spring in Boston. Pp. 88 and 124.

THE SURVEY

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THE COMMON WELFARE

THE STRIKE OF THE JERSEY SILK WORKERS

For seven weeks the 27,000 workers in the silk mills and dye houses of Paterson, N. J., have been on strike for improved conditions and against a proposed change in method that will, they declare, alter the character of the industry.

The strike began with the broad silk weavers as a protest against the introduction of the three and four loom system. They were soon joined by the ribbon weavers and the dye house men, whose demands are for an eight-hour day and a minimum wage of $12 a week. The dye-house men have been laboring in two shifts of twelve hours each. Their work is often carried on under unhealthful conditions of dampness, high temperature and poor ventilation.

All the strikers joined the branch of the Industrial Workers of the World which conducted the Lawrence strike. This is one factor which has caused tension in a situation, in which statutes dating back to colonial days have been brought to bear on a modern industrial struggle till a Supreme Court judge denounced the lengths to which the police have gone.

Back of the police incidents and the spreading of the revolutionary doctrines of the Industrial Socialists is a profound economic change involved in the introduction of the four-loom system. This is not merely the substitution of machines for skilled men due to invention, but the supplanting of high-grade textile manufacture by low-grade output because of the greater profits in the cheap goods. It is as if a vineyard were giving way to a hay farm—a change which seriously affects the working population of Paterson.

In order to make the situation clear it is necessary to take a brief look at the history of the silk industry in this country. Twenty years or so ago the competition between Pennsylvania and New Jersey for the manufacture of cheap silks was keen, but within a few years the battle was over. Induced, it is said, by real estate companies, the manufacture of cheap silk on a large scale migrated to Pennsylvania. Great factories were built and leased on easy terms, and these were equipped with automatic looms, four of which could be operated by one girl or boy. There the wives and children of the coal miners furnished a cheap labor supply.

Since this migration the best grade of silk has been made in Paterson, and there has been no competition to speak of that the Paterson manufacturers needed to fear. Yet they have been making only moderate profits while the Pennsylvania manufacturers of cheap silk have been making fortunes. Under the system of multiple looms, the business of Pennsylvania, has expanded 97 per cent in the last six years; under the one and two loom systems of Paterson its business has expanded only 22 per cent in the same time. Therefore the Paterson manufacturers propose to compete in the manufacture of cheaper silks and consequently decided to introduce the multiple loom system. To them this is only a natural economic development, and the opposition of the workers they feel is irrational, as opposed to progress. This view is made apparent in a statement issued by the silk manufacturers' association:

"As regards the three and four loom system, it is applicable only in the case of the very simplest grade of broad silks and as a matter of fact has for a long time been worked successfully and on a very large scale in other localities. Paterson cannot be excluded from this same privilege. No fight against improved machinery has ever been successful."

The beginning of the change came in one of the big Paterson mills about a year ago and the strike of last spring[1] was at first against the four-loom system. The strike became general, however, and this demand was completely lost sight of before the strike came to an end. Since then nine or ten other mills have installed the four loom system and a score have begun to require the weavers to tend three looms instead of two.

The strikers claim that the new system will cause unemployment, as did the installation of the two loom system together with other improvements in the mechanical equipment of the loom some years ago, and that the logical consequence will be the employment of unskilled women and children in place of the skilled weaver, and a forcing down of the level of wages until the Paterson average of $11.69, as given in the federal report for the year 1908, becomes as low as the Pennsylvania average of $6.56. As the percentage of women employed in Pat-

[1] See THE SURVEY of March 16, 1912.

erson mills has increased in the last few years and as the average of wages given out by the manufacturers this year is under $10, there is basis for these fears. Nor do the manufacturers deny these possibilities; they claim that the loss of skill is an inevitable accompaniment of improved processes, and the replacing of men by women and children is only in line with the development in all the textile trades.

Some of the claims of the strikers are thus summarized by the *Paterson Evening News*:

"The best information obtainable appears to show that the alleged mechanical advantages of the new system have not proved themselves sufficient to offset the additional strain to which the care of three or four looms subjects the weavers; that the premium wages first paid as an inducement to users of the system have been pared down; that at present a day's work under the system is proportionately less well paid than a day's work at two looms; and, finally, that the wages of two-loom workers have been depressed with the scaling down of the piecerate paid to the three and four loom workers."

In spite of the fact that it is only the large manufacturers who propose to install the new system, the strike is general. The multiple looms, which are large and equipped with automatic devices, can only be installed in large mills. By this system cheap silks alone can be made; the smaller mills must use the Jacquard or other small looms fitted to the making of the fancy grades of silk for which Paterson is famous. The small manufacturer, therefore, does not fear the installation of the new system in the large mills; but he does feel strongly that he has a grievance toward the workers in his mills who struck sympathetically for a wrong not their own.

But it is a very real fear that the entire industry will be undermined that has made the workers stand together, regardless of individual grievances.

While the desire to keep up with industrial progress and to realize large profits is the reason for the importing of the four loom system into Paterson; the desire to save their present standard of living and prevent their industry from coming into the hands of women and children like the other textile trades is the reason for the workers' opposition. Today Pennsylvania and New Jersey present different phases of the industry, and New Jersey has had a higher wage standard; tomorrow with the triumph of the four loom system they may tend to an equalization of conditions.

The outstanding features in the strike now in its seventh week are lack of violence and disorder, the refusal of the employers to meet or confer with the strikers, aggressive repression by the police and the city government and the efforts of citizens to bring about a settlement. Although practically all the workers in the major industry of the city are on strike, there has been little disorderly conduct attributable to the strikers. There have been reports of the breaking of a window by a stone in a house occupied by a boss dyer and at least one attempt was made to damage a house by means of a bomb, but responsibility for these acts has not been fixed.

CITY OFFICIALS ADOPT REPRESSIVE MEASURES

In striking contrast to the order maintained by the rank and file of the strikers, there have been actions on the part of the city officials that leading newspapers outside of the strike district have not hesitated to characterize as anarchical. Soon after the strike began and it became known that it was to be conducted under the auspices of the I. W. W., the police began to arrest strike leaders and others who addressed meetings of strikers, regardless of whether they had yet been guilty of any illegal act. Several of them were held in jail for a time and then so great was the outcry raised that for a period of two or three weeks these tactics were abandoned.

On Sunday, March 30, however, the police resumed their former tactics. William D. Haywood, the leader of the strike, had announced that he would speak at an open air meeting, and a large crowd gathered to hear him. As Haywood was going to the meeting place to speak he was approached by members of the police force. They told him that the chief of police had issued an order forbidding any outdoor meeting. According to all reports, including testimony given by the police authorities themselves, Haywood acquiesced at once and passed the word to the assemblage that the meeting would take place in Haledon, an independent borough just outside the city limits of Paterson. Accordingly, Haywood started to walk down the street in the direction of Haledon and he was followed by the crowd. Just before he reached the city limits, a patrol wagon bore down upon him. Together with Lessig, another strike leader, he was arrested, taken before the Recorder's Court, charged with disorderly conduct and unlawful assemblage under the English act of 1635. After being held in jail in lieu of $5,000 bail, both were found guilty of unlawful assemblage and were sentenced by the recorder to six months' imprisonment.

A writ of *certiorari* was immediately sought by Haywood's attorneys and a hearing on this appeal was held by Supreme Court Justice Minturn. When the evidence, most of it furnished by the police department, was in, Justice Minturn

ordered the release of Haywood and Lessig. He was unable to find that there had been any unlawful assemblage. The evidence tended rather to show that Haywood was co-operating with the authorities in an endeavor to carry out their orders. At the time of this resumption of their activity the police began also to arrest pickets. From twenty to one hundred a day were taken to headquarters. After Judge Minturn's decision, all those held in jail were discharged. Since then, while the arrest of pickets has gone steadily on, Recorder Carroll has refused to hold them.

Throughout the strike to date the manufacturers have consistently refused to meet with a committee of strikers or to discuss terms with them in any way. At one time a delegation of clergymen endeavored to get them to meet a committee of strikers in order to discuss grievances. This suggestion was instantly voted down. Last week, when a public meeting of citizens was held to consider whether or not the strike could be brought to an end, the manufacturers, through their representative, stated their position in just two propositions: First, the employers will refuse to meet any committee of strikers "dominated as they are by the I. W. W."; second, they will meet any of their individual employes "who are not dominated by the I. W. W."

All along there has been a lively public interest in the strike. Ministers and public-spirited citizens have at different times endeavored to ascertain the underlying causes and to co-operate in restoring harmonious relations. These efforts reached their most formal stage when last week at the call of the president of the Board of Aldermen a public meeting was held in the high school auditorium on Wednesday evening to which employers, strikers, church organizations, the board of trade, organizations of bankers and professional men, and the general public were invited. Representatives of the strikers explained their grievances, a single representative of the employers stated their position as just quoted, and the ministerial association came forward with a proposal for a legislative investigation. Finally, a committee of the Board of Aldermen proposed in a series of resolutions that a committee of fifteen be appointed to discuss a basis upon which the strike could be settled, the committee to consist of five representatives of the strikers, five representatives of employers and five men to be appointed from the membership of the Board of Aldermen. The resolution was passed by the unanimous vote of an audience two-thirds of which were strikers. The strikers appointed their committee. But the employers, in line with their official policy which has been against any meeting with any body of men even to discuss a settlement, refused to do so.

"A MAN'S FRIENDS"

"I don't believe there is a man in the country who will not put himself or some one he loves above the whole nation if he is put to a hard enough test."

These words, spoken by one of the principal characters, contain the essence of a new play, A Man's Friends, written by Ernest Poole and recently presented in New York. Without moralizing on the need for a wider social consciousness, Mr. Poole seeks to show the limits of the average man's circle of human loyalty and how far his loyalty to the whole people's welfare is inhibited by his devotion to his own "crowd." The play aims to point out that, however much our attention has been focussed on graft in its great anti-social consequences, a larger factor in thwarting social progress is our restricted loyalty to groups which are less than the whole people.

A district attorney fights a political machine which, through bribery, has defeated a new building code. He convicts the bribed alderman but cannot obtain from him any information as to the "men higher up." At last he discovers that his own son-in-law was the go-between in the matter of the bribe. The intense loyalty of wife to husband is shown by his daughter who says to her father: "Your life and principles are nothing now—promise me you'll keep Hal out of jail," and by the wife of the guilty alderman who declares "it is not a question of right and wrong—it's what I think of Nick."

The play brings out the loyalty to one's circle of intimates, shown in the refusal of the convicted alderman to divulge incriminating information; and the loyalty to a political coterie whose watchword is "You might as well be dead as a squealer," and concerning whom the district attorney says: "It is the unwritten law of your system to perjure yourself to save a friend." He further remarks to the boss, "You won't help those not in your crowd—and your crowd is too small, even though you can call a hundred thousand people in New York by their first names."

One element in the play is the definite human appraisal of just what graft and disloyalty to public welfare involve. It flashes out when the boss after telling how he had given a few dollars to a "down and outer" is silenced by the district attorney's daughter who points out that he owns the gambling place in which the derelict lost his money. It is again emphasized when the district attorney says to those who appeal for leniency toward the men responsible for the defeat of the building code, "All right let's be human," and then refers to the 149 factory girls who lost their lives in a factory fire which

the building code would have prevented. "People vote," he says at another time, "with the man who laughs, but the laugh is too expensive."

How the district attorney shows his own human qualities in the end by saving his son-in-law from prison, but in a way to render important service to the 9,000,000 people of the state, is the climax of the piece.

The play is intended to show how the absorption of the average man in his own affairs and in the interests of his small group of friends is responsible for popular indifference which often makes the conscientious public servant lonely and disheartened. The district attorney, as candidate for governor, has returned from a campaign trip. "There are one million men out for the graft and nine million who don't care," he says. His daughter replies: "That does not seem like you, father." "Well," he adds, "you ought to have seen them all along the line of my trip; big meetings, cheering, too, plenty of enthusiasm. But the minute I left each town I felt it all suddenly die right out. Every man jack of them back to his business, his job and his friends—the things he really cares about—and I felt as though I had carried on the cheers of each town. Each town throwing it all at my head and shouting 'Go on, be a hero, save the country—only for God's sake leave us alone, we have not time, we are busy.'"

BRIEUX'S "DAMAGED GOODS" PRESENTED

"I didn't know" bids fair to become an obsolete phrase in connection with the nature of the social evil, if the ripples started by the production of Brieux's Damaged Goods in New York this spring extend as far as its sponsors intend. The Committee of the Sociological Fund of the *Medical Review of Reviews* believe that syphilis should no longer be regarded as a mysterious disease, whose ravages are to be shunned but its causes ignored.

Bernard Shaw's preface to the Brieux play, with its warning against the usual treatment of the subject as taboo and its appeal for publicity and legal assistance in coping with the evil, was read by a clergyman well known for his human contact with every-day social conditions. The drama itself was simply staged and given a sympathetic reading by a strong cast. Almost every bearing of the menace on family and social life is brought out in a way well calculated to meet prejudice due to indifference, ignorance or tradition, and to create a conviction that here is a scourge to be conquered by publicity.

Those who saw the play had come with various mental attitudes. Some were even vaguely questioning whether they had come to see a play or hear a sermon. Not a few of the theatrical critics have dubbed it the latter, but to many parents this very quality made it seem peculiarly profitable for young men who are breaking loose from home life. By some it was even felt that the educational value of the piece would justify its being given a special performance at some holiday season, and that prevention through knowledge would thus be promoted.

NEW YORK CHARITIES AND THE LAW MAKERS

Convinced that the state charitable and correctional institutions are facing a serious crisis, New York social workers are protesting against certain of the recommendations of Governor Sulzer's Committee of Inquiry which they fear the Legislature may act upon. This committee, which was appointed by the governor to examine into the administration of the state's departments in the furtherance of economy, has made recommendations, relative to state charities and corrections, ranging from the repeal of the act establishing the state industrial farm colony for tramps to the refusal of a large part of the sums asked for repairs on state institutions. The Prison Farm for Women, Letchworth Village and the State Training School for Boys are among the institutions that would be most seriously affected. The Committee of Inquiry also recommended that the State Probation Commission, a non-salaried body, be merged with the Prison Commission.

All told, there are fourteen state hospitals for the insane and sixteen state charitable institutions with a total of 42,000 patients and inmates. The Committee of Inquiry, partly on the alleged ground that the state has little control over the expenditures of these institutions, has made sweeping recommendations for retrenchment on projects to which the state has already committed itself by legislation. Social workers who dispute the findings of the commission point out that it had but a few weeks in which to gain an understanding of the workings and relations of the state institutions to various supervisory and administrative state bodies and that its statements as to excessive cost of housing the inmates are apparently made without a comparison of the situation in other states.

The Committee of Inquiry recommends that the state charitable institutions in some way ought to be consolidated. This, social workers urge, could not be done except by putting together state wards of entirely different types since the only institutions having a capacity of less than 300 are the State Women's Relief Home, an institution for aged veterans and their wives; the Thomas Indian School; the State School for Blind; the State Hospital for Crippled Children, and Letchworth Village for the Feeble-minded.

For many years the state has been gradually

building up a group of institutions for the care of the insane and feeble-minded, the epileptic, and delinquent cases requiring reformatory treatment. The insane are increasing at the rate of about one thousand a year. There is an accumulation at the present time of 5,000 patients in excess of the certified capacity of the fourteen state hospitals. To delay appropriations for new state hospitals already started, it is claimed, is only to put off what must be eventually done.

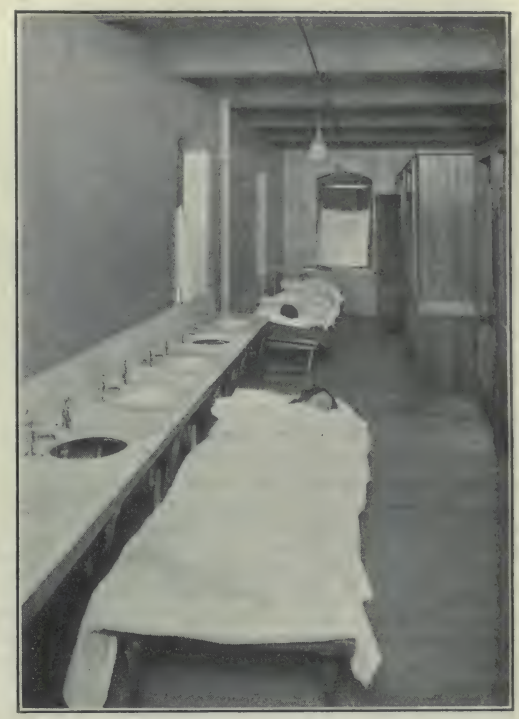
For the feeble-minded and epileptic New York has provided four institutions in the central and western part of the state which care altogether for about 4,000 inmates and one, Letchworth Village in the southeastern part of the state, which as yet has less than 100 inmates. This, when completed, will serve New York city and vicinity where more than half the population of the state centers.

The next largest group of institutions is the reformatories of which there are two for women, one at Bedford and one at Albion; one for girls at Hudson; and two for boys, of which the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry is known the country over as a model of its kind. This institution for caring for boys outside the metropolitan district, social workers urge, should be paralleled without further delay as suggested by the Committee of Inquiry by one in Westchester County for the boys of New York City and its vicinity.

The state has also undertaken to round out its reformatory and penal system by providing a state farm for women over thirty years of age, the age up to which they may be received in reformatories, and the state industrial farm colony for tramps. These institutions are planned to care for offenders who now cause much expense to localities. Both of these institutions were established after long study of the subject by organizations and individuals expert in dealing with dependents and delinquents but the committee recommends the abandonment of the second and further investigation as to the desirability of the first.

After discussing the situation at a meeting held in New York on April 3, a committee consisting of Henry Morgenthau; Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association; John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; the Right Rev. N. G. R. McMahon, supervisor of Catholic Charities, and Mrs. John M. Glenn, was appointed to confer with the governor who has given the committee assurance that he is considering the situation as a whole and will not make separate judgments on each institution by itself.

A similar meeting was held in Buffalo. At this delegates were also selected who have interviewed the governor in behalf of the important humanitarian projects undertaken by the state in the last ten years which are now threatened.



SLEEPING IN THE LAVATORY AT BEDFORD

BEDFORD REFORMATORY NOW FACING A CRISIS

It was not much more than a year ago that, in connection with the founding of the Bureau of Social Hygiene, the New York magistrates began to make extensive use of Bedford Reformatory for women as a means of saving the young prostitute. And yet the reformatory is already facing a crisis through overcrowding.

The Committee on Criminal Courts of the New York Charity Organization Society has appealed to the public to write, urging an appropriation of $700,000 for this institution, to the leaders of the Legislature: James J. Frawley, chairman Finance Committee of the Senate; Alfred E. Smith, speaker of the Assembly; Robert F. Wagner, majority leader of the Senate; Aaron J. Levy, majority leader of the Assembly. This the committee believes to be a conservative and economical estimate of what will be needed to put up new cottages and other buildings to accommodate present inmates, and to provide for reasonable growth in the next few years.

The letter sent out by the committee reads in part as follows:

"Twelve years ago the state authorities established Bedford Reformatory to care for women

between the ages of sixteen and thirty, to try and save some, at least, of the young girls who were otherwise destined to a life of shame and degradation. What Bedford means to the community, the extraordinary work it is doing and has done is set forth in the enclosed article by Ida M. Tarbell.[1] That article is a challenge and a call to every man and woman in the state.

"Bedford Reformatory now faces a crisis.

"To-day there are 178 more girls there than the place will hold. They are sleeping on cots in the hallways, in parlors, in the gymnasium, in the lavatories, in the linen room, everywhere they can put a bed. Two girls in a room is the rule instead of the exception, notwithstanding the moral dangers of this.

"Chief Magistrate McAdoo and Chief Magistrate Kempner and their associates in New York and Brooklyn have been asked not to commit any more girls to the institution and the stream has stopped for a moment. But the magistrates are now at their wits' ends. What are they to do with first offenders? The young girl who is just embarking on this kind of career—shall they fine her and force her to work all the harder at her unlawful calling to earn the money with which to pay the fine? All are agreed that this is objectionable. Fines neither deter nor reform. Shall they send her then to the work-house to mingle in close confinement with the hardened offender, there to become embittered and to have a prostitute's life fastened more firmly than ever upon her? They must do this or discharge her to walk the streets again."

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE BATTLE LINES OF CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION

ANNA ROCHESTER
National Child Labor Committee

A majority of the twenty-nine state Legislatures which have been considering child labor laws this winter are still in session, so that many of the most important bills are still pending.

The campaign that is being waged against the most outspoken opposition is on in Pennsylvania, one of the two strongholds of glass manufacturers who employ boys under sixteen at night. With the single exception of West Virginia, where a bill based on the uniform child labor law was defeated this winter, night work for youths under sixteen is no longer allowed in the important glass-producing states. The uniform law was introduced in the present Pennsylvania Legislature by Representative Walnut and referred to the Committee on Labor and Industry. The committee reported it to the House with several amendments. The House rejected all but two of these. Now the uniform law, with the street-trading age limit reduced from twelve years to ten, and the age limit for breaker boys reduced from sixteen to fourteen, has reached its third reading in the House. If its friends can still protect it from the mutilations desired by the glass interests, the telegraph companies, the textile manufacturers and other opponents, Pennsylvania will be in a fair way to protect the 29,170 children employed in manufactories in that state.

The uniform law is also pending in Massachusetts, where it met no opposition in the hearing before the Committee on Social Welfare. Massachusetts has now a ten-hour day and the uniform law would bring her into line with Ohio, New York, Illinois, Mississippi and twelve other states that have the eight-hour day for all under sixteen.

But Massachusetts would lead the country in one respect if another bill that is likewise before the Committee on Social Welfare should pass. This provides for a five-hour day and compulsory school attendance for all workers under sixteen. If this is put into effect it will set a new standard for the Uniform Child Labor Law, which has been drafted by the National Child Labor Committee and endorsed by the American Bar Association. It is based on the best provisions of the best statutes now in force in the several states. Yet the National Child Labor Committee, fearing that two five-hour shifts for certain minors might tend to fasten on industry the ten-hour day for adults, would suggest that Massachusetts go one step further and fix a four-hour day for all under sixteen.

Connecticut, Ohio and Michigan will also advance beyond the standard of the uniform law if bills now pending are enacted. Michigan, it is true, is not trying to reduce the working day below nine hours, but merely to extend it to include canneries and four other occupations hitherto exempt. But Michigan and Ohio propose to raise the general age limit for employment from fourteen to fifteen, while Connecticut is considering sixteen years. Ohio intends also to increase the compulsory school attendance age from fourteen to fifteen for boys and sixteen for girls, and to require that boys of fifteen may not go to work unless they have completed the sixth, instead of the fifth grade, the requirement of the present Ohio law and of the uniform law.[1]

The Ohio bill includes, also, the street trading provisions of the uniform law. Special street trading bills are pending in Iowa, Nebraska, New York and also, we understand, in Michigan and Minnesota. Their outcome is doubtful because the average legislator seems to be blind to the bad results of street trading.

[1]Miss Tarbell's article which appeared in the *American Magazine* was reprinted as a pamphlet by the committee.

[1]The Ohio law has passed both Houses.

and cheerfully reflects the popular view that these "sturdy, little merchants" are all supporting widowed mothers and headed straight for the White House.

Many states are coming to recognize the needs of children over fourteen. This is evidenced not only by the wide discussion of vocational schools and the bills before the Legislatures of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Massachusetts, New York and other states, but also by the extension of child labor laws. Thus California, having proved the advantage of the eight-hour day for women and boys under sixteen, is considering the eight-hour limit for all under eighteen. Wisconsin is proposing to enlarge the list of hazardous occupations forbidden under eighteen and to provide for continued revision in the future by the Industrial Commission. The prohibition of night messenger service for those under twenty-one is included in the uniform law, as pending in Pennsylvania and passed in Delaware, but not in Massachusetts and Utah, where it has already been enacted. In Connecticut, a dangerous trades bill is pending and the bill for a general sixteen year limit includes an age restriction of twenty-one years for night messenger service. The same night messenger prohibition was included also in the bills based on the uniform law that went down to defeat this year in Utah, Idaho, Arkansas, Texas and West Virginia. Iowa, the only other state in which a night messenger law has been introduced this year, proposes an eighteen year limit.

Regulation of hours for all under sixteen was proposed in Nevada. In Tennessee, there is a bill now before the House Committee on Labor, providing for an eight-hour day under sixteen instead of the present sixty-hour week. A second measure adds mercantile establishments and the stage to the occupations prohibited to children under fourteen. Still another bill has passed in Tennessee, enlarging the Factory Inspection Department by adding a clerk and two deputy inspectors. The matter of enforcement has not received as wide consideration as it deserved. Industrial commissions are under discussion in many states, notably California and Ohio. In Iowa it is proposed to create within the Labor Department a bureau of women and children. Montana's educational bill would provide for truant officers to enforce the child labor law. In Wisconsin a bill is pending covering some details of the issuing of employment certificates and in Utah it was proposed to increase the number of inspectors. Most important in this connection is the bill in Missouri to extend the jurisdiction of the Factory Inspection Department over the entire state (it is now confined to cities of 10,000 or more inhabitants) and to abolish the present fee system.

Two of the bills recommended by the New York Factory Investigating Commission and directly affecting child labor are still pending: one to prohibit work in cannery sheds by children under fourteen, and the other to prohibit the manufacture in tenement houses of dolls or dolls' clothing and articles of food or of children's or infants' wearing apparel. Other bills recommended by the commission and already passed and signed standardize the issuing of employment certificates throughout the state; give the commissioner of labor power to inquire into the thoroughness of this work as carried on by local health officers; provide for physical examination in factories of children fourteen to sixteen. This last provision promises to be better than the present Massachusetts law because it permits the cancelling of employment certificates of children whom the examination reveals to be physically unfit for factory employment. Following the recommendation of the commission the present Legislature has also reorganized the Labor Department, established an industrial board, increased the number of inspectors and extended the jurisdiction of the Labor Department to cover the enforcement of the labor law concerning women and children in mercantile establishments in second class cities.

In a few states there is a fair record of progress in the legislation already enacted this year. New Jersey and Indiana have brought their educational requirements and provisions for working certificates up to the standard of the uniform law. Vermont has established a nine-hour day and Rhode Island a ten-hour day. The Vermont law also does away with the twelve year limit in certain occupations and substitutes the provision that

"A child under sixteen years of age, who has not completed the course of study prepared for the elementary schools shall not be employed in work connected with railroading, mining, manufacturing or quarrying, or be employed in a hotel or bowling alley, or in delivering messages, except during vacation and before and after school."

Along with this the law has an absolute fourteen year limit in "mill, factory, quarry or workshop, wherein are employed more than ten persons." In North Carolina a bill was introduced with a fourteen-year age limit and a prohibition of night work, but the age limit was immediately amended back to the old thirteen (twelve for apprentices), the increased appropriation for inspectors was cut out, and only the night work prohibition was passed. The Child Labor Commission in Delaware drafted a bill based on the uniform law, which, in a much mutilated form, was finally passed and signed.

Only a few backward states show no progress whatever. Georgia defeated a child labor bill last summer. Alabama has no legislative session

until January, 1915. The Florida Legislature has just convened and a bill based on the uniform law will be introduced. No child labor bill was introduced in South Carolina but a compulsory school attendance law was passed by the Legislature, only to be vetoed by the governor. The House passed it again over the governor's veto, but it failed in the Senate by two votes. In New Hampshire, the only northern state with a general twelve-year age limit, a bill providing for a fourteen-year limit has been unanimously reported to the House and there seems to be a good chance of passing it.

The National Child Labor Committee is watching the situation and helping where it can in these campaigns. It hopes to report many more victories when the legislative season closes. Meanwhile it appeals to the citizens in every state to aid in the enactment and the enforcement of these laws.

ETERNITY AND A PENNY PILL[1]

RICHARD C. CABOT, M. D.

There are some things (chocolate, for instance, or tracts, or paper drinking-cups) that can be shot out of a slot at you and hit their mark. You can apply them to their uses at once. It is the same with the facts fired at you through the window of his booth by the railroad information man. Such facts set you on your track or your train at once.

But when people ask for clear directions about the train to proficiency in violin playing, belief in immortality, or understanding of sex, they always miss their train. Sometimes they complain of the officials.

After a course of lectures on sex last year some workers of my acquaintance handed in written questions beginning "What should I say to a young girl who," etc., and were disappointed when no definite answer was forthcoming. To illustrate the difficulties of an answer let us ask a few parallel questions:

What paint shall I use for a Madonna?

What are the best words to use in a love sonnet?

What is the best book on being a millionaire?

What kind of bread makes you popular and handsome?

What liniment makes one's sympathies most supple?

People rush to lectures on "sex hygiene," sometimes for good reasons, sometimes to satisfy morbid curiosity, but often with a pathetic hunger for the bread of life. In the hope of forestalling such disappointments the lecturer should hang up before them a sign reading:

"This lecture will not solve fundamental problems. Seek ye the Lord."

[1] See Courses on Sex Hygiene. By Jane R. McCrady on page 124 of this issue.

THE DAWN OF A BETTER DAY

A MANUFACTURER SPEAKS

Dudley D. Sicher

[This poem was read at a banquet of the Cotton Garment Manufacturers of New York during the last week of March. The author, a representative manufacturer, dedicated these verses, reflecting a new attitude toward employes, to his business associates.—Ed.]

Do we purchase Toil at the lowest rate
As we buy our cloth and thread?
Do our workers labor long and late
For the price of their daily bread
In gloomy lofts where shadows frown,
In foul, unwholesome air,
Till Want and Weariness drag them down
Where—we neither know nor care?
If such things be, they must pass away
Ere we hail the Dawn of a Better Day.

Have they wrought us harm in the darker days,
Have they kept the whole truth hid?
Have they told false tales of our works and ways
And of wrongs that we never did?
Be not too wroth at the hiss of shame,
But pass old slanders by.
And cleanse your skirts of the taint of blame
Where e'er the blame may lie.
Old feuds, old sores be forgot for aye
In the hopeful Dawn of a Better Day.

Let us wipe the slate of the bitter score,
Let us turn the blotted page,
And grant that we owe our workers more
Than the dole of a "living wage."
They give us more than their time and skill
In the health and strength they spend;
And earn the right to the kindly will
And helpful hand of a friend.
We must give them more than the coin we pay
Ere we hail the Dawn of a Better Day.

So, here's a task that we may not shirk,
For the toiling thousands plead;
We must give them comfort while they work
And help in every need;
We must lend them strength if their souls are weak
And teach them how to live;
Nor let us, all too meanly seek
Return for all we give,
As we lift our eyes for the gladdening ray
Of the golden Dawn of a Better Day.

If this light that leads us shall not dim
They will see, ere the course is run,
That the worker's weal and the weal of him
Who owns the shops are one.
Then each shall have his rightful gain
Ungrudged—and great and small
Shall give their best of hand and brain
For the good of each and all,—
And we'll stand together, come what may,
In the brighter Dawn of a Better Day!

CIVICS

THE SCHOOL CENTER

HENRY S. CURTIS

Daniel said to Nebuchadnezzar: "Thou, O king, sawest and beheld a great image. His head was of fine gold, his breast and his arms were of silver, his belly and his thighs of brass, his legs of iron, and his feet part of iron and part of clay; and a stone smote the image upon the feet that were of iron and clay and brake them in pieces. Then was the iron, the clay, the brass, the silver, and the gold broken in pieces together."

This image might represent America nearly as well as the empire of "the great king." In the original democracies of Greece, the freemen met together in the market place to elect from their friends and acquaintances the officers who determined the policy of the state. The weakness of American democracy is that we have not organized this primitive element or *demos* on which it is supposed to stand.

Politics in our cities have been corrupt, because there have been no meetings of the community to discuss community affairs. The individual has often been reckless in conduct, because he was not acquainted in the section in which he lived and consequently had no social accountability to public opinion. Foreigners have come among us and drifted in and out of the city slum, bearing with them their racial antipathies to each other, and casting no anchor in the locality because at no time have they become a real part of a community. We have had no real city communities or neighborhoods but mere districts of people in no way organized or related to each other. The feet of the image are of miry clay.

In the country sections the situation is little better. In the days of the pioneer the early settlers were drawn together by common dangers and necessities into a brotherhood of the wilderness. They assisted in erecting the cabin of the newcomer. The women had their quiltings and their sewing circles. The whole community met together to marry the lovers and bury the dead. The school house was the common center, where Sabbath service, debate, music school, and "spell down" were held.

These conditions have undergone an almost complete change. The specializing of industry and new machinery have made farmers independent of their neighbors. The community uses of the public school have fallen away.

The last few years have seen a rapid advance in the principles of Democracy through the initiative, referendum and recall, the presidential primaries and other measures; but the fundamental unit is still unorganized. The feet are still of miry clay. To secure the democratic control of the community or district is the greatest problem of our democracy. This result demands that some agora, forum, or neighborhood center shall be restored to the people.

If a neighborhood center is to be created, the facilities which the neighborhood wishes to use must be brought together in a single place. Thus each facility offered will bring patrons, not to itself alone, but to all the others as well, as each department in a department store brings customers to all the others.

A comparatively few years have seen the cities take up as municipal undertakings the public playground, the municipal gymnasium and bath, the branch library, and a few scattered beginnings in the way of municipal camps. While the undertakings have been carried on by the city and maintained by public funds, they have not been really furnished to all the people of the city, as a rule, because they have not been accessible. They have not been placed in communities, they have no definite clientele. They cut across the lines of the existing organizations of the people. The individual has no direct touch with the community that brings him into relationship with them. All of these facilities are at least as much for the children as adults, but they lie off the beaten paths of child travel, and hence secure a minimum rather than a maximum use.

The only public institution that is central to each community is the school. If this can be made the nucleus around which the other institutions can be gathered, it may be possible to create again a modern forum or market place, that will serve the same purpose as did the old. The large undertakings already under way for the improvement of the school itself can not be carried to full success without certain radical improvements in the school equipment. The playground activity demands larger playgrounds. New York is now paying more than a thousand teachers every summer to direct the play in its school playgrounds; but there are very few schools that have an out-door playground fifty feet square. It is not the same thing to play in a school basement that it is to play in the open air. The school basement is always sunless, and the air is not the same as it is in the open. The French requirement for the lighting of school buildings is that there shall be no other building within a distance equal to the height of the school. The gymnastic work, to secure the best results, must be done in the open air, and not in a dusty gymnasium. In London, all the longer exercises are always taken out of doors in pleasant weather. Some foreign cities now require a certain minimum playground space for every child. In Munich this is twenty-five square feet.

In London it is thirty square feet. This would mean an acre of playground to 1,452 children, not a large amount surely, and much less than should be taken in the smaller cities. Throughout the middle states and the West, now generally a block for all new schools is given. In some cases the usefulness of the ground is being nearly destroyed by placing the school building in the center, but where the building is placed at the side or end, as it should be, this ground becomes available for many school and community uses.

This block should be shaded by trees. It should have grass plots, if they have to be renewed every year, as Jacob Riis says; and running around the outside should be a narrow space for children's gardens where all the nature work material of the school could be grown. In one corner should be a school menagerie and benches should be placed under the trees.

During the school hours, the school park should belong to the nurses and mothers with baby carriages. From three to ten p. m. every school day, and all through the summer, it should be the playground of the children and the social center of the adults. In the winter it should be flooded for skating.

Each of the new public schools of New York contains a gymnasium, but most of these are on the top floor, and they have to equip another in the basement for the play center. Each of the new public schools of Cincinnati contains a gymnasium and a swimming pool, and they are generally on the ground floor or near it. Most of the new high schools all over the country contain a gymnasium at least and many of them swimming pools as well. Wherever these facilities are furnished, they are generally used by the school during the day and by the public at night. A number of cities are now building municipal gymnasiums and baths also, but the children want to use the gymnasium and swimming pool during the day, the adults want to use them at night, it is not evident that two sets of gymnasiums and two sets of swimming pools are necessary.

Berlin has an interesting solution of this problem. They house the gymnasium in a separate building in the yard. In this way the noise and dust which is incident to exercise is removed from the school, and it is possible to give more freedom to the work. In most cases there is a swimming pool in the basement where the pupils are taught to swim. But the chief advantage of the gymnasium's being in a separate building is that it is thus more accessible to the general public as a free gymnasium and bath at night.

Our public schools and especially our summer schools are greatly hampered by the lack of library facilities. The school in order to be successful must create a love of reading. It cannot do this without books. At present only a small proportion of the children have access to a library, and this is often so distant that little use is made of it. The reason is simple, the library is a strange place and its methods are unknown. If the child, despite this, manifests his desire to draw out books, he must often first get some one to be his security for their return, and this is not always easy for a child of laboring or foreign parentage. But the school may safely trust the child because he is a member of the school and known and responsible, when it would not be at all safe for the public library to give out a book to him.

Parents often have little time or inclination to go to libraries for books, but depend on their children to provide them with reading. If the library were a separate building in the school yard or a part of the school, it would be no task for the children to take out and return as many books as might be desired in the home. The growing use of the school as a social center makes it increasingly important that the branch libraries should be connected with it.

The theaters of Greece and Rome were public institutions. Many of the best theaters of Europe are subsidized. The dramatic form of representation is the one that is nearest to having the experience itself. The socialized theater might undoubtedly be one of the greatest agencies for good that could come into any community.

In the past the expense of the public theater has been almost prohibitive; but to the credit of Thomas A. Edison be it said, that he has brought the theater to every man's door. Most of our new schools contain auditoriums, and the state and city departments of public instruction will soon be required by public sentiment to furnish educational moving-picture films to every school in the state. With the addition of the theater the success of the school social center and the organization of community life is assured.

Besides these activities which should be connected directly with the school itself, the school is the best dispenser of much of the social betterment work for children. If each school had a camp in the country, it could make a much wiser selection of children to be sent there than any fresh air agency can do. No one child would be sent out successively by half a dozen different societies to the exclusion of the needy but timid child. Judging from a very limited experience it has seemed to me that the children are not at their best in the fresh-air camps. Often away from all their friends and acquaintances they are homesick and feel that this trip and this camp have no connection with anything else in their lives.

Besides these great disadvantages under which the present system works, there are corresponding advantages that are lost to the school. With such a camp, there would be an opportunity for nature study and gardening of a most approved kind. Athletics might be so carried on as to supply many of the deficiencies of the school year, and boy scout patrols might be organized for all the older boys. But, best of all, the children would then learn to meet their teachers on a common footing and the tone of the school would be improved.

This extension of the school would not mean

for the most part a large increase in expense. Already we are getting the larger playgrounds, the auditoriums, the gymnasiums, and the swimming pools in our new school buildings, but the cities are also building municipal baths and gymnasiums, small playgrounds and public libraries in places that have no relationship to any definite community. It is mostly a question of locating without duplication the facilities that all need in places where they will be accessible to all.

We may well ask ourselves if the school is competent to take these new responsibilities. The answer must be that at present the average school principal is certainly not competent to take charge of these new phases, but that men usually rise soon to new responsibilities or new men appear to take their places. These new relations would bring the school and the home together, would make the school a part of life, would give the pupil a new set of associations with his teachers and with study, and in every way would redound to the good of the school and the community.

MUNICIPAL MUSIC IN NEW YORK

S. H. J. SIMPSON

When the sailing list of each trans-Atlantic liner reads like the program of an all-star gala performance, and conductors, managers and husbands also sail, the small number of the cultured rich who maintain music in New York go likewise; but the city is not left empty. Then the Metropolitan assumes a perpetually "morning after" appearance; so, too, Carnegie Hall; and the new piano emporium will serve as a sounding board for band concerts across the way. It is to these band concerts—not only in Bryant Park but in almost every park and pier in the city—that the reader's attention is called.

The vastness of New York is one of the greatest problems confronting any public spirited enterprise which aims to reach that vague, elusive faction—the people. The problem has been met and fairly solved musically by the three men who are responsible for the invasion by band and orchestra of the city's parks and piers during the past three years. It is refreshing to meet with a movement which aims toward no tangible education, moral rescue or poor relief, and to find a department of city government frankly idealistic enough to organize a force whose only aim is the presentation of pure beauty. And it is curiously paradoxical that this movement should have found its opportunity in New York. It is, nevertheless, true that New York supports more entirely free summer concerts than any city in the world.

At the beginning of the current municipal administration the park and pier music in its present form had its birth in the constitution of a committee consisting of the commissioner of docks and ferries, the commissioner of parks and a new official designated as the supervisor of municipal concerts in parks and recreation piers. To the latter is due the lion's share of credit for the ideals, the organization and the practical working of the system. To the commissioners New York owes a debt for their hearty co-operation, and in some cases, acute personal interest in the problems of the undertaking.

Not only has the size of the music loving population been considered in the multiplication of concerts, but the varieties of appreciation and the national tastes of different neighborhoods have been sympathetically studied by Arthur Farwell, the supervisor. The $100,000 annual municipal appropriation is divided between the piers and parks, and provides for a force of about seventy bands and conductors. Extraordinarily interesting is the study of neighborhoods in connection with the make-up of programs. This is especially so among the docks. The long pier at 129th Street, with an orchestra attracts what the directors are pleased to designate as the "high-brow" crowd. The call there is for the best in operatic and symphonic music—two and three movements of symphonies are often given. Selections from Italian opera flourish at East 112th Street, and at East 3d Street, all sorts of Jewish religious music is featured. The only crowd which has given any trouble assembles at West 50th Street, and the largest of the pier audiences is found at East 34th Street. Probably the most generally representative gathering is in the Mall in Central Park, where seven concerts a week are given in summer.

In thus cursorily reviewing the facts of the condition of municipal music in New York, only the smaller part of the situation is discussed. The movement, under its present impetus, is new, and to a large number of people, unknown. Although it is beyond the scope of the present article to consider, in any detail, the ethical aspect of the situation, it is, nevertheless, appropriate, in view of the comparative untriedness of the idea, to answer a few questions which are constantly brought up by those who are interested in the conditions. Even so, it seems that the time has come when the movement may fairly be said to have passed the experimental stage, if success may be measured by popular approval.

It merely remains to count the numbers in attendance. And here we find the answer to the most frequent query as to whether there is sufficient popular demand to warrant all this effort. The question has been submitted to a practical referendum. Do the people want it? Although no formal count of the audiences has been made it has been estimated that they ranged during the summer of 1912 from 5,000 to 15,000, in the various localities. In Central Park, every seat in the Mall and on the terrace was filled by

eight o'clock, and stragglers wandered about the outskirts or stood packed between the benches all the evening. Every spot within hearing was filled, and it was with some difficulty that aisles and passages were kept clear. Nor is this audience a casual one. Any number of habitues are noticeable, night after night, in the same seats—jealous of their places—and night after night, the same tired mothers are there, with the same baby carriages. And way off, along the driveways, or here and there in a street near the docks, a policeman, a laborer, a little street urchin, may sometimes be seen to stop, and, "lifting his head in the stillness," listen—and pass on.

This attention is, with few exceptions, so marked, that it, of itself, answers another question: Isn't all this stuff way above the heads of the people? Again, the size of the audiences furnishes the most convincing answer. Theoretically, of course, the best, being the most human, is above no one's head. But even practically, no genuine heterogeneous crowd of "street-bred people" trails from the dark places on a hot night—carrying or wheeling babies, with small children tugging at the skirts or clamoring to be carried—to hear such things as are above its head.

The aim of the movement is distinctly not educational in the instructive sense, nevertheless, the popular interest in the programs has been taken into consideration by Mr. Farwell in his brief and readable program notes. These give simple, important facts relating to composers and compositions, and do not attempt any detailed analization such as is familiar to the average concert goer. That these find a place, would seem to be proved by the knots of people who gather, program in hand, under the lights.

Underlying the entire discussion of this, or any purely artistic movement in this country, there is often the question: What's the use? Be the reason what it may—personal gratification, civic pride, or any other cause—it is almost safe to say that no citizen grudges New York its parks, its buildings, or its Metropolitan Museum of Art. Why, then, its public music, which gives innocent pleasure, rest, perhaps inspiration to thousands? I do not think that this is grudged to the people. Its neglect is simply a matter of ignorance, rather than indifference, on the part of many men who regularly pay their opera and symphony subscriptions, and who have watched with interest the efforts of several organizations to bring the price of concert tickets down to a low figure. But this philanthropic effort, does not strike at the root of the matter. Ideally, music should not have to be offered to the people as a commodity, nor as a charity, nor, primarily, as an education. It should stand, rather, as a temple, to which they may come gladly and freely, and from which they may go full hearted, carrying its best with them.

And this has been accomplished in the piers and parks in the last three years. But the winter contrast is striking. Fed up all summer, it seems hardly fair that men should be starved all winter. The daily papers printed, during September, 1912, a number of letters, asking why these concerts could not be continued through the winter months. There is but one solution of the problem—the municipal orchestra—and in this connection I cannot do better than quote a letter, written by Mr. Farwell to the New York *Times*, in response to the various suggestions and inquiries:

"The Central Park concerts have shown once for all that the greatest in music appeals directly and powerfully to the people when it is given to them under the right conditions. This is one of the mysteries of music—its power to short circuit an intellectual by a spiritual process. To wait until some hypothetical time in the future for the high gift of music to be given to the people is to be both dilatory and blind. The time for national initiative is at hand. What the people of New York really need is a permanent municipal symphony orchestra."

Popular response to good music is no longer an open question. The people have answered it conclusively, and popular demand has become a live issue.

THE HOUSING PROBLEM AS IT AFFECTS GIRLS

EDITH M. HADLEY
President Chelsea House Association, New York

In a factory town, at the lunch hour, have you ever consciously watched the girls and women thronging down the steps and filling the streets surrounding the workshop? Have you listened to their noisy laughter and scraps of conversation and tried to understand their meaning? In 1910, when the last Census of Manufactures was taken, there were over 1,500,000 of these girls and women—factory workers in the United States.

In a large city at nightfall, when the lamps are lighted, have you ever observed the streams of girls flowing into the streets from the offices and great department stores? Again at night, have you seen the girls, waiting at the entrances of tenement houses or on the street corners for their "gentleman friends" who are to emancipate them for a few hours from their cramped and dingy environment? And have you asked yourself where and how do these girls live?

During the last few years we have heard so much about the discontent of the labor classes, the "restlessness of the present age," that the phrases fall upon unheeding ears. But it takes no Socialist to understand that, if a family man's expenses are $900 a year, and that working to the best of his ability he can earn only $700 to $800, and that if it costs a girl $8 a week to live, and she cannot earn that much, there must be discontent. It is time for the community to regulate such conditions.

The question of wages is so closely allied to the question of housing that a study of the latter involves some knowledge of the former. Cost of living and standard of living must be approached from a fact basis. Studies by Robert Chapin, Scott Nearing and the commission appointed by Congress, indicate that a man, his

wife and three children under fourteen, cannot live and maintain efficiency under $900 a year on the Island of Manhattan. This is not excessive for Boston, Buffalo and Chicago. It is low for Pittsburgh, a little high for Philadelphia and Baltimore but a fair average for the great cities east of the Mississippi and north of Virginia.

Investigations prove that there is no great wage variation in different sections of the country. In the West wages run slightly higher than in the East, and in the larger cities than in the smaller towns. From a study of 1,391 New York girls working in department stores, the average earnings were reported as $4.69 a week during the first year and $5.28 the second. They increased in ten years, to $9.81, during which period many fall out of the ranks. Buyers and expert saleswomen remain. Their average earnings mount up to $13.33. In factories the average earnings of 3,421 girls showed $4.62 a week for the first year and $5.34 for the second year. After ten years' experience $8.48 was reached.

The majority of girls at work live at home and, in many cases, have to a certain extent the protection of their family. But an ever-increasing number of girls are entering the towns and cities, quite alone and friendless, to earn their way. These girls either keep house, live in families, in boarding and lodging houses or in the organized boarding house.

The girl who lives at home usually gives all her earnings to her parents—over 84 per cent working in shops, and 88 per cent in factories in New York city, and a similar number in Chicago and St. Louis. The parents rely upon their daughters for an exact amount of income, so that these girls are in no sense "pin money workers." The girl at home in New York city usually lives in a three to five-room flat in a tenement house, for which her father pays from $10 to $35 a month; and into these cramped quarters, one, two or more boarders are frequently taken.

In New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Boston, Minneapolis and St. Paul, it has been estimated that about 65,000 girls, exclusive of stenographers, office girls, nurses and teachers, are without homes, and entirely dependent upon themselves for support. Girls with a low standard of living can live more cheaply by keeping house than in any other manner. This means that several girls may join together and rent a two or three room flat. After their daily work of eight to twelve hours in factory, shop or office, is over, they have the housework to do —cleaning, cooking, washing and sewing. A girl keeping house or living in lodgings may save on food. She may go without breakfast or lunch, or have bread and coffee for breakfast, bread for lunch, and bread and soup or meat for dinner. She may spend part of her evenings making clothes, the material for which has been bought with money saved from food. "Oh, my, where would we get our clothes, if we bought meat every day?" asked one girl. How long do these girls remain economically efficient?

Fortunate is the girl who can find a home with some respectable tenement house family. Here she frequently underpays. Anna Friedman earns $7 a week as cashier; she lives with Mrs. McCoy in a $27 a month five-room flat. Anna pays $3 a week for her accommodation, but considers herself entirely self-supporting, as Mrs. McCoy's husband is absent part of the time, and Anna's companionship is of some value. She therefore has a margin of $4 for clothes, laundry, amusements, sickness and incidentals, and is well off. Girls living in this way usually associate with the family, using all rooms in common.

The most dangerous way in which a girl can live is in a lodging, or as they are called "a furnished-room house." Investigations of forty-three boarding and lodging houses in one city showed that five were known to be houses where fast women lived. "Not only were good and bad houses on the same block, but good and bad people were living in the same house."

Freda Lippeg earned $3 a week, and paid $1.50 for her room; her food, which she cooked in her room, cost her $1.46. Seeing how easy it is for them to get plenty to eat, pretty clothes to wear, and to have "good times," what temptations are placed in the way of such girls living in houses with immoral women!

While a landlady may prove to be a girl's best friend, giving her advice, trusting her when she is unable to pay, even lending her money, in the majority of cases the girl has no supervision at all. With the exception of houses in Philadelphia, where the wage earner's standard of respectability demands a sitting room, few houses can afford to have one. As a lodging house is now conducted, the landlady's net profits, are usually free rent of her room and $150 a year. As the parlor is the best paying room, the requirement of its use for lodgers would mean a readjustment of rents, either of house or rooms or both. So the girls receive their "gentlemen friends" in their bed rooms.

For the young girl in a strange city, earning moderate wages, no manner of life is so capable of approaching that of the home as the organized boarding house. Scattered throughout the United States are a number of these houses, but the supply can in no way approach the demand. In many cases they are too expensive for the poorer girl to afford. Few of these houses aim to be self-supporting, which fact also deters many self-respecting girls. The girl rightfully wishes to be a customer at the boarding house, and not an object of charity. The rules in some of the houses are stringent; sometimes a closing hour is enforced, and girls returning later may be locked out. Nearly all have an age and a wage limit. But they all have a drawing room which is usually furnished with a piano, books and magazines. Here girls may receive their friends, and have the companionship of other girls. Often warm friendships are formed.

The welfare of the house depends upon the "housemother," whose opportunities and responsibilities are unbounded. To be able to keep a clean, well ordered, full house; to supply an ample amount of nourishing food; to receive

enough board money from the girls to cover all expenses without dunning them is no easy matter. But in addition to this to be sympathetic without being partial or sentimental; to be able to care for the tired and sick; to be patient and firm with the hysterical; to understand and direct youth, gayety and extravagance; and to help the girls who are in danger of losing their "woman's heritage," a woman must give the best that is in her. The Eleanor Clubs in Chicago; the Ladies' Christian Union Houses, the Chelsea House Association and the Virginia in New York; and the Girl's Friendly Society Lodges in New York, Providence and Louisville are helping to solve the housing problem for girls. But why have we not hundreds, instead of tens of these houses? Can we not see the relationship between unsanitary, overcrowded homes, the loneliness and often vicious environment of many lodging houses, and human waste and immorality?

"If, because of our privileges, because of our warm, comfortable clean homes, we can not say to these girls 'My sister come home,' surely it rests upon us to do it in some community way. And if we can not get the housing of girls taken up as a community duty, then all the more must we struggle by private enterprise to find out the way. We must say there shall be no town throughout the length and breadth of our land where the girl can not find safe shelter, a place which if her need is great, she may call home."

JERSEY HOUSING ASSOCIATION FORMED

One hundred and seventy-four delegates attended the first state housing conference and participated in the organization of the New Jersey State Housing Association, in the City Hall, Newark, last month. The conference and the formal organization of the association had its inception at the National Housing Conference in Philadelphia in December, 1912, when William L. Kinkead of Paterson and Captain Charles J. Allen, secretary of the New Jersey Tenement House Department, gathered the New Jersey delegates and took the preliminary steps which led to the recent action.

Among the speakers were John A. Campbell, president of the State Board of Tenement House Supervision; former Governor Franklin Murphy, James Ford of Harvard University and his brother George B. Ford of Columbia University, who had just completed an exhaustive survey of Newark, for the City Plan Commission: Judge Harry V. Osborne, of the Essex County Court of Common Pleas; Richard Stevens, Miles W. Beemer and others.

The dominant note in the conference was the proposed amendment to the present Tenement House Law of New Jersey which Professor George B. Ford referred to as "the best law of its kind in America when enacted in 1904 and not far behind the best laws of its kind at this time." The delegates were agreed that the present law should be amended to include two family houses, many of which it was agreed are in worse condition than the tenement houses.

Another proposed amendment which practically all the delegates favored was to require that all tenement houses three stories high be equipped with fire escapes. The law at present reads that outside iron fire escapes be provided on all non-fireproof tenement houses more than three stories in height. It was stated that the enactment of the proposed amendments would necessitate a considerable increase in the staff of the Tenement House Department and the delegates pledged themselves to use every effort to secure a larger appropriation for additional inspectors and clerks.

In his address Col. Franklin J. Murphy, Jr., called attention to the fact that the city of New York, with 104,000 tenement houses, spends $800,000 annually for the tenement house department, or $7.69 per house per year, while in the last fiscal year New Jersey allowed $51,000 for the tenement department, with 71,000 houses, or seventy-one cents per house per year.

The purposes of the association as set forth in the constitution adopted by the conference are as follows:

1. To improve housing conditions in every practical way.

2. To bring to the attention of each community the importance of right housing conditions and the consequence of bad conditions.

3. To study in various cities and towns the causes of congestion of population and bad housing conditions and the methods by which such conditions may best be remedied.

4. To aid all local housing committees by advice and direction and to encourage the formation of such committees where they do not at present exist.

5. To act as a clearing house of information for such agencies and committees and to furnish advice and suggestions to those interested in housing reform and generally to promote popular interest in the subject.

6. To aid in the enactment and enforcement of laws that will
   a—Encourage the erection of proper types of dwellings;
   b—Secure their proper maintenance and management;
   c—Prevent the erection of unfit buildings;
   d—Bring about a reasonable and practical improvement of the older buildings;
   e—Secure reasonable, scientific and economical building laws.

7. To aid in defending such laws when enacted and in correcting and amending them from time to time to suit changing conditions.

IOWA'S REMOVAL LAW

Iowa claims to have in her "removal law" the best recall of all. This law makes it the duty of the attorney general, or, if he fails, of the governor or any six citizens, to take steps in the courts for the summary removal of any officer of a town, city or county who neglects to enforce any law.

EDUCATION

THE BEGINNINGS OF A NEW SCIENCE

If a man about town should drop into the Harvard psychological laboratory and see an operator in rough clothes slowly turning a small crank and calling off disconnected letters of the alphabet while a changing panorama of squares and digits passed by beneath a glass plate, he might think that this was the university's day off and that here was a new game for the amusement of the employes. But if he should ask "What's the ante?" and want to sit in, he would soon discover his mistake. He would learn that he was looking at one of the few experiments yet contrived for picking the right man for the right job. He might even be told that this was one of the wee beginnings of a new science which, by systematically placing the psychological experiment at the service of education and industry, may some day prevent the tragic waste of misfit starts in life and go far toward solving the problem of vocational guidance for the schools. The observer would probably be warned, however, against construing what he saw as any endorsement of the social desirability of guiding children into this vocation or that.

The device of the changing panorama is designed to test a man's fitness to be a motorman on an electric street car. Worked out under the direction of Prof. Hugo Munsterberg,[1] it is calculated to discover powers of attention, discrimination and adjustment with respect to rapidly moving objects, some going at different rates of speed parallel to the line of vision, others crossing it from side to side. While Professor Munsterberg undertook to transplant the activity of the motorman into laboratory processes, he did not try to reproduce a miniature of the exact conditions under which the motorman works. As the crank is turned, a series of cards slips by under a glass plate, each card having two heavy lines down its center to represent a street car track. Along the sides of this track, between it and the curbstone at the edge of the card, are scattered various digits which have arbitrarily fixed movements, like the pieces on a chess board, though not so complex. The job of the person being tested is to pick out, as the cards slip by, the precise points on the track which are threatened by the moveable digits in the street. Some of these numbers represent pedestrians, some horses and some automobiles.

Tried motormen, says Professor Munsterberg, agree that they really pass through this experiment with the feeling they have on the car. Though the test is not regarded as yet perfected, its results are thought to be fairly satisfactory when compared with actual efficiency in service. Efficiency, in this connection, means chiefly ability to avoid accidents. Some electric railroad companies have as many as 50,000 accident indemnity cases per year which involve an expense amounting in some instances to 13 per cent of the annual gross earnings. Professor Munsterberg believes that it may be quite advantageous later on to subject applicants for the position of motorman to tests based on the principle involved in the one here described. Even in this inadequate form, he thinks, the test would be sufficient to exclude perhaps one-fourth of those who are nowadays accepted for service.

In a public address recently Leonard P. Ayres, director of the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation, brought together all the psychological tests in vocational guidance which, so far as he has been able to discover, are being used in any completed form. Besides the simpler tests for vision, hearing and color discrimination to which pilots, ship officers and railroad employes are usually subjected, there are only three, he said, which have for their object the more difficult task of selecting from among all the applicants those best fitted to perform the work. One of these is Professor Munsterberg's test for motormen.

Another is a test used in a bicycle ball factory, where girls inspect the small polished steel balls for flaws by rolling them over and over on one hand with the fingers of the other and examining them under a strong light. S. E. Thompson, the employer, soon recognized that the quality most necessary in the girls, besides endurance and industry, was a quick power of perception accompanied by quick responsive action. He therefore subjected his girls to the laboratory test which measures in thousandths of a second the time needed to react on an impression with the quickest possible movement. The final outcome was that thirty-five girls did the work formerly done by 120; the accuracy of the work was increased by 66 per cent; the wages of the girls were doubled; the working day decreased from 10½ to 8½ hours; and the profits of the factory were increased.

The third example which Mr. Ayres found of the application of psychological tests to the selection of employes in industry is a series of tests

[1] Psychology and Industrial Efficiency, by Hugo Munsterberg. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 320 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

for telephone operators. These also were conducted by Professor Munsterberg at Harvard. The American Telephone and Telegraph Company employs 23,000 operators. Applicants for positions are given a preliminary training of three months in the company's schools. During this time they receive salaries. So many eventually prove unfitted for the work that more than a third leave within six months. Not only does this involve financial loss to the company but it is a heavy handicap to young girls who are trying to fit successfully into the industrial life of the day.

The object of the tests was to develop methods whereby the unfit girls could be eliminated before instead of after entering the service. The girls were examined with reference to memory, attention, general intelligence, space perception, rapidity of movement, accuracy of movement, and association. The results showed in general that those who came out best in the tests were most efficient in practical service, while those who stood at the foot of the list failed later and left the company's employ.

"It seems fair to conclude," says Mr. Ayres, "that when such tests are perfected, short examinations of a few minutes each will prevent thousands of applicants from wasting months of study and training in preparing for a vocation in which they cannot succeed."

While these three tests have been used only on actual applicants for positions, a fourth test has been applied to beginning students in stenography and typewriting to determine which ones possess the abilities likely to bring success. This has been worked out under the direction of Prof. James E. Lough of New York University and consists chiefly of putting the subject through slight movements with a view to measuring his ability in habit formation.

In addition to actual tests Mr. Ayres found that experimentation is going on with regard to other occupations. Munsterberg is experimenting on tests for marine officers. Ricker of Harvard has constructed apparatus for testing chauffeurs. Whipple of Cornell has done some work with tests for motormen. Seashore of Iowa has published a careful study of tests of the ability of a singer. So far as is known, no work in this field is being done in Europe.

By the extension and amplification of such means as these Professor Munsterberg deems it not at all unlikely that we may some day have a real science of vocational guidance. That there is need for a far more adequate way of linking up young people to their work in life he has no doubt. "Society relies instinctively," he says, "on the hope that the natural wishes and interests will push every one to the place for which his dispositions, talents and psychophysical gifts prepare him." But this confidence he regards as unfounded. To quote further:

"In the first place, young people know very little about themselves and their abilities. When the day comes on which they discover their real strong points and their weaknesses, it is often too late. They have usually been drawn into the current of a particular vocation, and have given too much energy to the preparation for a specific achievement to change the whole life-plan once more. The entire scheme of education gives to the individual little chance to find himself. A mere interest for one or another subject is influenced by many accidental circumstances, by the personality of the teacher or the methods of instruction, by suggestions of the surroundings and by home traditions, and accordingly even such a preference gives rather a slight final indication of the individual qualities."

On the other hand, Professor Munsterberg recognizes that a valuable start toward enabling young people to make wiser selection of their work has been made by the agencies for vocational guidance already existing in Boston and elsewhere. But he says that most counselors engaged in studying the qualities of boys and girls about to enter industry seem to "feel instinctively that the core of the whole matter lies in the psychological examination, " and that for this they must wait until the laboratories can furnish them with really reliable means and schemes. They may then, he thinks, become the appropriate agencies for applying the methods of psychology. He instances the long list of questions which the late Professor Parsons, usually referred to as the father of vocational guidance, employed with the idea of finding out something definite about the mental traits of young people. Replies to questions of this kind says Professor Munsterberg,

"can be of psychological value only when the questioner knows beforehand the mind of the youth, and can accordingly judge with what degree of understanding, sincerity, and ability the circular blanks have been filled out. But as the questions are put for the very purpose of revealing the personality, the entire effort tends to move in a circle."

Of course Professor Munsterberg does not undertake to pass judgment on the social desirability of vocational guidance of any sort. That, he declares, is not the business of the psychologist. His concern is with means solely, not with ends. If the laboratory develops a way of telling who are fit for stenography and who are not, that does not mean that all the fit should be urged to become stenographers. The vocation may be overcrowded. Again, if a test be devised for discovering what qualities are essential to the successful operative in a particular industry, it does not follow that all who want to enter that industry and have the needed qualities should be advised to do so. Conditions as to health, wages, hours, and a score of other things may suggest that another trade ought to be chosen. So that vocational guidance, if it shall ever be a closed and perfected system, will yet demand the supplementary services of the labor investigator, the sanitary expert, the industrial technician and whoever else can contribute to any phase of the problem of why this calling should be followed instead of that.

THE WINTER'S FIGHT OVER VOCATIONAL TRAINING

The past winter has been perhaps the stormiest season which the incipient movement for vocational education has had to weather in this country. Before state legislatures and national Congress the battle has been fought. In Washington, D. C. the Page and Lever bills granting federal aid to industrial education in the states inflicted mutual slaughter on each other and died in conference. In Illinois a fight has waged over two measures, one providing for the "dual" system of administration and the other for the "unit," and the probability is that neither will pass at this session.

But in spite of these casualties the war has not been without its fruits. Indiana enacted practically without opposition what is perhaps the most comprehensive statute on this subject yet passed. The Indiana Commission on Industrial and Agricultural Education, appointed in 1911, published during the closing days of 1912 a vigorous report on the whole subject of vocational training for youth. The reasons why boys and girls need such training were put by the commission as follows:

"The larger part of the boys and girls leave school before the completion of the elementary course, unprepared in anything which will aid them in their immediate problem of earning a living with their hands. From statistics available in other states it is safe to estimate that there are fully 25,000 boys and girls in this state between fourteen and sixteen who have not secured adequate preparation for life work in the schools and who are now working in "dead end" or "blind alley" jobs, or in other words, jobs which hold no promise of future competence or advancement. The investigations in Massachusetts and New York city show that not more than one out of five of the pupils leaving school at fourteen do so because it is necessary to help make a living. The conditions are doubtless even better in Indiana. The remainder, four out of five, leave school for a variety of reasons, chief among which is the feeling among pupils and parents that the schools do not offer the kind of instruction which they need for the work they expect to do and which would justify them in foregoing wage earning for a time in order to get it."

The commission found no organized effort in Indiana to put pupils in touch with the opportunities for life work. The pupils are in the main, it declares, left to their own resources in choosing a vocation except where enterprising teachers have been able to give personal advice. It believes that every city and town should survey the vocational opportunities within its borders and place the information, together with all information available on vocational work, within reach of the pupil at the proper age.

Contrary to the claims of some of those who are administering industrial education in other states the commission found that the largest problem in carrying out such training is the lack of teachers competent to do the work. "If the vocational subjects are to find and hold the place that is due them in the common schools of the state," says the commission, "the teachers must be educated to handle them more effectively than they have been able to handle such subjects in the past."

The Indiana statute, which was signed by the governor in March, established a state system of vocational education and gave state aid for training in industries, agriculture and domestic science, through all-day, part-time, continuation and evening schools. This work is to be carried on either in separate schools or in special departments of regular high schools. In every case, the local control is vested in the regular board of education for the community and the laws are to be administered as a whole by the State Board of Education. The state board has been reorganized so that seven of its members must be professioal educators. The remaining five may be laymen. Two of the laymen must be citizens of prominence and three of them shall be actively interested in vocational education. One of these last three shall be a representative of employes and one of employers. Attendance upon day or part-time classes is restricted to persons over fourteen and under twenty-five years of age; and upon evening classes to persons over seventeen years of age. The state superintendent of public instruction is made the executive officer and a deputy superintendent is to be placed under him in charge of industrial and domestic science education. The agricultural work is carried on by another deputy.

Local communities are required to supply the plant and equipment for carrying on the work. When this has been approved by the State Board of Education, the community is to be reimbursed out of the state treasury to the amount of two-thirds the salary of each teacher giving instruction either in vocational or technical subjects.

In order to secure the benefit of the knowledge and co-operation of the layman, local school authorities are required to appoint, subject to the approval of the State Board of Education, advisory committees composed of members representing local trades and industries, whose duty it shall be to counsel with the board and other officials in the conduct of the affairs of the school.

In both Pennsylvania and New Jersey bills creating state systems of vocational education are likely to pass soon. The Pennsylvania measure has already gone through the House by a vote of 182 to 2. This latter bill is very similar to the Indiana act. The State Board of Education administers the act, with the state superintendent of public instruction as the executive officer.

The regular board of education is in charge of the local schools. They are required to appoint advisory committees composed of members

representing local trades, industries and occupations, to aid them in making the work practical and effective.

In general the New Jersey measure is similar to those of Indiana and Pennsylvania. There also the work is to be administered by the State Board of Education and local boards of education, and may be carried on either in approved schools or departments; these departments must consist of separate courses, pupils and teachers. Advisory committees are not provided for in the act, but it is expected that these will be required by the board of education under authority conferred by previous legislation.

In Connecticut and New York, which have already made some provision for vocational education, laws are pending which considerably extend the scope of the systems. In Washington a measure establishing a "dual" system of vocational schools is regarded as unlikely of passage. In Massachusetts a pending amendment to a former act authorizes school committees, with the approval of the State Board of Education, to require every child between fourteen and sixteen years of age who is regularly employed not less than six hours a day, to attend school at the rate of not less than four hours per week, during the school year. Another measure which will probably become a law raises the compulsory school age from fourteen to fifteen, for all children, and for illiterates from sixteen to seventeen. Attendance on a vocational school of children fourteen years of age is accepted as school attendance.

FROM SCHOOL TO JOB IN PHILADELPHIA

A twentieth century verification of the scriptural truth that "to him who hath shall be given" is put forward by the Public Education Association of Philadelphia, which recently completed a study of the children in that city who leave school at fourteen or fifteen to go to work.

There are in the Philadelphia public high schools, says a pamphlet issued by James S. Hiatt, secretary of the association, 13,039 boys and girls. At the same time there is a like number, 13,740, who have been allowed to drop out of school at fourteen and to fight their industrial battle alone. For the former group, who are really more able to take care of themselves, the city pays $1,532,000 a year for further training in citizenship and preparation for life. For the latter group it pays nothing.

"Is this a square deal?" asks the association. "Is it economy on the part of the city to permit these child workers to go out untrained into industry, to give their lives before they are mature and then to become a burden upon the community?"

With regard to these 13,740 between the ages of fourteen and sixteen whom the school census of June, 1912, found to be at work, the study undertook to answer two questions: first, are the occupations in which the boys and girls are employed of such a nature that they will train for a competence in later life? Second, is the immediate wage received of sufficient importance to counterbalance the tremendous loss of power in those who face mature life unprepared? As a continuation of this investigation the Compulsory Education Bureau has followed up since September of last year and will continue to do so, every child who leaves school to go to work. The kind of job taken, the exact nature of the work done, and the wage received will be learned. About 1,700 labor certificates are issued in Philadelphia every month.

At the outset it was discovered that the problem is not one of the immigrant child chiefly. The percentage of American parentage was 50.2; of foreign parentage, 48.1; of Negro parentage, 1.7. Nor is it a problem of boys chiefly, for 6,849, or 49.85 per cent of the total, were girls.

THE SURVEY has already told how the Vocational Guidance Survey of New York followed a group of boys and girls from the day they received their labor certificates through all the different jobs which they held during the next four or five months. The study emphasized the hit-or-miss jumping from one line of work to another which untrained youths are sure to resort to, acquiring no training and achieving no advance. The Philadelphia study furnishes a cross section of the positions held by this much larger group at a given moment. Forty-three per cent of both boys and girls were in the factory, where, says the report,

"the positions are largely mechanical and require but short time in learning, little responsibility, and great specialization of processes. These positions offer an initial wage which is alluringly high, but hold out little incentive for growth and but slightly advanced wages for the experienced operative."

Twenty-nine per cent were in the store and the office, "where a few may advance to higher places, but it is evident that a majority must hold low-grade positions which require little preparation or skill."

A comparison of the employments of both sexes showed that there is no kind of work which both boys and girls will not do. While boys predominate in the store, the office, in messenger service, street trades and skilled trades, girls have the largest number in the factory, in service and in house work. Yet twenty-five girls were exposed to the dangers of street trades and 118 boys were taken out of school to do house work in their own homes without pay. The diagram on the next page shows the percentages and numbers of the total engaged in the various lines of work, and the relative proportion of boys and girls in each.

When it came to tabulating wages the surprising discovery was made that with respect to 35.3 per cent of the total either no wage was received or the amount of it was entirely un-

known to the family. Twenty-two per cent received between $2 and $4 a week, and 37 per cent between $4 and $6. Smaller wage divisions are shown here:

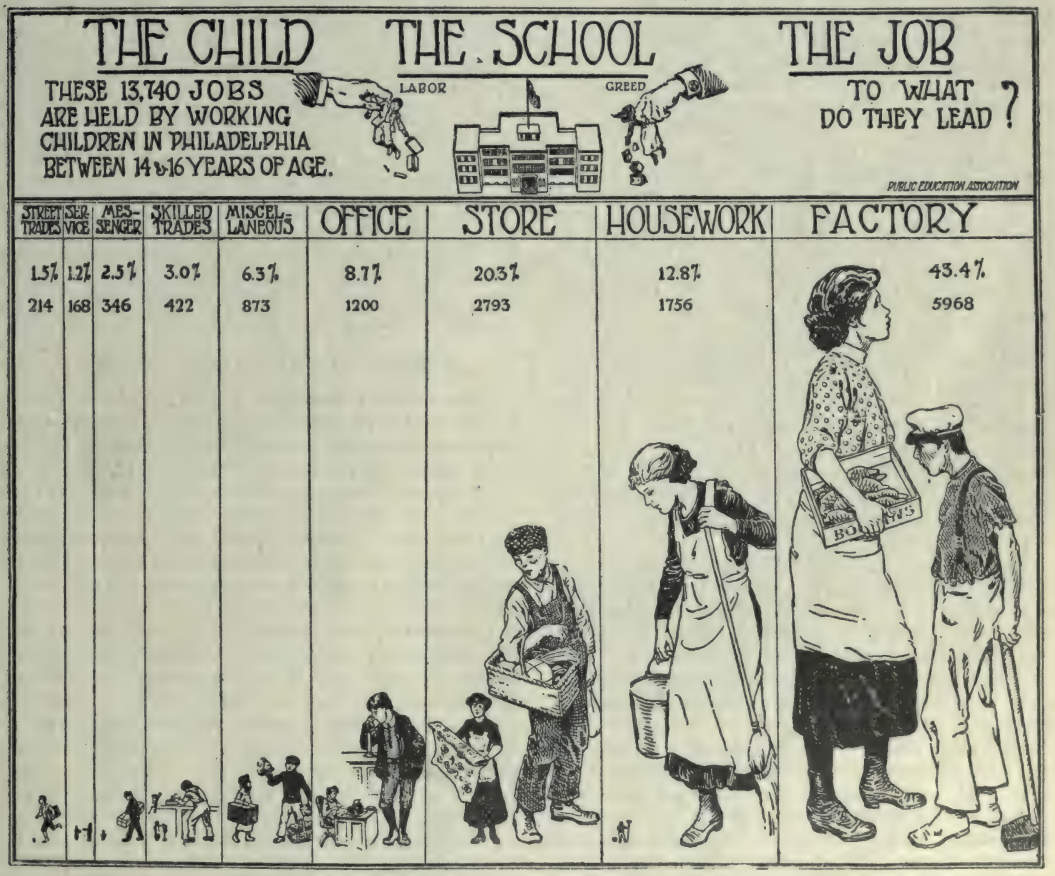
Wages	Male		Female	
	Number	*Per cent*	*Number*	*Per cent*
Unknown or zero	1,961	28.4	2,893	42.2
Under $2	19	.3	22	.3
$2 to $2.50	59	.8	75	1.0
$2.50 to $3	72	1.0	113	1.6
$3 to $3.50	728	10.5	581	8.4
$3.50 to $4	806	11.6	624	9.1
$4 to $4.50	1,338	19.4	1,130	16.1
$4.50 to $5	610	8.8	525	7.6
$5 to $6	874	12.6	600	8.7
$6 and over	424	6.1	286	4.1
Total	6,891	100.0	6,849	100.0

Split up by sexes these figures show that 42.2 per cent of the girls were found in the group whose wages were unknown or zero, while only 28.4 per cent of the boys were in that group. For both boys and girls the largest number of those whose wages is known is found in the group which receive $4.00 to $4.50. The detailed comparison is here given:

Wages	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Unknown or zero	4,854	35.3
Under $2	42	.3
$2 to $2.50	134	.9
$2.50 to $3.00	185	1.3
$3 to $3.50	1,308	9.5
$3.50 to $4	1,430	10.4
$4 to $4.50	2,468	17.8
$4.50 to $5	1,135	8.2
$5 to $6	1,474	10.7
$6 and over	710	5.1
Total	13,740	100.0

The average wage for all boys who receive between $2 and $6 is $4.26; that for girls $4.19, the large number of girls who receive a comparatively high wage in factories bringing their average up.

The average increase, between fourteen and fifteen years of age, of the workers noted is thirty-seven cents. It is much less in some of the industries. "Does such a slight return and such a meager raise," asks the report, "pay for all the loss of mature power, as well as for that efficiency which might be gained by longer continuing in the proper kind of training?"



WHERE THE YOUNGSTERS WORK IN PHILADELPHIA

The figures and percentages refer to parts of the whole 13,740 boys and girls found in the lines of work named. The drawings show roughly the ratio of boys to girls in each line. "Housework" means housework in own home.

The following conclusions are drawn by the association as a result of its study:

"1. That the problem of the working child is not an immigrant problem, since over 50 per cent of those reported as at work are of the second generation of American birth.

"2. That this is not the problem of the boy alone, since over 49 per cent of the workers are girls.

"3. That the vast majority of children who leave school at fourteen to enter industry go into those kinds of employment which offer a large initial wage for simple mechanical processes, but which hold out little or no opportunity for improvement and no competence at maturity.

"4. That wages received are so low as to force a parasitic life.

"5. That but slight advancement is offered the fifteen-year-old over the fourteen-year-old child worker."

ILLITERACY AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

Hardly are we given time to grasp the Census Bureau's new facts about illiteracy in the United States before the Bureau of Education gives us its own interpretation of some of them. Illiteracy, as viewed by the Census Bureau, means inability to write on the part of those ten years old and over. As a nation the number of illiterates among us decreased from 10.7 per cent of the population in 1900 to 7.7 per cent in 1910. In spite of this decrease a bulletin by A. C. Monahan of the Bureau of Education refers to the "relatively high rate of illiteracy" in the country and says that this rate is due not to immigration but to the lack of educational opportunities in rural districts. The percentage of rural illiteracy is twice that of urban, although approximately three-fourths of the immigrants are in the cities. Still more significant is a comparison between children born in this country of foreign parents with those born of native parents. Illiteracy among the latter is more than three times as great as that among the former, "largely," says Mr. Monahan, "on account of the lack of opportunities for education in rural America."

The decrease in national illiteracy during the decade 1900-1910 was not only relative but absolute, despite the growth of the population. In 1900 the figure was 6,180,069. In 1910 it was 5,516,163. But while illiteracy among the total population was decreasing, that among the foreign born whites remained almost stationary. In 1900 the percentage was 12.9, in 1910 12.7. Among the whites born in this country the decrease during the decade was from 4.6 to 3 per cent. Illiteracy among the Negroes showed a decrease of almost one-third. In 1900 44.5 of the whole Negro population could not write; in 1910 the percentage was 30.4.

The distribution of illiteracy between the sexes was very even. Among males it amounted to 7.6 of the total, among females to 7.8. There was less of it among white females, however, than among white males, the percentage for the former being 4.9, for the latter 5. White girls and women born outside of this country show more illiteracy than men and boys of the same class, but those born in the United States show less than native males, as follows:

Whites	*Male*	*Female*
Foreign born.....	11.8	13.9
Native	3.1	2.9

The New England and the Middle Atlantic groups of states changed places in the illiteracy column between 1900 and 1910. At the former period New England was fifth and the Middle Atlantic states, comprising New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, fourth, but by 1910 New England had displaced the latter group. In both years the West North Central, comprising Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas, showed the least illiteracy of any of the geographical divisions, while the East South Central, comprising Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi, had the worst record.

The section known as the West almost caught up with the North during the decade, the respective percentages being 4.4 and 4.3.

Mr. Monahan's bulletin goes briefly into the whole rural school problem. The author found 226,000 one-teacher schoolhouses in the United States, of which 5,000 are log buildings still in active use. Although more than 60 per cent of the children in the United States are enrolled in country schools, the rural aggregate attendance is only 51 per cent.

With the help of recent appropriations made by Congress the Bureau of Education has undertaken to make a careful study of the needs of the rural schools, and the bulletin just issued is one of the first definite results of the work.

WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

How women have advanced from the educational ranks to the highest administrative positions in the public schools is revealed in figures just compiled by the United States Bureau of Education. Four states, Colorado, Idaho, Washington, and Wyoming, have women at the head of their state school systems, and there are now 495 women county superintendents in the United States, nearly double the number of ten years ago.

In some states women appear to have almost a monopoly of the higher positions in the public-school system. In Wyoming, besides a woman state superintendent and deputy superintendent, all but one of the fourteen counties are directed educationally by women. In Montana, where there are thirty counties, only one man is reported as holding the position of county superintendent.

The increase in the number of women county superintendents is most conspicuous in the West, but is not confined to that section. New York reports forty-two women "district superintendents," as against twelve "school commissioners" in 1900.

MOTHERHOOD AND TEACHING

Motherhood and teaching collided in New York three weeks ago when the Board of Education refused to grant a year's leave of absence without pay to Katherine C. Edgell, a high school teacher, who wanted to bear and rear a child. The board recorded its opposition by a vote of thirty-two to five. By a vote of twenty-eight to nine it shut off discussion because "too much had been published about this affair already."

Mrs. Edgell is still on the payroll of the schools, although she has not been in attendance since February first. Inasmuch as it is the custom of the board to punish unexcused absence by dismissal for neglect of duty, it seems to have no alternative but to proceed to that extremity against Mrs. Edgell. This is just what was done recently in the case of Lily R. Weeks, who was absent some time on account of the birth of a child, though the board did not know the nature of her illness. Mrs. Weeks appealed her case to the state commissioner of education, before whom it is now pending.

This demand of Mrs. Edgell that she be allowed to continue in her profession though a mother is, of course, only a symptom of the world-wide movement of women into the gainful occupations of life. It reveals how acute has grown the feeling on this subject among some of the women teachers of New York. Heretofore any married woman teacher who wanted leave of absence to bear a child carefully concealed the nature of her illness from the Board of Education. At length, one woman stood out and asked that, as a matter of right, her position be kept open for her while she brought a new life into the world. Instantly scores of her colleagues came to her defense. Women lawyers passed resolutions in sympathy with her and physicians publicly approved her stand.

The case of Mrs. Edgell is not the first time that the New York Board of Education has expressed its opinion with regard to married women teachers. Until 1904 a by-law of the board provided that the marriage of a woman teacher should automatically cause her instant dismissal without further action. But the Court of Appeals decided in 1903 that a teacher could not be dismissed for marrying and the by-law was changed. Since then the board has apparently not been altogether friendly toward the married women in its employ. During the discussion that has attended the Edgell case it has been repeatedly asserted by principals and teachers that there are hundreds of women in the schools who have kept their marriages secret because of the well-known policy of the board to make it almost impossible for married women to secure promotion or increase in salary.

A physician who is a member of the school board and a member of the board of superintendents are authorities for the sweeping statement, that if this ruling is adhered to the board of education is quite likely to be responsible for 300 cases of deliberate abortion among the public school teachers of New York every year.

When the board, by its vote of twenty-eight to nine, shut off discussion because "too much has been published about this affair already," it did what was destined to provoke hotter and longer discussion than ever. But underlying that there is a very general feeling that this subject presents many phases which should be given profound consideration, not a snap verdict. Would the distraction of a baby interfere with class room work, or the absence of the mother and teacher handicap her own children; or would having children of her own add something to a woman's educative powers? What effect would the widespread continuance of married women in the schools have on men's salaries? What is there in the practice and experience of other cities to help New York in deciding so big a question as the interaction of motherhood and teaching?

What protection should be thrown around the prospective mother is a question that is only beginning to be raised among professional and salaried classes. Up to the present nearly all women in these groups have resigned their positions, if not at marriage then at childbirth. No general policy of dealing with them seems to have been adopted either by public or private employers.

With women in the wage-earning class the case is different. In at least twenty countries or parts of countries in Europe legal protection is thrown around the working woman who bears a child. In Berne, Switzerland, all women "employed for purposes of gain" are prohibited from working for from four to eight weeks after confinement. In Ticino, Italy, no woman can work for six months after confinement. The conception underlying this legislation is not that mothers are not efficient workers, but that earning a livelihood must be made easier for those who want also to fulfill the other functions of womanhood. In England the period of prohibition is four weeks after, and in Germany six weeks. In Servia no woman can work for six weeks before nor six weeks after. In several of these places the position must be kept open for the woman while she is bearing her child.

Examples of such protection nearer at home are not lacking. Both Massachusetts and New York have laws declaring that specified periods of absence shall be allowed to women in industrial establishments at time of confinement.

A notable exception to the rule that no such policy has been adopted toward salaried or professional women is to be had in France. There boards of education are not permitted to refuse leave of absence to teachers who want to bear children. Three years ago the government made imperative the granting of at least two months' vacation, together with full treatment, to teachers expecting confinement. And in the following year this protection was extended to the female staff of the department of posts, telegraphs and telephones.

INDUSTRY

NATION WIDE MOVEMENT FOR INDUSTRIAL SAFETY

FERDINAND C. SCHWEDTMAN

CHAIRMAN COMMITTEE ON ACCIDENT PREVENTION AND WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS

There was a time when most employers and employes thought that they were the only factors to be considered in the adjustment of industrial conditions. Enlightened employers and employes long ago learned that in the final analysis the public is the arbiter as to whether conditions are just or unjust, right or wrong.

The National Association of Manufacturers, in its work for compensation and prevention of industrial accidents, started out with the theory that the first essential requirement to the furtherance of equitable conditions is a knowledge of the facts—all the facts, for half knowledge leads to wrong conclusions. To meet this requirement we made a thorough study of foreign compensation systems. The next requirement, it was felt, was prompt action in line with sound conclusions.

Voluntary systems of prevention and relief have been established by numerous American employers which compare favorably with European conditions, but on the whole the United States is far behind other civilized nations in these matters. Employers are not more nor less to blame for this condition than employes, legislators or the public. We each and all need education; we need to get in tune with the times.

For many years much time and attention at the board meetings of the National Association of Manufacturers have been given to the consideration of accident prevention and relief plans. In common with other humane agencies, the association has felt that the economic loss due to accidents, enormous as it is, is as nothing compared with humane considerations. It has taken the stand further that prevention is even more important than compensation.

Three years ago the conclusion was reached that the time had passed when attention to these problems in the abstract was to any extent effective, and that results could be secured only by practical campaign methods. Macaulay's truism, "The only knowledge that a man has is the knowledge he can use," has been the basis for the efforts which the committee, formed at that time and entrusted with this work, has carried on during these three years.

The spirit in which the committee's recommendations have been received and acted upon by members of the association reminds me of Emerson's statement: "Every good and commanding movement in the annals of the world is the triumph of enthusiasm." We have found enthusiastic support everywhere. Our misgivings at the outset that the campaign would result in the loss of the more conservative members of the association proved to be groundless.

Our interrogation blanks, mailed to 20,000 American manufacturers early in the committee's work, brought forth the largest reply in the association's history. Ninety-nine per cent of the members answering expressed themselves emphatically in favor of an extended progressive campaign for accident prevention and compensation for injured workers. At the last three annual conventions of the association, the greatest attendance was during the reading of the report of the Committee on Accident Prevention and Workmen's Compensation. Many meetings in various parts of the country dealing especially with the committee's work have been so well attended that no doubt exists today in the mind of a single official as to the need for keeping the committee's work well at the head of the association's activities. The wonderful increase in membership of the association during the last three years is another proof that the members desire to maintain an aggressive and constructive part in settling the social and industrial problems with which the United States of America and other industrial nations are confronted.

Progressive employers know that social legislation is not only desirable from a humanitarian viewpoint, but necessary from an economic standpoint. Thinking business men realize that sound social legislation is both a human duty and the best safeguard against militant Socialism. Sound social legislation will bring us the efficient, organized, co-ordinated industrial peace of the bee-hive. Militant Socialism will bring us the industrial peace of the grave.

The three years' campaign of the National Association of Manufacturers has been along the following lines:

1. A strenuous campaign has been carried on in all the states for laws providing automatic compensation for injured workers or their dependents and support has been given to all reasonable bills, as the association realized that a perfect and uniform workmen's compensation system for the whole United States can be secured only step by step.

2. Members have been urged to support state compensation laws wherever these are optional, regardless of the fact that this means in many

cases an increase of 300 to 1,000 per cent in insurance rates.

3. Special efforts have been made to have manufacturers organize their own relief association, preferably in co-operation with their workers, for the reason that such systems have most effectively reduced accident rates as well as industrial unrest.

4. Model workman's compensation bills have been prepared and widely distributed. These bills are at present before the legislatures of six states. While they cover the whole subject, the committee urged an especially strong educational campaign for the recognition of three essential principles in compensation legislation, viz.: that a good workmen's compensation law must encourage accident prevention; assure compensation, preferably by compulsory insurance, and cover all wage-workers. It also attempts to provide that doctors' and lawyers' fees shall not rob the injured.

Correspondence in connection with the campaign with legislators, lawyers, insurance men, employers and workmen amounted to an average of twenty-eight letters a day for the last year.

On the association's suggestion, enlightened insurance officials have adopted resolutions providing for a limitation of business-getting expense in workmen's compensation laws.

So much for compensation work. Toward a practical accident prevention campaign we have, however, devoted our greatest energies. Two experienced safety engineers have been placed at the service of members and so great has been the demand for their services that there are engagements for more than six months ahead at this time. As this service is charged for at a rate which makes it self-sustaining, this means something more than interest—it means enthusiasm on the part of employers in our accident prevention campaign.

The work of the safety engineers consists of inspection of factories and making special reports for improving existing conditions which manufacturers have almost uniformly acted upon; advice regarding safety devices, shop safety organization and other means of preventing work accidents; practical instructions to superintendents, foremen, engineers and workmen in regard to safety devices; and illustrated talks with lantern slides and motion pictures to workers, as well as employers, especially to local organizations of both. An important part of the campaign is the establishment of local safety organizations with the work in every plant inspected placed in the hands of some one person.

Numerous employers and business men have, as a result of our advice and practical work, engaged safety engineers for their factories. The campaign has so increased the demand for experts that the supply is inadequate and open letters have been written to engineering colleges urging them to establish a special course of training leading to the degree of "safety engineer."

Local "safety revivals" have been conducted in many parts of the country, with some member of the committee present as the principal speaker. James Emery, my associate in this work, and I have spoken on the subject of accident prevention or workmen's compensation on an average of once a week for the last three years. We have constantly agitated for safety museums.[1] A special effort has been made to get in touch with factory inspectors and to urge the keeping of statistics bearing upon accidents.

The co-operation we have established with insurance companies, both stock and mutual, promises to be a most effective means of establishing a system for rating risks which, in the same manner as fire schedule rating, shall provide subtractions and additions of insurance rates contingent upon the accident prevention activities of each insurer. Many insurance companies are endeavoring to arrange for central inspection bureaus for rating good and bad risks.

A colored "safety" supplement has been established for *American Industries,* the official monthly magazine of the association. The interest of the members in this safety supplement is shown by the fact that 5,000 extra copies were ordered after the supplement's first appearance. Another effective means of educating for safety is the use of motion pictures which have been prepared partly at the expense of the National Association of Manufacturers. These are distributed through regular motion picture channels all over the United States. Several thousand lantern slides are being used for educational lectures before the general public, interested organizations and college classes.

The safety campaign was one of the factors that led to the organization of the National Council for Industrial Safety, which had its first enthusiastic meeting four months ago. This new organization plans an annual gathering to take the form of a national "safety revival" and an international safety convention during the San Francisco exposition.

Every phase of the association's work is being supervised by members of the committee who are divided into sub-committees. Although the committee's efforts are a work of love, the members receiving no compensation whatever, the association's activity for workmen's compensation and accident prevention has cost approximately $50,000 during the last three years. The board of directors consider this money well spent and, judging by present sentiment, will not only continue, but increase their efforts in future. Our safety campaign is too young and too widely spread as yet to give accurate figures for results. Perhaps the best sign of its success is the mass of enthusiastic testimonials from asso-

[1]It is not betraying confidence when I call attention to a movement inaugurated by Congressman Robert C. Bremner of New Jersey and Lewis T. Bryant, labor commissioner of the same state, to establish a national safety museum at Washington. Letters and newspaper clippings indicate that President Wilson is in favor of such a museum and every voter of the country should get behind Congress to give such a matter prompt and favorable consideration. Every European nation has a number of such safety museums where can be found on exhibition safety devices for the protection of working men in every field, not only for accident but for sickness. A national safety museum in Washington would materially stimulate the safety movement and it would be a fitting monument to the spirit of the times.

ciation members to the value of our experts' inspections and advice. The following partial figures will, however, at least give some idea of concrete results:

Two hundred and seventy-six members of the association have placed a special man in charge of their shop safety organization during the last year and a half.

Several dozen manufacturers claim to have reduced their accidents in a campaign of from one to two years from 10 per cent to 50 per cent.

In more than fifty cases the safety campaign has brought about a better appreciation of general efforts in the direction of sanitation and welfare work.

Twenty or more establishments have established sickness insurance in co-operation with their employes, as part of their safety campaign.

Old age and invalidity relief is being considered by several dozen large manufacturers now as part of the safety campaign.

A dozen or more mutual insurance and relief associations have been established among certain classes of manufacturers, such for instance, as laundries, millers, etc., and accident prevention is invariably one of the most important, permanent features of such mutual organizations.

In another year the association hopes to make a thorough survey of the 20,000 members originally addressed in the safety campaign. This will make it possible to show in figures the results of the association's efforts along these lines.

My experience of many years with associations of manufacturers and business men convinces me that, regardless of popular impressions, the large majority of captains of industry believe that "the gauge of their success is the assistance they give others to succeed." Unfortunately, the every-day grind of their work does not permit many well-intentioned business men to know much about social legislation and about the advantages of co-operation and good will. I have found them exceedingly anxious to secure information about these matters and to act in accordance with sound advice.

The following extract from one of the committee's communications to the members indicates our sentiments:

"Remember that the most important factor in this endeavor is the right spirit. Without a spirit of progressiveness, without co-operation between the officers and members of organizations, without harmony and co-operation between yourself and your superintendents, foremen and workers, it is useless to attempt a campaign for safety. We manufacturers of the United States of America have a reputation for ability, energy and initiative all over the world, and we cannot, we must not, fail to make good."

Let me say in conclusion that I do not share the prevailing pessimism as to the industrial outlook in the United States. I repeat that there has been an awakening in recent years. Social legislation has made rapid progress. We need to maintain and increase our attention to these matters. Employer, employe and the public need to get closer together and this can be best brought about by a thorough knowledge of industrial conditions and publicity without fear or favor to any class. If we each and every one strive to that end, then is being fulfilled Tennyson's worthy charge to

> "Ring out the slowly dying cause
> And ancient forms of party strife,
> Ring in the nobler modes of life
> With sweeter manners, purer laws.
>
> "Ring in the valiant men and free,
> The larger heart, the kindlier hand,
> Ring out the darkness of the land,
> Ring in the light that is to be."

INDUSTRIAL SERVICE MOVEMENT OF THE Y. M. C. A.

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INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT, INTERNATIONAL Y. M. C. A.

Six years ago at Yale was started the industrial service movement of the Young Men's Christian Association. There are at present 3,500 students from 150 colleges throughout the country engaged in this service under the direction of city and student association branches. Engineering students particularly are enlisted in this volunteer service for industrial workers which presents an effective laboratory for practical work, backed by the training, encouragement and supervision of association officials whose co-operation is extended to the larger efforts for industrial and social betterment which students engage in after graduation.

Among the forty different lines of service are: teaching English, history, and citizenship to foreigners; teaching drawing, electricity, manual training, music and other subjects; conducting men's and boys' clubs and boy scout and big brothers work; giving noon shop talks in factories; giving instruction in hygiene and first aid, athletics, etc.; holding educational classes in labor unions; conducting socials, entertainments, observation trips and week-end camps; doing charity organization work; investigating working, living and recreative conditions, etc.

The idea is permeating the leading colleges and universities. The old Yale boat house is being used as a school for teaching English, civics, and hygiene to foreigners. Students at the University of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and Ames are holding classes for foreign men and boys in railroad box-cars. Men from Columbia, Harvard, Williams, Brown, Pennsylvania, and other colleges are conducting educational classes in labor unions, talking in shop meetings, and leading



CLASS OF RUSSIAN AND ROUMANIAN JEWS

clubs of working boys. University of Wisconsin engineering students are instructing American mechanics and boiler makers in the round house, and convicts in the jail. Undergraduates of Amherst, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Princeton, Penn State and other institutions are doing deputation work in rural industrial communities. Men from Cornell, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, McGill University, California and the University of Puget Sound are visiting the homes of immigrants and are teaching groups in boarding houses. Students of South Carolina, Furman, and other southern colleges, are doing extension work in cotton mill villages.

Students have made possible unusual community meetings. In New York city sixty classes in English and civics for foreigners have been taught by students, and on several occasions the members of these classes, representatives of sixteen nationalities, came together under their respective flags to hear a lecture on American citizenship, to tell what the work was doing for them, to sing their national songs and to unite in learning "America." The working boys' clubs came together on one occasion to hear addresses by Ernest Thompson Seton and Dr. George J. Fisher. In Pittsburgh, a foreign singing contest was attended by several thousand people, and a huge American flag of silk was awarded to the winning group. In San Francisco a mass meeting and entertainment was attended by men of twenty-five nationalities.

In Tacoma last spring, the notable immigration conference, attended by several hundred delegates, including five state governors, a Canadian premier and representatives of capital and labor, was planned and promoted by the Y. M. C. A. immigration secretary and his student workers. The conference resulted in the formation of the Coast-wide Immigration League, to cope with the problems of Pacific immigration which will be aggravated on the opening of the Panama Canal. In April of this year a similar conference was held in San Francisco. The man who conceived and is promoting these conferences acquired his first experience in teaching foreigners English as a graduate student at college. It was this effort that determined his life work.

The interest that college men have in this service which brings no financial compensation is due to the natural sympathy that most students have for those less fortunate than themselves. To awaken that sympathy they need only to be shown a real and definite job to do and how to do it. They can also be shown that industrial service is not only an altruistic privilege and patriotic duty but also "blesseth him that gives and him that takes." This service affords an experience which students need, for it enlarges a man's vision, increases his sympathy with "the other half" and gives a knowledge of how to deal with men.

Enlisting Students in the Service

The methods of enlisting students are interesting. Lectures on industrial conditions and needs and the college man's responsibility are given before students by carefully selected employers, labor leaders, and social workers. Especially prepared literature is distributed, articles are written for student periodicals, and an industrial library installed in the college Y. M. C. A. building. Interested students meet weekly, often under expert leadership, for a discussion of industrial subjects. The student and city branches of the Y. M. C. A. join hands in the movement, and, in co-operation with churches, missions, social



A NOON CLASS CONDUCTED IN POLISH

settlements, boys' clubs, libraries, civic associations, factories, labor unions, foreign societies, etc., discover definite opportunities for industrial service where students can be useful. Experience has proved beyond a doubt that volunteer service can be conscientious and efficient. A settlement worker writes: "I don't see how we could have done without the splendid work of those college men." After a few men are put to work, others become interested through observation, and the movement naturally spreads.

In a three-day-campaign in New York, the industrial service movement was presented to selected classes of students at Columbia, New York University, and the College of the City of New York, with the result that 280 students signified their hearty interest and 125 were willing to undertake immediate work. In a single year 165 undergraduates engaged in industrial service in New York city, and the movement has become of such importance that a secretary gives all his time to it. This man was captain of his university football team two years ago and became interested at college. It is noticeable that generally the strongest and most popular students volunteer for service. A list of those at work from Yale includes varsity football, basketball, baseball, and track men, intercollegiate debaters, class and fraternity officers, and honor men. In many places the matter has been presented to the various fraternities and has met a most cordial response.

Recently at the University of Michigan the movement was presented to 1,200 students in two days, to employers of the city at a luncheon, to labor leaders at a dinner in the city Y. M. C. A., and to a special meeting of engineering professors. At Cornell University over 1,600 students were addressed, and 525 signed up as interested and willing to promote the ideas and ideals of the movement. One hundred and thirty men volunteered for definite service, and many are already teaching in the homes of foreigners, leading boys' clubs, and doing other similar work. Others will teach this summer where they live and work. The movement was presented also at meetings of engineering professors and at a gathering of the Business Men's Association. The city and student branches of the Y. M. C. A. are financing the scheme, and a strong student committee is heading the work in the university.

In practically every college the faculty heartily supports the scheme, and the sentiment of many professors was expressed when one said, "I hope every one of my students will make a place in his program for some volunteer altruistic service. They will have opportunity to do a great deal of good, but will gain far more than they can give." Recently at the University of Iowa the movement was presented to a faculty meeting which had not been addressed by any outsider for nineteen years. A number of college faculties have met to discuss the movement, and to consider the re-adaptation of engineering courses to give more attention to the "human side of the engineering profession." Already many engineering schools have courses in "management," but professors feel increasingly that even these courses have too much of the "material" and not enough of the "human" element. Such instruction supplemented by personal friendly contact in service for industrial workers will do much to remove prejudices and promote mutual understanding between college men and workingmen.

Appreciation of the Work

Some quotations from letters written by working men show better than any other testimony how they feel about this work:

"I have not found words to thank the best friend I ever had on earth for all he has done for me. I am a better man."

"I have learn some English, got better job, will be good American citizen. I am grateful forever."

A foreign convict writes: "Now I got good chance to learn English to read and write because I got long time to do in this prison, and if I learn, that will help me when I get out from here. I no like to work all my life with pick and shovel."

In the West a lumber company has provided a room where its foreign employes can learn English under student leadership. A newspaper clipping tells the story in these headlines: "Slavonians eager to acquire knowledge of English after back-breaking work in mill."

That American working men are also open to friendliness of this kind is splendidly illustrated by an experience with a large labor union. When the students first spoke to the members of the union, the men naturally wondered and were suspicious of an ulterior motive. But when they went down to the union rooms two nights a week, often at considerable sacrifice, and taught mathematics, mechanics, and electricity, the men warmed up. As the students proved that they were not "snobs" but good fellows, the men unhesitatingly showed their appreciation. The work was so successful that it has been carried on for several years. The president of the union testifies that the wages of some of his men have been raised from $18 to $28 a week, as a result of the instruction given. A series of lectures has been given before 500 men in the union and the men have now asked the students to plan the entertainments for their social meetings. This latter request is particularly significant, as the class of entertainment formerly enjoyed was of very low grade. The work is spreading to unions in many other cities, and the students are getting an entirely different view of the rights of the workingman. In a number of instances the labor union, sometimes the Central Labor Union, has invited selected students to act as fraternal delegates, with full power to discuss and to introduce motions. This is a remarkable development, and in no case have the unions had cause to regret the step.

In one city the students discovered a Syrian who spoke six languages fluently, had been a school superintendent in his own country, but because he knew no English, was sweeping out a market for one dollar a day. The man was befriended, educated and has become a power for good among his countrymen.

An Italian lad lived in America four years before an American treated him as a friend. By that time he was so discouraged that he had several times attempted suicide. A college student met him on a street corner, invited him to an English class in one of the settlements, helped him, trained him for leadership, and he is now a social worker of remarkable ability among his people.

Engineering Students Especially Interested

Social workers in our colleges have in many instances found engineering students "too busy," and as a rule not so open to the altruistic appeal as those in other departments of the universities. Yet, it is a fact that 70 per cent of the 3,000 men engaged in industrial service are engineers. The reason is obvious: A football captain (an engineer) said the other day:

"This industrial work is the livest thing that's struck college since I've been here. It's a real job and it's practical. Everyone of us who goes into it is bound to acquire an experience in dealing with men, which the curriculum can't give, and we need it!"

Indeed a prominent general manager, himself a college graduate, recently said to the writer:

"The college graduates in my employ are frequently a confounded nuisance. They come to us with a splendid knowledge of books, but when as foremen or superintendents, they get out into the shop, and deal with *working men*, they make a mess of it. A good part of my time is spent in straightening out difficulties and restoring harmony. They haven't any real sympathy with men and don't know how to handle them."

Here then is a great need in the training of an engineer, which the industrial service movement is designed to meet. Engineering students are quick to see the point. As they teach English to foreigners or lead a club of working men they come to understand these men, not as a "class," but as individuals. They get a friendly insight into their working and living conditions and a first-hand knowledge of how to deal with them intelligently and sympathetically. Thus one student writes:

"My class of Italians is the finest bunch of men I've ever come into contact with—bright, keen, appreciative to an embarrassing extent. They have done me more good than I can ever do them."

Another says:

"My club of working men was the big thing needed to complete my college education. It taught me things I could have learned in no other way, and as an engineer, I am already deriving great benefit."

It is also true that many a college man has been kept straight and acquired higher ideals because of the responsibility of some group of men or boys who were looking up to him. One such man, an engineer of promise, says:

"Before I undertook any of this work, my one ideal in life was to make all the money I could,



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regardless of anyone under me. Since I gave some of my time in volunteer service my ideals have all changed. Now I don't care where I go or what my salary, so long as it is some place where I can help my fellow men."

This naturally raises the great question of what these students will do with their experience after they graduate from college.

Larger Significance of the Movement

As already indicated, after students have had a real service experience, their changed attitude toward the world's needs and their sense of responsibility is bound to lead to greater activity in their larger spheres of influence after graduation. Thus, it is not surprising that we have in our central office a mailing list of 3000 graduates, most of them engineers who were interested as undergraduates, and many of whom are now in the forefront of movements for social and industrial betterment. Here is what some of them write from various parts of the country:

"It is surely satisfactory to feel one is doing something for the betterment of the human race. You can count on me to co-operate in the work wherever I go."

"As a student I got interested in industrial service and resolved that any men whom I might later control should get a square deal. I've just investigated the living conditions of the men in this lumber camp, and found them sleeping on old vermin-producing wooden bunks, that hadn't been changed in six years. I've had the whole outfit burned up and an iron cot put in for every man in camp."

"I am sending you my personal check to cover cost of equipment for English classes in my steel mill."

"We have put in a fine welfare club for our men, with reading, writing and smoking rooms. No gambling or liquor allowed. It certainly pays and I am delighted with my share in it."

"As foreman in the steel mill, I see that my men get a square deal on the job, a better job if they deserve it, and I have taken pains to render personal service to many. We must get rid of the seven-day, twelve-hour labor schedule before we can have real men with real homes."

"I have signed up eight hundred working men for a Y. M. C. A. membership in our mining town. After a thorough investigation, we feel that the Association will meet the needs of the men better than any other agency."

am superintendent of schools here and am putting in evening classes for the first time in this city, and an using Roberts' method of English for foreigners."

"Have just been elected president of the Social Hygiene Society in this community."

"I have been traveling all over the country and have noticed that the heart has almost been edu-

cated out of some of my friends with degrees. I am convinced that every undergraduate enlisted in this volunteer work will have the broad field of humanity opened before him. It's great business."

One of America's greatest football captains, a few months after graduation, wrote from a construction camp in Colorado:

"Remembering what I learned in this movement at Yale, when I became foreman I treated my gang of Italians as men and not as dogs, and it was really pitiful to see the way they returned the little kindness I showed them. Each day I was met with cheery words of greeting. When the job was complete the men came to me in a bunch, thanked me for the fair way I had treated them, and said they would like to work for me always."

What greater satisfaction could an engineer ask? And what may it not mean to the industrial world of tomorrow, as hundreds and hundreds of engineering and other students graduate from college with a new vision of their service opportunities, and a knowledge of how to help. In one college town through the entire winter, the son of a railway magnate, who has 25,000 men under him, taught a group of foreign laborers in one of the worst districts of the city. Who can judge of that man's influence a few years hence?

This in brief is the story of the industrial service movement, which heads up in the Industrial Department of the Y. M. C. A. International Committee, in which state committees and nearly 300 student and city associations co-operate, and for which thousands of college men are conscientiously working. From the central office of the secretary a letter of news, suggestion and inspiration, and quantities of helpful literature go each month to the local secretaries who are co-operating.

Thus, quietly but rapidly, without undue advertising has been advancing a great movement, broad in scope, submerging creed and class in altruistic service; deep in influence, reaching to the very heart of many vital industrial problems of the day. At a conservative estimate 3,500 undergraduates are reaching over 60,000 working men and boys each week in definite constructive service, which will make for better understanding, the improvement of industrial and social conditions and the transforming of individual lives. No one can measure the helpful service of the 3,000 graduates who also are promoting the ideals of the movement. As hundreds of men continue to graduate with a new vision of their service opportunities and responsibilities, who can foresee their influence in maintaining industrial righteousness and industrial peace?

MAKING INCOME EQUAL OUTGO[1]

WHAT THE STRUGGLE MEANS TO COTTON MILL WORKERS

MARGARET F. BYINGTON

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Hidden in monotonous uniformity there is to be found in the volumes of the federal report on the Condition of Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States a most illuminating analysis of the budgets of cotton mill families. It is notable for simplicity rather than for comprehensiveness. Budgets of twenty-one families employed in southern cotton mills and of fourteen in the cotton mills of Fall River, Mass., have been secured and the conditions of the families studied. Because the number is so small no attempt is made to use the figures as a basis for generalizations, but the full statement of the circumstances as well as the expenditures of each family gives the study a compensating vividness.

The study of the fourteen families in Fall River is not as satisfactory as the southern investigation because the standards of English, Italian, French Canadian, Portuguese and Polish operatives are so different. Also it was not possible, as it often was in the South, to get an almost complete record both of family income and expenditure through the books of the companies where the families worked. For these reasons the analysis of the southern families' budgets is more deserving of attention.

Special interest attaches to the study of the twenty-one southern families as it was the first budget study of southern families, I believe. As a background we may quote from the report a brief description of life in a southern cotton mill town:

"Certain conditions of the new industrial life foster this isolation. The whole family—men, women, and children—are engaged in the same industry in which every other family in their community is engaged. They have their own churches and their own schools, in many cases furnished by the mill owners. They live, with few exceptions, in houses owned by the mill company. They buy their provisions, in many cases, from the company store. The cotton mill is the center of their lives. Their present and their future are bounded by it. In less isolated industrial communities there is always the prospect of working into some other and higher in-

[1]See Federal Report on the Condition of Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States. 19 volumes. Edited by Charles P. Neill. Volume XVI. Family Budgets of Typical Cotton Mill Workers. By Wood F. Worcester and Daisy Worthington Worcester.

dustrial group. The vision of the southern cotton operative, however, is so limited by his surroundings that this possibility rarely occurs to him. In other industries the father may feel that he can never hope for anything more for himself, but he can at least plan and struggle for a better life for his children. Here the mill demands the children as well as the fathers."

This dependence on the mills serves to make the study more accurate than is usually possible. The rent of company houses was, of course, known and through the courtesy of the mill owners the investigators were allowed to copy from the books of the company not only the detailed expenditures for food, clothing, etc., but what was of more importance, the actual wage of the various members of the family from week to week for an entire year. The total income, in some cases practically every item of expenditure, is therefore known.

The families chosen for study are considered typical, though probably on the whole having somewhat better than average conditions. This necessity for making an arbitrary choice is, of course, the one uncertain point in the study. As the investigators, however, had taken part in the larger investigation of the cotton mill industry made by the Federal Bureau of Labor, reliance can probably be placed upon their judgment as to what families were representative. Moreover the report states that the names of the families working in one of the three mills were furnished by a mill official as representative families, and in another they were frankly avowed by the mill officials to be among the best. It may therefore be assumed that while there is really no "typical family" and while there are wide variations in circumstances, the stories of these twenty-one families give an accurate picture of the home life of cotton mill employes.

In view of the discussion of the effects of the work of young children in cotton mills it is interesting to note that of the twenty-one families studied not one was wholly dependent on the wages of the man. The average number of wage-earners in these families was 3.6 and the average number of individuals 8.5.

Practically all the families live in company houses for which they pay a low rent, usually $.75 to $1 a room per month. A typical house is "a one-story frame, built upon brick piers instead of a solid foundation. It is rectangular in form and divided into four rooms. The rooms are about fourteen by sixteen or sixteen by sixteen feet, and they are ceiled instead of plastered. Two rooms have fireplaces or grates, a third is arranged for a cooking stove, and the fourth has no means of heating. The flooring is of a single thickness and, as it is seldom carpeted, furnishes little protection against the cold." Most of the homes are but meagerly furnished and only partly heated.

In the discussion of food, the menus and daily expenditures of many families are given and repay careful study. As a standard for judging the adequacy of the food supply, the dietary for the federal prison in Georgia is used (20.5 cents per man per day). Eleven of the twenty-one families fell below even this meagre diet. "Corn bread, biscuit, pork and coffee form a large part of the diet of all families."

In the matter of clothing the study is detailed and brings out some interesting points as to the different standards of dress for various members of the same family. The daughter who works in the mills spends many times as much on clothes as does the mother who works at home. In some cases, at least, the mother wears the cast-off clothing of the daughter. One such mother spent $1.98 for clothing in an entire year, while her daughter of twenty-one who was married that year spent $113.84; another daughter of nineteen spent $77, and a third girl of sixteen spent $86.

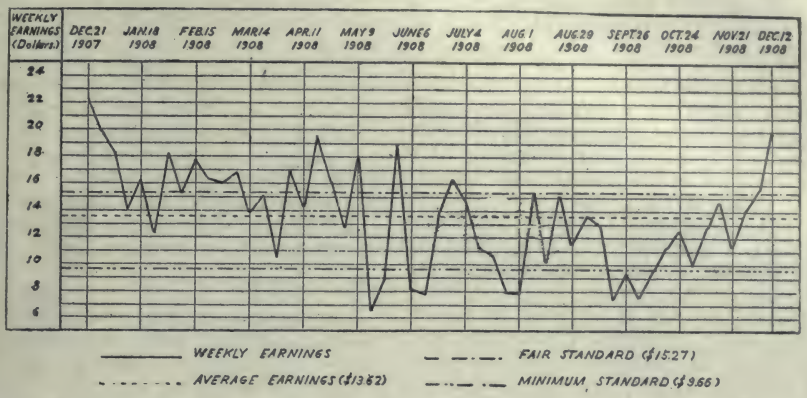
After giving the budgets of these twenty-one families in full, the investigators attempt to formulate a "minimum standard" and a "fair standard" of living. For the former the food cost is based on the prison dietary; the housing standard on the rent of a mill house; and the other items—clothing, furniture, fuel, light, and sundries—on the least amount spent by any family for each item, excluding those that were manifestly impossibly low. On this basis the "minimum standard" for a family consisting of a man, his wife, and three children under twelve was reckoned as possible at an expenditure of $408.26 a year. This amount, the authors state, is "so low that one would expect few families to live on it." Frankly, from the description of what is included, I should be inclined to say that no family could:

"If the family live upon this sum without suffering, wisdom to properly apportion the income is necessary. There can be no amusements or recreations that involve any expense. No tobacco can be used. No newspapers can be purchased. The children cannot go to school, because there will be no money to buy their books. Household articles that are worn out or destroyed cannot be replaced. The above sum provides for neither birth nor death nor any illness that demands a doctor's attention or calls for medicine. Even though all these things are eliminated, if the family is not to suffer, the mother must be a woman of rare ability. She must know how to make her own and her children's clothing; she must be physically able to do all of the household work, including the washing. And she must know enough to purchase with her allowance food that has the proper nutritive value."

Such a "standard of living" cannot be considered adequate, falls far short of being scientific and it seems to me doubtful wisdom to consider as a "standard" at all a program so bankrupt of actual family needs.

The "fair standard" is worked out on a similar scheme. It includes somewhat more generous provision of food and allowance for certain other factors which "these people have come to regard . . . as essential to their every-day

CHART OF THE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF ONE OF THE TWENTY-ONE SOUTHERN FAMILIES



life." This "fair standard" is estimated at $600.74 for the average family.

A series of novel diagrams is presented showing, for each family, their earnings from week to week, their average earnings for the year and a comparison of this with the minimum and fair standards.

An additional study was made of the wages of seventy-five families for a year, the figures being secured from the mill pay roll. The income of fifteen families fell below even the minimum; twenty-two had more than the fair standard, and thirty-eight between the two. Of the seventy-five families, fifty had fathers working in the mill and only two of these fifty fathers, both overseers, earned enough to support a wife and three young children according to the fair standard, and four according to the minimum. A decent home life for the families of these men would be impossible were it not for the wages of the children or the income from boarders. The great variations in incomes from week to week would increase the difficulty of planning household expenditures even when the average indicates a living wage.

The results of this low standard of living on physical vitality are shown by the fact that each of the twenty-one families studied spent some money for medicine or doctor. As illustrating the amount of sickness in these families, with its resulting loss of income and added expense, we may quote from the description of one family which has suffered extensively: "The father was injured in the mill twice during the year and lost six weeks. The mother is ill with lung trouble. The boy has tuberculosis, and the fourteen-year-old girl is very frail and is constantly taking patent medicines. During the year they spent $108.25 on medicines and doctor's bills. The year before the fourteen-year-old girl, whose earnings were a large share of the family income, lost twenty-four weeks because of sickness." Another family, though in good general health, suffered as a result of bad sanitary conditions: "The members of the family appear to be in good health. The daughter, aged eighteen, had typhoid fever during the year and was unable to work for eight weeks. The son, aged sixteen, had malaria and lost from one to two weeks at different times."

This is the picture of southern cotton mill life—a family living in a four-room mill-owned house without running water and indoor toilets, with but one room heated; a meager diet of pork and beans, biscuit, coffee and syrup; an irregular income, not allowing on an average enough for a fair standard of living for most of the families, yet tempting often to extravagance in those weeks when it is high; a twelve-year limit permitted by the child labor law, and adult wages that necessitate the children's going to work as soon as that law allows; the father rarely earning much more, and sometimes even less, than the younger members of the family; scant amusement, usually only the moving picture show, possible on the meager income; poor health with the doctor often an impossible luxury.

JOTTINGS

DETROIT BOOSTING FOR SAFETY

The campaign for safety is taking firm root in Detroit. The Detroit Manufacturers' Association has in its employ two safety inspectors who are at the call of members for work in their plants at any time. They are constantly hunting for danger points and suggesting methods of eliminating them.

More recently, following the enactment of the Workmen's Compensation Law, there has been organized the Detroit Accident Prevention Conference. There have been three meetings so far, with such men as John Calder of the Cadillac Motor Car Company and W. H. Bradshaw, safety director of the New York Central lines as speakers and papers by those members who were equipped by reason of experience to give instructive information. The meetings are held in the evening in a down town hotel where a moderate

priced dinner is served, the addresses and discussions following. The average attendance has been about one hundred. As no membership fee is charged and as great enthusiasm is displayed it is hoped that shortly the attendance will be double this number.

TRADE SCHOOL FOR PRINTERS

In *Printing Trade News* the recently established School for Printers' Apprentices in New York is described by A. L. Blue, director of the school. The school is co-operative in the extreme; it is managed by a joint committee of employers (The Printers' League), workmen (the New York Typographical Union) and the public (the Hudson Guild), Its headquarters are at the guild. The courses, which are for working apprentices, are so planned as to develop individuality. Afternoon classes are held for boys employed on the morning papers, evening classes for others. The present enrolment is ninety-six.

SICKNESS INSURANCE IN WISCONSIN

A bill marking the initial step towards the establishment of state accident and sick benefit insurance is pending in the Legislature of Wisconsin. This is one of the first proposals of the kind submitted in any state. Its insurance features are modelled after the English act. The bill applies solely to vocational diseases. Both employer and employe are to contribute toward the premiums. Single employes earning less than $600 a year, who have someone dependent upon them, are eligible to protection under the provisions of the bill; no person may come under its terms who earns over $900. Persons earning $800 a year must have two dependent upon them, and those earning $900 annually must have four persons dependent upon them in order to come within the proposed statute.

Employers are to be allowed to deduct 1 per cent of the wages of employes and they must add to this sum one-half of 1 per cent of the pay roll, the entire sum to be paid into a state insurance fund. When ill, the employe is to receive 65 per cent of his wages during the period of his illness, but for not more than twenty-six consecutive weeks nor more than thirty-nine weeks in a single year. If the employe is sent to a hospital, his regular wages are to be paid to him weekly. The State Industrial Commission is empowered to enforce the provisions of the act in the event of its passage.

MUNICIPAL MINIMUM WAGE

A minimum wage of 25s. ($6.08) a week for all able-bodied men will henceforth rule, says *Life and Labor*, in the municipal service in Glasgow. It is now many years since the corporation of Glasgow acknowledged the principle of a minimum wage, the rate then introduced being 21s. ($5.11). Since that time improvements have brought the wages up to an average minimum of about 23s. ($5.60), so that the proposal for a minimum of 25s., which was carried in the town council, means an advance of about 2s. ($0.48 2-3) weekly to many of the lower-paid workmen. To give effect to the proposal an additional expenditure of $41,365 will, it is estimated, be involved.

The position in Manchester is better, from the workers' point of view, than it will be in Glasgow even when the minimum weekly wage is raised to 25s. ($6.08). Seven years ago the Manchester city council raised the minimum wage to 25s. Early in the present year there was an agitation for an increase of 2s. ($0.48 2-3) a week in view of the increased cost of living. A special committee reported in favor of an advance to 26s. ($6.33) a week, and this the council agreed to. This sum is paid to all the laborers (as distinct from skilled workers in the several departments) throughout the city.

FULL CREW BILLS

An unusual publicity campaign on the part of railroads has resulted from the passage by the state Legislatures of the so-called Full Crew Bills in New Jersey and New York, regulating the number of employes on trains. In the New York newspapers for several days in succession the railroads used three-quarter page advertisements for a joint statement of their opposition. In this space they urged the governor to veto the bill, and the public to protest against its enactment. It is claimed by the railroads that the law will cost them $2,000,000 annually in the state of New York without bringing any increase in efficiency or safety. They point out that Governors Hughes and Dix both refused to approve similar measures on the ground that such questions should logically be decided by the Public Service Commission.

In their advertisements the railroads urged that the matter be left to the state Public Service Commissions, and promised to abide by their decisions.

The Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen, which is urging such legislation all over the country, insists that it is necessary to promote safety. *The Railroad Trainman*, organ of the brotherhood says:

"Today our men are asking for legislation that is no more of a departure from the beaten path than the safety device legislation of twenty years ago was. They have tried to regulate the car limit of trains and the number of men to be employed on them through their contracts. They have failed in the first instance altogether and for the most part in the other. They realize that, operated as trains are, freight train service is often performed under unsafe conditions. Two men for an unlimited number of cars is the rule for the most part. Because of it there are freight trains running today averaging between fifty and one hundred and thirty-five cars and two men are in charge with the conductor.

"There will be trains, perhaps, on which the extra man will not be needed, but if the companies had been forehanded enough to put men where they were needed they could have saved the ones not needed, but they did not and legislation does not find a way to discriminate as readily as the exercise of common sense does."

The bills have been signed and have become laws in both New Jersey and New York.

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

TERRE HAUTE'S LABOR PARLIAMENT

BENJAMIN B. TOWNE

Failure on the part of the churches of Terre Haute, Ind., to grasp the problems of its 11,000 workingmen led to the holding of a "labor parliament." This parliament, convened last May, was directed by Harry F. Ward of the Methodist Federation for Social Service. There were three meetings in different churches, where the problems of industry and Christianity were discussed in an open and frank manner.

But the prime movers realized, early in April, that to make this parliament a success much local work would have to be done. As a stepping-stone, the ministers adopted an industrial creed, which was floated over the city, with the result that the laboring man discovered that he and the church had common ideals toward which to aim.

The local work in the churches was adapted to the particular condition of the locality, all efforts, however, being focused on the labor parliament to be held in May. Shop meetings were held, lantern slides of existing conditions were shown, and mass meetings for working men and girls conducted. Besides these features, the newspapers helped this most interesting scheme along, so that by the time set for the labor parliament, all Terre Haute was prepared for the co-operative discussion, which was to prove so beneficial to the church and organized labor. The Central Labor Union co-operated well with the movement and appointed a committee of three prominent labor men to help the ministerial committee.

The labor parliament was, indeed, a success. Dr. Ward chose as his subjects, Industry and Social Waste, Democracy in Industry, and the Industrial Problem of Christianity. In all his talks Dr. Ward opened the eyes of labor world and church. One, he showed, could not be of full benefit in its community without the co-operation of the other. And now, nearly a year after this industrial revival, what are the results? Are any permanent effects apparent from these efforts, or did the movement, swelling into the three days' parliament, gradually fade away and become forgotten by the laboring man? A few pointed statements of those nearest the problem of both the church and laboring man will show the result.

A. M. Powers, president of the Central Labor Union, has this to say of its success: "The movement has been beneficial, as far as I can see, to both sides. When the church can show that the laboring man is not an insect to be placed upon a sociological dissecting table for amused speculations of theologians, but a man to be helped and to help advance the cause of the brotherhood of man through the church, then the antagonism will be replaced by a hearty co-operation because this spirit of brotherhood is the basis of the organized labor movement.

"I believe the churches of Terre Haute have shown that this is the spirit of their activity in their last year's efforts, and as an individual I endorse the movement and think that as long as the same spirit is shown the labor unions will be willing to work hand in hand with the church."

George W. Greenleaf, secretary-treasurer of District Lodge No. 72, International Association of Machinists, and city councilman, says:

"The labor parliament and the preceding church services held in Terre Haute last winter were beyond the question of a doubt a benefit to organized labor. The chief benefit derived, in

TERRE HAUTE'S INDUSTRIAL CREED

United we stand:

For equal rights and perfect justice to all men.

For the principle of conciliation and arbitration.

For the protection of workers from dangerous machinery, occupational diseases, injuries and mortality.

For the abolition of child labor.

For such regulations of conditions of labor for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

For the suppression of "the sweating system."

For a reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practical point with labor for all and a reasonable degree of leisure.

For release from employment one day in seven, and whenever at all possible that this be the Sabbath Day.

For the highest wage that each industry can afford and for the most equitable division of the profits of industry that can be devised.

For the recognition of the Golden Rule (Matt. 7:12) and the teachings of Christ as the supreme law of society and the sure remedy of all ills.

my estimation, consisted in the dispelling of the popular prejudice against our organizations and the placing of our cause on a higher plane in the minds of the public."

The ministers of the city feel much the same way about the effects of the parliament.

Rev. A. E. Monger, pastor of the largest Methodist church in the city and one of the promoters of the movement, says:

"Since the campaign there has been crystalized in the churches a sentiment of responsibility for the welfare of the laboring man. The laboring men have found that the gospel does have a message against the great sins under which they are struggling."

As a further evidence of the parliament's lasting effect, Rev. John G. Benson, another of its promoters, may be quoted:

"We are getting requests from every quarter for a repetition of the parliament."

NEW RECOGNITION OF SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY

In religious periodical literature two high notes of social significance have recently been struck. The *Constructive Quarterly* has appeared from the press of the George H. Doran Company in America and Hodder & Stoughton in England. It is planned to be a free forum where all the churches of Christendom may frankly and fully state their "operative beliefs" and their distinctive work, "including and not avoiding differences," but making "no attack with polemical animus on others."

The purpose of this undertaking is to afford opportunity for the churches, without compromise, "to re-introduce themselves to one another through the things they themselves positively hold to be vital to Christianity," "so that all may know what the differences are and what they stand for, and that all may respect them, in order to cherish and preserve whatever is true and helpful and to discover and grow out of whatever is harmful and false."

As it has no editorial pronouncements and no scheme for the unity of Christendom to promote, the *Quarterly* will depend upon the catholicity and representative influence of its editorial board, selected from all countries and communions, to promote a fellowship of work and spirit. The middle term of the *Quarterly's* subtitle—a journal of the Faith, Work and Thought of Christendom—is likely to prove the basis for the correlation of the other two. For long before the faith and the thought of Christendom may be correlated, the churches will surely cooperate in their common work.

The *Hibbert Journal*, which for ten years has been the ablest technical quarterly review of theology and philosophy, announces a department of social service. This policy was foreshadowed by the editor as early as October, 1906, in a notably direct and able protest against the church standing aloof from "the world." He stoutly maintained that

"the alienation from church life of so much that is good in modern culture, and so much that is earnest in every class, is the natural sequel to the traditional attitude of the church to the world."

How false and unintelligible, as well as untenable, this attitude is appears in these categorical imperatives:

"If by 'the world' we mean such things as parliamentary or municipal government, the great industries of the nation, the professions of medicine, law, and arms, the fine arts, the courts of justice, the hospitals, the enterprises of education, the pursuit of physical science and its application to the arts of life, the domestic economy of millions of homes, the daily work of all the toilers—if, in short, we include that huge complex of secular activities which keeps the world up from hour to hour, and society as a going concern—then the churches which stand apart and describe all this as morally bankrupt are simply advertising themselves as the occupiers of a position as mischievous as it is false.

"If, on the other hand, we exclude these things from our definition, what, in reason, do we mean by 'the world?' Or shall we so frame the definition as to ensure beforehand that all the bad elements belong to the world, and all the good to the church? Or, again, shall we take refuge in the customary remark that whatever is best in these secular activities is the product of Christian influence and teaching in the past? This course, attractive though it seems, is the most fatal of all. For if the world has already absorbed so much of the best the churches have to offer, how can these persist in declaring that the former is morally bankrupt?

"Extremists have not yet perceived how disastrously this dualistic theory thus recoils upon the cause they would defend. The church in her theory has stood aloof from the world. And now the world takes deadly revenge by maintaining the position assigned her and standing aloof from the church."

No better prospectus for the social work of either of these great quarterlies could be framed than the intention to demonstrate and bear home to the intelligence, conscience and heart of the churches these very affirmations. For, while enough of church leaders and followers thus face forward to warrant Professor Rauschenbusch in declaring that it has at last become orthodox to demand the social application of Christianity, yet there is a sharp reaction within every denomination, which threatens to retard this hopeful movement of the churches to serve their communities and thereby save themselves.

But the ultimate issue between those who are thus fearlessly facing the present and those who

persist in backing up into the future cannot be doubtful. Social Christianity is not only demonstrably orthodox, but has won its recognition and its own place in any theological, philosophical, historical or experiential conception of Christianity that claims to be comprehensive, not to say intelligent. Without a much larger emphasis upon the social aims and efforts of Christianity in the thought, belief and work of the church, the need that is finding expression in every parish and community cannot be met—that which the *Constructive Quarterly* well states to be "the need of the impact of the whole of Christianity on the race."

THE FIRST ORPHAN ASYLUM IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

THAT OF THE URSULINE NUNS AT NEW ORLEANS

At the outset of the colonization of Louisiana by the French, ten Ursuline nuns of France, with noble generosity and self-sacrifice, volunteered to go to New Orleans, there to instruct the children of the colonists. They left Rouen in January, 1727.

After great difficulties and countless perils, they reached the mouth of the Mississippi whose waters they ascended in pirogues. They finally landed in the Crescent City on the morning of August 7, 1727, after a sea voyage of nearly six months. They had set sail from the port of Havre on February 23, 1727 after a month spent in Paris.

Arriving in New Orleans, they were met by Bienville, governor of the province of Louisiana. As there were no proper accommodations yet provided, the governor vacated his own residence and placed it at their disposal for a convent and school. Immediately was begun the erection of a new building which was completed in 1734.

The Ursuline nuns upon its completion took possession and occupied it till 1824 when they removed to their present home below the city. This structure, which is now the Archbishopric, or official place for the transaction of the business of the Archdiocese of New Orleans, is the oldest building in Louisiana and also in the vast extent of what was known as the Louisiana Purchase.

The Ursulines began their self-sacrificing work immediately upon their arrival on August 8, 1727 and opened a free school to which were added a select boarding-school and then a little later a hospital. Moreover, in order to inculcate principles of civilization and, especially, of religion in the hearts of the wives and daughters of the Negroes and Indians, the nuns devoted one hour each day to their instruction.

Shortly after their arrival a new field of labor was open to their zeal in the shape of a poor orphan whom Father de Beaubois, had withdrawn from a family of dissolute morals. Although their lodgings at the time were insufficient, the nuns being still in Bienville's house (their new convent, the present old Archbishopric, was not ready for occupancy until July 17, 1734), they adopted the child. This was the tiny mustard-seed from which sprang the flourishing orphanage which exists to the present day. It proved a real providence for the country, especially in colonial times, as may be gleaned from history's record of the Natchez massacre, which took place on November 28, 1729.

After this frightful tragedy, so pathetically described by Chateaubriand, the Indians, who had spared only the young wives and daughters of their French victims, were forced to give up their hostages or to be massacred in turn. The generous Ursulines then opened their home to these unfortunate little ones and mothered them.

This act of disinterestedness and charity was truly heroic, considering the great difficulties usually attendant on the founding of a colony and was highly commended by Rev. Father le Petit, Jesuit, in a letter addressed, July 12, 1730, to Rev. Father d' Avaugour, procurator of the American missions. Having given an account of the appalling massacre of the French at Fort Rosalie by the Natchez Indians, Rev. Father le Petit adds:

"The little girls, whom none of the inhabitants wished to adopt, have greatly enlarged the interesting company of orphans whom the *religieuses* [Ursulines] are bringing up. The great number of these children serves but to increase the charity and the delicate attentions of the good nuns. They have been formed into a separate class of which two teachers have charge.

"There is not one of this holy community that would not be delighted at having crossed the ocean, were she to do no other good save that of preserving these children in their innocence, and of giving a polite and Christian education to young French girls who were in danger of being little better raised than slaves. The hope is held out to these holy *religieuses* that, ere the end of the year, they will occupy the new house which is destined for them, and for which they have long been sighing. When they shall be settled there, to the instruction of the boarders, the orphans, the day scholars, and the Negresses, they will add also the care of the sick in the hospital, and of a house of refuge for women of questionable character. Perhaps later on they will even be able to aid in affording regularly, each year, the retreat to a large number of ladies, according to the taste with which we have inspired them.

"So many works of charity would, in France, suffice to occupy several communities and different institutions. But what cannot a great zeal

[1]This account of the founding of our first orphanage in the quaint language of the time was obtained for THE SURVEY from a friend of the institution by Albert H. Yoder.

effect? These various labors do not at all startle seven Ursulines; and they rely upon being able, with the help of God's grace, to sustain them without detriment to the religious observance of their rules. As for me, I fear that, if some assistance does not arrive, they will sink under the weight of so much fatigue. Those who, before knowing them, used to say they were coming too soon and in too great a number, have entirely changed their views and their language; witnesses of their edifying conduct and great services which they render to the colony, they find that they have arrived soon enough, and that there could not be too many of the same virtue and the same merit."

After giving details relative to the visit of the Illinois chiefs, who had come to condole with the French and to offer help against the Natchez, Father Le Petit adds:

"The first day that the Illinois saw the *religieuses,* Mamantouenza, perceiving near them a group of little girls, remarked: 'I see, indeed, that you are not *religieuses* without an object.' He meant to say that they were not solitaries, laboring only for their own perfection. 'You are,' he added, 'like the black robes, our fathers; you labor for others. Ah! if we had above there two or three of your number, our wives and daughters would have more sense.' 'Choose those whom you wish.' 'It is not for me to choose,' said Mamantouenza. 'It is for you who know them. The choice ought to fall on those who are most attached to God, and who love him most. . . .'"

The records make mention of Therese Lardas, daughter of a Mobile surgeon. After her father's death, her mother brought her to the Ursuline orphanage, where she intended leaving her just long enough to make her first communion; but, when she came to take her home, so earnestly did the child plead to remain, that the mother could not resist her entreaties. At the age of sixteen, she entered the novitiate. She led the life of an exemplary lay sister, and died at the age of twenty-nine on November 22, 1786.

In testimony of the good education given to all classes by the Ursulines, the Rt. Rev. Luis Penalvery Cardemas said in a dispatch forwarded to the Spanish court, November 1. 1795:

"Since my arrival in this town, on July 17, I have been studying with the keenest attention the character of its inhabitants, in order to regulate my ecclesiastical government in accordance with the information which I may obtain on this important subject. . . . Excellent results are obtained from the Convent of the Ursulines, in which a good many young girls are educated. This is the nursery of those future matrons who will inculcate in their children the principles which they here imbibe. The education which they receive in this institution is the cause of their being less vicious than the other sex. . . ."

Up to 1824, that is, for well nigh a century, the Ursulines maintained their orphanage in what is now the old Archbishopric. At this period, New Orleans having spread considerably and become too densely populated to afford the advantages and charms of the country so necessary to a large boarding school, the institution was removed three miles lower down, to the magnificent place which the Ursulines hold to the present day. Owing to the encroachments of the great Father of Waters, they are to transfer again, within a year, to another site.

After 1824, several asylums having been founded for orphans of both sexes, the Ursulines received but thirty or forty poor children. In keeping with their sphere of life and future career, these children are taught English, French, geography, arithmetic, elementary history, and some housekeeping, sewing and laundry work. The nuns endeavor, above all, by religious instruction and careful training, to inculcate in the hearts and minds of their youthful charges principles of duty, so as to form for the future women of confidence, courage, self-sacrifice and devotion.

SOCIAL SERVICE OF THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN CANADA

J. G. SHEARER

The Presbyterian church in Canada does social service work through its Department of Social Service and Evangelism. Efforts are directed along several lines.

Social surveys of both urban and rural communities are conducted, considering not only religious and moral, but also social and economic conditions. An expert is employed who gives all his time to the work. He secures the co-operation of a large number of volunteer helpers, many of whom are proficient in various phases of social service work.

The problems of the city are studied and practical solutions sought. This is attempted in the following ways:

By evangelical social settlements, of which there are one in Montreal, one in Toronto and one in Winnipeg. Eight or ten others in the not distant future are planned for various other growing cities in the Dominion, especially where non-Anglo-Saxon immigrants are numerous. Our organizer and supervisor of this work is Sara Libby Carson, founder of Christodora House and various other settlements in New York, St. Christopher House, Toronto, and Chalmers House, Montreal. We also have established a training school for settlement workers, in connection with St. Christopher House, Toronto.

By securing the co-operation of churches and sympathetic organizations in every variety of general social betterment effort.

By establishing special redemptive and social missions on the crowded thoroughfares. The first of these was Evangel Hall, Toronto, in which evangelistic work, as well as various sorts of social work, is carried on.

The department has taken up in a large way redemptive and preventive work in the interest of girls, and associated with that educational work along the line of sex teaching among boys and men. There are five homes which are called social service houses, in which girls and women requiring special help are taken care of. Fifteen trained Christian women give their time to this phase of the department's endeavor, and there is also a large army of volunteer helpers. In connection with this work an educational campaign through pulpit and platform and the distribution of literature throughout the Dominion is carried on. From time to time legislation, federal or provincial, for the more adequate protection of girls and women is sought.

In co-operation with other interested bodies the department keeps up a steady campaign for the suppression of gambling, intemperance, sale of immoral literature, unclean theatricals, the social vice, and the promotion of the positive virtues, the opposite of these.

Special attention is being directed to positive effort and constructive work along all lines aiming at social uplift, and a good deal of legislation toward this end has been successfully put through.

The department has established a lantern slide and film service, and is endeavoring to supply through illustrated means elevating entertainment as well as information and inspiration.

All the evangelistic work of the Presbyterian church is done through this department, so that evangelism and social service are kept in close association in all effort undertaken.

SYNAGOGUE AND COMMUNITY

RABBI HORACE J. WOLF
Temple 'Berith Kodesh', Rochester, N. Y.

The changing relation of the synagogue and the community is proving the truth of the hoary platitude that history repeats itself. During the Middle Ages the synagogue was the heart of the secular as well as of the religious life of the community; it was a social center as well as a house of prayer. There the poor man found succor, the stranger acquaintances, the children their teachers, and the young people "their fates." It would be almost impossible to list all the private and public interests which, clustering about the synagogue, bore witness to the vital part this institution played in medieval Jewish life.

This prominent role was due to the enforced isolation of the Jewish community; thanks to the Ghetto walls the Jewish group constituted a city within a city. Once the Jewish population was concentrated into separate quarters, the synagogue became to the segregated community what the home was to the individual family; it was not only a place of meeting, but also a clearing-house for individual and communal joys and sorrows.

But the intimacy was broken down by the political emancipation that came to Jewry at the end of the eighteenth century. Slowly, as the old functions of the synagogue were taken over by special institutions housed in their own buildings, the synagogue began to be used purely as a house of worship; aside from this, its sole concern seemed to be the Sunday school. Applicants for charity were referred to the charity office across the street; social functions took place at the clubs; legal disputes were no longer decided by a rabbinical court. True, there were few large cities in this country in which the Jewish community did not point with pride to its magnificent house of worship; but in the majority of cases these gorgeous buildings (I am writing throughout of the synagogues of the reform wing) were dark six days and nights a week. In this respect, they differed little from the churches about them.

But the last decade, which has seen the rise of the institutional church, is witnessing the return of the synagogue to its former close relationship to communal Jewish life. The change is due to the same causes that made for the broadening of the work of city churches. The popular criterion of a social institution's value, it was seen, is its working efficiency. Men who judged by concrete and tangible standards, and their number is legion, were becoming indifferent to religion because it appeared divorced from life. The leaders of American Judaism began to appreciate that it was insufficient to proclaim from the pulpit that religion included charity, social amelioration, good citizenship, as well as morality and reverence; they began to insist that the synagogue should "monument its claims." It was urged that the synagogue should not only strive to touch the religious nature of the people with the conventional methods of prayer and praise and preachment, but should also bring to bear a system of institutional activities, social, educational and philanthropic which would bring it into contact with its members' physical, mental and social nature as well.

As a result of this awakening there is hardly a synagogue in the United States which has not some form of institutionalism—be it only a sewing circle. A questionaire sent out by the Committee on Social and Religious Union of the Central Conference of American Rabbis to its various members elicited ninety-seven replies. In these answers seventy-one report the existence of congregational libraries; eleven congregations conduct classes for the teaching of the English language and instruction in citizenship; six maintain settlements; two have labor bureaus; fifty list philanthropic activities, glee and choral societies, athletic clubs, kindergartens, industrial schools and dancing classes.

The committee in summarizing its report says: "The majority [of our colleagues] feel that all these institutional creations have helped to deepen the interest of the members in the synagogue and in each other; that they have helped to make the temple a center for Jewish communal life; . . . that they religionize social functions; that they stimulate the Jewish consciousness; that they prevent disintegration. . . ."

Once again the synagogue is playing a splendid role in Jewish communal life. Men are begin-

ning to perceive that the ideal synagogue will be in use at practically all hours every day in the week, will never be dark and deserted. The impressive appearing edifice that was tenanted by silence and gloom on every day except the Sabbath is becoming an anachronism. Our hope is that the synagogues that continue to slumber may awaken before it is too late, and take their proper share in the work of communal uplift.

DR. HOWARD KELLY'S APPEAL FOR CHURCH CIVIC SERVICE

The demands for a better trained ministry and membership in the churches are being strongly emphasized by such statements of what the community expects of them as Dr. Howard A. Kelly of the Johns Hopkins University medical faculty recently made in an address at the annual meeting of the New York Probation and Protective Association. In giving his consent to print some of his remarks, he writes, with special reference to his efforts against the social evil:

"I feel as though my own work in this field were to bring the churches together for neighborhood social interests. If we do not get the churches actively to work, I believe all the social developments of the last thirty years are destined to failure. I fully believe that a few strong men, say five or six in a city like Baltimore, can effectively put persistent effort into the work of amalgamating our churches for the expression of the Christian life in the active service of their fellow men."

In his address in New York, after stoutly combating, from his professional and public points of view, the policy of segregating vice, he declared that the social work of the church is indispensable to progress, and that it is the duty and the opportunity of the church to fulfil the need in this direction. He spoke substantially as follows:

"The most effective of all agencies in breaking down the strongholds of vice and in building up the national character is the church. For some reason unknown and unfathomable, some of my associates in this beneficent work who don't go to church fight shy of discussing any enlistment of the churches everywhere. Not a few who have never had any personal interests in the church even stand ready to declare, with a distinguished head of our public libraries, that the church represents the largest outlay of capital for the smallest return in interest the world has ever seen.

"The utility of the church in the social field is best defended perhaps by citing an investigation of over 1000 social workers of all kinds showing that over 90 per cent are church people, and I venture confidently to affirm that if the inspiration of the church direct and indirect is taken away from our various social movements, they will die outright in short order. I can furthermore now aver what I could not have said twenty years ago, of a group of splendid humanitarian workers who have no church affiliations, that this indefatigable but weary band has at last come to realize that unless the church comes to the front and does her duty this great purifying work will never be done.

"The difficulty has been that our churches have been too much afflicted with myopia, seeing little beyond the confines of their own four walls. They have also one and all slipped into the easy ways of formalism, and worse still, the laity have thrust the burden of their religious obligations onto the shoulders of a groaning, overladen clergy, trusting to discharge their own personal responsibilities on a cash basis by check. I am sure that the clergy are well aware that there is much to be desired in the social relations of the church to the community and I believe no set of men will show themselves more ready to advance on new lines if they can see that the movement is really a spiritual one and that a large service can thus be inaugurated.

"There are many reasons why the churches must be depended upon as the backbone of any morals movement:

> They are ideally distributed among the people.
>
> They have the intelligence and the means.
>
> They have a source of continuous inspiration needed in dealing with chronic distressing problems.
>
> They alone can guarantee perpetuity of effort.

"In utilizing the church, the minister must be the organizer and leader of his people. A new relationship between pastor and layman will ensue, and laymen, once drawn into a local work, will soon branch out into all forms of civic work for the weal of the community. Again, the churches possess the community buildings so much needed. The only other similar institution capable of a similar co-operation on a large scale is the public school which, while valuable and necessary in this movement, has not the independence and lacks the great inspiration.

"What, then, is the specific program for the church? First, of all, she must not abate but rather increase her dependence upon God. She must never yield to temptation to abandon the one really valuable quality she possesses by relegating to the background the living fountains of inspiration she holds in God's word, for a mere mundane horizontal social Gospel which makes a religion of the human activities which are but its appropriate outward expression. First a glance upward, then outward to God for the life, and to the human arena for the sphere in which the life must be manifested. This does not hinder but quickens the impulse to effective service.

"The profounder my faith, the more am I able to work in affectionate association and harmony with the many who do not see eye to eye with me here on earth; I cannot, however, continue to work with any who demand as the price of their help that I shall stifle all outward expression of my faith. He who walks in the light must sing of the light lest the light he has shall

A PRAYER FOR EFFICIENCY

O GOD, as to an earthly father, we bring thee each our yearning confession of failure to realize to the full the powers thou hast given us as laborers in thy kingdom on earth. May we learn through this, our mutual prayer, to be charitable to one another's shortcoming. Teach us, by love if it may be, by bitter rebellion, if it must be, that our prayer may be answered only as we are firm to lend a hand in mutual aid and sympathy to the less fortunate. Let each in strength supply his neighbors' weakness, and build up in him the efficiency which is his birthright.

Thus, in humility of heart, we pray for justice to our overstrained and blighted brothers who never catch up, who grind their lives into sieves of despair and deficit, each grist the harder because there is less of life to spare. Think upon the handicapped in body and in soul, for whose backwardness we are jointly responsible through our inefficiency. May we give them health and leisure and knowledge and so joy and inspiration so that, restored to themselves, they may in free good-will repay them a hundredfold, in deeds of brotherly gratitude and justice to others, for thy sake.

And chiefly we pray for those in whom we have put our trust; that their strength may be equal to the temptations of the power we have given them from thee. May they realize that not their own gain, but social justice, must measure the efficiency of their efforts. Bring home to their minds and hearts the far-reaching power, for evil and for good, of industry and government, of church and press; let them remember vividly the remote effects of indifference and negligence in the web of modern life.

May the getters of gold give justice to its producers; may its earners have charity toward its spenders; may the givers of gold be gifted with wisdom and courage; and may all social workers feel the weight of an especial responsibility; that the surplus wealth of which they are guardians may be husbanded for its true purposes and not be betrayed, nor delayed, nor wasted in their hands; that thou mayst have gratitude in turn toward all, for thy children's sake. Thus may thy kingdom grow on earth into fuller and more abundant life for each and all.—AMEN.

fade into darkness, and he too shall be left to flounder along the dead level of merely human self-guided impulses.

"The church must be a great, perennial fountain of spiritual and moral energy to the whole people in all the avenues of human interests. She must realize her obligation to champion the cause of the oppressed, whatever the cause and whoever the oppressor, whether in her fold or out of it. She must watch to prevent the rich from grinding the faces of the poor. She must when necessary provide for every legitimate desire of the people. If politics are corrupt, then she must enter aggressively into the field of politics, only for purity and not for party. She must fight all saloons and organize neighborhood opposition to their continuance, but provide too for some form of social life to replace them.

"The rich churches must be big sisters to the poor, providing means and sending talented workers wherever they are needed. If the church needs money for neighborhood enterprise, let her lop off her choirs and stained glass windows and bells, expensive altars, and put the money saved into human lives. She must discourage all extravagances which give the poor just cause for bitterness and arouse envy and set up unworthy standards. Let the church make a map of neighborhood conditions. This will serve as an object lesson and as a basis for action. In weekly classes she should then study such social problems as:

Social teachings in the Bible.
Tuberculosis in our city.
Prostitution.
Housing the poor.
Amusements.
Wages paid in department stores and factories.
Near town places of recreation.
Hotels, saloons and rathskellers.
The laws of city and state affecting social questions.
Our prison system—what help have the men?
Our various relief agencies—how far do they co-operate?"



ONE OF DAYTON'S MENACES
A heap of dead horses awaiting skinning and rendering at the fertilizer plant

HEALTH

SANITATION AT DAYTON

[The widespread flood disaster in Ohio during the last week of March led members of the Pittsburgh Flood Commission to study the situation. Morris Knowles, a member of the Engineering Committee of this commission, has had two assistants in the field for this purpose. One of these, M. R. Scharff, who had previously been employed by Mr. Knowles in making a sanitary survey of the coal-mining camps in Alabama, paid particular attention to the sanitary conditions resulting from the flood. The present article embodies observations made on this trip.—Ed.]

Following in the wake of great disasters which descend from time to time upon our cities, paralyzing the public services that make crowded city conditions possible, is the outcropping of disease that may, if unchecked, prove more disastrous even than the catastrophe itself. This tendency was discernible in the first reports of the floods that have recently devastated Ohio, Indiana and adjoining states, due to the heavy rains of March 24-28. Nearly every flooded city reported that its water works plant had been put out of commission, or the water supply polluted, which with the increased chance of infection, and the general lowering of vitality presented a situation of unusual menace and one demanding complete and immediate handling.

The most serious situation is Dayton, for here every sanitary problem presented at any other point was involved. The complete, immediate and effective organization to handle the situation which was formed there was typical of the effective work now done at such emergency periods.

At Dayton the water works plant was incapacitated by water that reached ten feet above the boiler grates; there was unknown damage to water distribution and sanitary sewerage and drainage systems; storm sewers and catch basins were clogged with filth and debris; dead animals were strewn on every side; the population was at high nervous tension, their vitality lowered by shock, exposure, cold, and lack of food and drink; hundreds of people were crowded for days in single buildings or dwellings; thousands, probably, had been exposed to intestinal infection by drinking the dirty flood water as it swirled through the streets; hundreds had only wet cellars and rooms to return to, if their homes were not altogether destroyed; and everywhere on everything—walls, ceilings, floors, furniture, streets and sidewalks—was a thick coating of the black, sticky, slimy mud left by the retreating waters. This in a measure pictures the situation at Dayton as the flood waters receded. And Dayton knew at once that the toll of the flood would be as nothing compared to the pestilence, unless attention and energy were directed to these problems.

This appreciation of the paramount importance of sanitation was a striking revelation of the success of the campaign of sanitary education that has characterized the last century. In every phase of the work of recovery, in the warning signs and directions on almost every post, in the placards on the automobiles of the sanitary department stating that "This car must not be stopped or delayed day or night," in the daily exhortations in the free newspapers distributed throughout the city, in a thousand ways, Dayton declared again and again:

"Sanitation first and foremost. Then everything else."

Such was the spirit of the members of the Dayton Bicycle Club, when they met as the waters receded from their club-house to consider what service they could best render to their stricken city, and volunteered to remove

the dead animals strewn in the streets. Such also was the message reiterated by the Ohio State Board of Health, the city health officials the representatives of the national government, the Red Cross, the Relief Committee, the Ohio National Guard, and every one of the splendid organizations that are working shoulder to shoulder to clean up Dayton and to prevent conditions more costly in toll of life than the deluge itself.

One of the remarkable features of the handling of the relief work at Dayton was the entire absence of red tape, the lack of conflict, and the universal evidence of harmonious co-operation between the various organizations at work, notwithstanding that there was no complete centralization of direction and that some of the organizations were proceeding practically independent of the others. "Results, not credit," was the watchword, and the results were such as to reflect the most lasting credit upon all engaged in the work.

The Dayton Bicycle Club showed wisdom in volunteering to remove the dead animals from the street. Nearly every horse in the more than seven square miles of the city that was under water—and this area contained all the important livery stables—was drowned, and quick action was needed to remove the bodies to prevent serious results. A sanitary department was organized, and as rapidly as automobile trucks and wagons were volunteered, they were pressed into service. Over 100 vehicles and about 600 men were engaged on this work. A rendering company, which handles all the garbage collected in the city, agreed to take care of the horses and did so as fast as they came for a time. When the carcasses came so rapidly that it was necessary to heap them up on the grounds of the plant, and then on a vacant field nearby, the plant was a grewsome place indeed. Up to the night of March 31, 1,002 had been received. A number were picked up the next two days, so that the final total was probably in the neighborhood of 1,100.

At about the time this work was started, a reconstruction department was organized, under the Citizens Relief Committee, with divisions, each under an engineer, assigned to street cleaning, sewers and drains, streets, and levees. By March 31, the removal of dead animals had been practically completed, and the organization and equipment of the sanitary department were merged with those of the street cleaning division of the reconstruction department. Sanitary notices directed that all mud and rubbish be deposited at the curb, the city was divided into districts and collection progressed rapidly, considering the wagons and trucks available. More wagons could have been put into service, but horses were lacking. All mud and rubbish was hauled to one of the half-dozen city rubbish dumps located in low outlying sections, or was dumped off bridges into the river. The employes of the city water works department were able to get into the pumping station on March 28 and the following day pumping was resumed. Dayton's water supply comes from a number of deep drilled wells along the Mad River. It is pumped direct into the mains without storage, by means of a Holly vertical, triple-expansion, crank and fly-wheel engine. This pump has given rise to the local name of "Hollywater" applied to the city supply. It was feared at first that the distribution system had been badly damaged, but investigation showed that only three small mains had been broken. Water, at reduced pressure, was therefore possible, except in one or two small sections.



AN IMPROVISED COMFORT STATION

Dayton water is exceptionally pure, but it was feared that there might have been leakage of flood water into the pipes while the pressure was cut off and so notices to "boil all water, even the Hollywater" were posted. Samples were promptly taken for analysis from various portions of the distribution system by the chemist of the National Cash Register Company, the bacteriologist of the city Board of Health, and by the State Board of Health, but the injunction to boil water was continued, even though the first analysis was favorable.

The catch basins and storm sewers throughout the city were badly clogged with wreckage and filth, and early cleaning was imperative. The city was divided into seven drainage districts, and gangs of men and wagons assigned to shoveling out catch basins and hauling the rubbish to the dumps. At the same time systematic inspection of the sanitary sewerage system was begun. It had been expected that the sewers would be clogged, like the storm drains, and the early sanitary notices issued contained these warnings:

"Do not use water closets. Contents will reach cellars. Use vessels, disinfect, and bury

IMPORTANT
Sanitary Notice
FOR YOUR OWN HEALTH

(1.) Do not use Sanitary sewers and Closets until notified by the Board of Health. Even if the hollywater system is on, the sewers are full of mud and will clog. Burn or bury all excreta garbage and filth. Add lime and bury deep. Use disinfectant in out-door trenches also.
(2.) Thoroughly scrub, clean and dry your cellar. Keep your cellar windows open: Remove and burn or bury all rubbish. Sprinkle lime around cellar, especially in damp places. Sprinkle floor with disinfectant sent herewith (two tablespoons-full to one quart of water.)
(3.) Thoroughly clean your in and out door premises.
(4.) Place concentrated lye or a tablespoon of disinfectant in each sink or trap in toilet, basement and kitchen. Allow to stand over night Do this every evening.
(5.) Boil all water, even holly water, and thoroughly cook all food. Boil all cooking utensils. Do this for months to come.
(6.) Do not enter houses which have been flooded until thoroughly cleaned and dried.
(7.) Keep your own self clean.
Do these things to avoid pestilence and sickness.
Do it for yourself.
Do it for Dayton.
Take care of yourself and you will take care of Dayton.

Maj. L. T. Rhoades,
U. S. Army.

ONE OF THE EARLY NOTICES

in back-yards. Disinfectants: carbolic acid, chloride of lime, bichloride of mercury, and creolin."

"Do not use sanitary sewers and closets until notified by the Board of Health. Even if the "Hollywater" system is on, the sewers are full of mud and will clog. Burn or bury all excreta, garbage and filth. Add lime and bury deep. Use disinfectant in out-door trenches also."

Inspection showed a much better condition than was anticipated. In all but three districts, the sanitary sewers were running freely and the warnings were replaced by new notices:

"Sewers are open and ready for use. If the water supply is not sufficient for flushing, fill the tank of the closet with a bucketful of water, and flush as usual."

Wooden public convenience stations were also established over sewer manholes in the business sections and in residential sections without sewer connections.

The three sewer districts that were out of commission were the St. Francis, the North Dayton, and the Riverdale low line. The St. Francis sewer is a gravity line, and a manhole at the lower end was completely choked up. It was necessary finally to dynamite this manhole in order to open the line. The two latter lines are both low, and sewage has to be pumped into the river by pneumatic ejectors. The air lines from the compressor plant in the water works pumping station were laid in the levees which were washed out and at one point about 200 feet of pipe was lost. This was difficult to repair, and these districts had to be left without sewerage until April 2, when a by-pass on each line into the storm drains was opened, and the backed-up sewage lowered sufficiently to clear most of the cellars and to permit the use of water closets.

While this work was proceeding the organizations devoting their energies to control of infectious disease, inspection, and administration had been far from idle. The State Board of Health had three sanitary engineers and two physicians, trained in public health work, in the city before the waters receded. The city Board of Health was one of the first in the field, and the medical corps of the Ohio National Guard promptly took up the work. Co-operating with one another, under the direction of Major L. T. Rhoades of the United States medical corps, who was appointed chief sanitary officer, and with the assistance of local doctors and nurses and those furnished by the Red Cross, these organizations soon established control of the entire city in a comprehensive and effective manner.

The Ohio State Board of Health engineers were assigned to assist in the water works, sewerage, and general cleaning up. Then, in cooperation with the city board and Major Rhoades, the city was divided into sixteen sanitary districts, with a physician in charge of each. These physicians inspected their districts, reported to headquarters, conditions requiring particular attention, instructed people in sanitation and followed up all reported cases of illness to guard against contagion.

The city bacteriologist reestablished his laboratory, which had been inundated, and took up diagnostic and analytical work. The state plumbing inspector and the state inspector of workshops and factories established offices, and joined with the city inspectors in pushing inspection work rapidly. Men were sent out to trace all contagious cases that were on the books at the time of the floods, and the reporting of infectious diseases and deaths were resumed as rapidly as possible.

Four contagious disease wards were established in addition to the tuberculosis and small-pox hospitals, two in the St. Elizabeth and Miami Valley Hospitals in the city and one each in North Dayton and Riverdale. As fast as infectious cases were reported or discovered, they were removed to one of these wards, and the houses placarded and disinfected.

A food inspection office was also opened, and all food arriving on relief cars was inspected before distribution to relief stations, that which had already been distributed being inspected at the stations.

The medical corps of the Ohio National Guard established a base field hospital in the new courthouse, and a supply depot in the probate court room of the old courthouse. In addition, seven relief hospitals were established in Dayton View, Miami City, Edgemont, South Park, the Davis Sewing Machine Company's plant, North Dayton, and Riverdale, with a surgeon of the medical corps of the National Guard and a corps of civilian physicians and Red Cross nurses in charge of each. These stations had maternity, general, and infectious wards. Hospital and proved infectious cases were promptly forwarded to St. Elizabeth's or the Miami Valley Hospital. The base hospital received all cases among the companies of the National Guard on duty; those which would obviously not recover in time for useful service were returned to their homes. The supply depot of the field hospital not only furnished the base hospital and the seven field stations, but supplies were also furnished to the sixteen stations of the sanitary committee, at the request of Major Rhoades.

An efficiently manned hospital doing all classes of work was established by the National Cash Register Company and the American Red Cross in the administration building at the National Cash Register Company's plant, and other medical relief stations were maintained in the city by the Red Cross.

Up to the close of the first week following the flood no unusual prevalence of infectious disease had developed. Some cases of diphtheria, pneumonia, and measles were reported, but the number was not substantially larger than that previous to the flood. When the conditions that prevailed during the first three days after the disaster are considered, with the strain on the entire poulation during the first days of reconstruction, it seems impossible that Dayton will escape without a considerable number of cases of intestinal and exposure diseases, such as typhoid and pneumonia. But the complete, efficient, and harmonious system of public health organization that has been established gives promise that no epidemic will follow and that the first cases, due to infection before control was established, will be the last.

THE FRIEDMANN CURE

ALICE HAMILTON, M.D.

As the interest in Dr. Friedrich Franz Friedmann and his tuberculin increases and a large part of the world is anxiously waiting to have its hopes confirmed that at last a real cure for tuberculosis has been discovered, it will be interesting to state what is positively known about this treatment, to what extent it is a new discovery and why the medical profession has shown such hostility to its originator.

In the first place Friedmann's remedy is not a "serum." Anti-toxins, such as those used against diphtheria and lock-jaw are sera. An antitoxim is the serum of an animal which has been treated with toxin-forming germs till his blood serum is full of defensive substances against that toxin. An antitoxin, as its name indicates, is an antidote to a poison.

Friedmann's tuberculin belongs to the class which we have of late begun to call vaccines, a term formerly applied only to the virus of cowpox but now made to cover all forms of virus which are used to stimulate the production of defensive substances. The real difference between an antitoxin and a vaccine is that the first contains an antidote and is an emergency remedy for an acute disease, while the second is a weak form of virus which causes the body of the patient to manufacture its own antidote.

What Friedmann claims as novel in his tuberculin is that it consists of living tubercle bacilli, while those in general use consist of dead bacilli or their extractives. It has long been known that living bacilli would call forth a more rapid production of defensive substances than dead. Dr. Trudeau of Saranac Lake demonstrated this twenty years ago, experimenting on rabbits with bacilli of bird tuberculosis. Later several Americans confirmed his results, using non-virulent strains of human tubercle bacilli. Von Behring's famous experiments on immunizing calves were made with living bacilli. So far therefore as is yet known, there is nothing new in the principle Friedmann is following. As to the details of his cure, we are in ignorance.

It will be long before any dependable word can be given out as to the results of Friedmann's work in New York city. Every physician knows that optimism, eagerness to grasp at every hopeful sign, are characteristics of a fair majority of consumptives. We shall need a much longer period of observation before we can be sure that this tuberculin has any superiority to the many previously tested, almost all of which have had initial success followed by more or less disillusionment.

Still greater caution must be used in estimating the immunizing properties of Friedmann's tuberculin. Friedmann treated over 300 children eighteen months ago and states that during this interval none of them have developed tuberculosis. It will be at least fifteen years before positive statements can be made concerning these children and then only by comparing them with a similar group of non-treated children living in conditions as nearly as possible identical with those of the treated children.

As to the attitude of American physicians to Dr. Friedmann one can hardly accuse them of unfairness and of narrow-minded professional jealousy if one realizes that he has violated three of the fundamental laws of medical ethics and, however impatient the non-medical world may be of much that comes under this head, no one can think that secrecy, exclusive-

ness or self-advertisement are in accordance with the best traditions of medicine.

A significant contrast could be drawn between the methods pursued by Dr. Friedmann and those pursued by Paul Ehrlich when he announced his new cure for syphilis. No charge of charlatanism or commercialism could ever be brought against Ehrlich. From the first, the medical world knew all about salvarsan, and knew that it would be put into everyone's hands as soon as Ehrlich thought it safe to give it out for general use. He insisted that it first must be carefully tested, not by himself alone but by approved clinicians, who would agree to use it only on patients that could be kept under constant supervision in hospitals, and who also would agree to make detailed reports of these cases. After this thorough trying out of the new cure, it was given unreservedly to the medical profession the world over. Undoubtedly Ehrlich could have come to America and reaped golden profits by keeping the cure in his own hands, for thousands of cases were eager to have it administered.

The Friedmann tuberculin may be what its discoverer claims it is, but the confidence felt in its promoter can never be the same as that which Ehrlich has won.

COURSES ON SEX HYGIENE

JANE R. McCRADY
ELLIS MEMORIAL CLUB, BOSTON

Last spring I attended in Boston a course of lectures on sex hygiene given expressly for social workers. The course was given at the request of a number who had been meeting for some time previously to discuss "what women social workers can do now to promote a better knowledge of the meaning of sex in life."

The course was planned by approaching the subject from various aspects, physiological, psychological, neurological, ideal and simply human. Talks were given by people whose interest in the subject was vastly different—physicians, social workers and mothers, and all showed a spirit of earnestness and willingness to help.

The first few lectures were crowded—overcrowded, in fact—which showed the great need people feel in being aided and enlightened on a subject which touches all to some extent.

When the course was over, there was a feeling of disappointment among some who had attended throughout. Many others had dropped out because they "could not give the time as they were not getting out of it what they hoped for." What did they hope for? The best answer is that when the opportunity for written questions came, nearly all the inquiries were "What shall I say to so and so when she asks so and so?" "What should be said to a young man under such and such circumstances?" and similar definite demands.

That was the point! People so often want absolute information on subjects in which "circumstances alter cases!" No human being can tell any other human being what he or she "should say" to a third person on any subject at any given time. Each of us has to give of his knowledge which is fed by his experience and modified by his temperament. We give this knowledge (if we are wise) to whomsoever happens to need it in such language as shall appeal to his knowledge, apply to his experience and adapt itself to his temperament. We can not learn how to do that at any lecture or set of lectures, and just as long as we expect it on this or any other subject, we are sure to be disappointed.

The great importance of a right knowledge of sex is borne in upon social workers daily, often hourly, on account of the many people they meet whose lives are exposed to dangers which with either wrong or incomplete knowledge they are not fitted to meet safely. It is frequently the duty of the social worker either to supply the knowledge or help in the situation brought about by lack of it. Often they feel unequal to the task and become morbid over the sorrows brought about by ignorance and their own inability to help matters. Lectures or books on sex hygiene are advertised; to them they turn for assistance. All too often are they disappointed, gaining no concrete knowledge of how to give an answer to problems on their minds at the time. Likewise some people go to a lecture or course given by some one who has been successful in connecting his or her knowledge and experience and giving it out. Afterward they come away thrilled and inspired and proceed to repeat like parrots the words they have heard.

Bitter disappointment at the lack of interest on the part of the audience is the result. I knew of some mothers who attended Laura B. Garrett's talks in Philadelphia, and came away eager to instruct their children. In each case the result was wholly unsatisfactory. They tried to reproduce Miss Garrett's words, instead of simply getting knowledge and suggestion from her talks. What they were imparting was not a part of themselves, not their own, therefore not theirs to give.

Miss Garrett has worked out her talks from years of patient, earnest work and hours of thought. She can tell us of her methods and can illustrate, but if we are going to use her methods we have to make them our own first. We must adapt them to our own experience and apply them to the experience of those to whom we are giving them.

The same is true of any other speaker on this subject. There is no fixed method by which a right knowledge of sex in life can be universally taught. We may learn how to teach biology or physiology, or how to adapt the law of life and

of coming to life in plants or animals to human laws, but that does not necessarily qualify us to meet the problems of sex in life or to teach others to meet them. There are a few essentials to the proper teaching of the meaning of sex in life and if we possess these we ought to be able to deal with our problems as they come, if we are capable of using our possessions.

First, a real living belief that our bodies are the "temples of the Holy Spirit," a belief which applies to all parts and functions of the body and makes it a sacred duty to keep them healthy and clean and strong.

Second, an intelligent knowledge of the body as a machine so that we may use it and not abuse it.

Third, a calm, moderate knowledge of the more common perversions of sex and their relations to other forms of nervous troubles, and a belief in human ability to overcome weakness and sin as well as to cure disease.

These things we can learn and keep on learning at lectures, but how to give them out from our personality to other personalities is for each person his or her own individual problem. It must be solved by bringing his or her own experience of life, plus specific knowledge, plus sympathy, plus common sense, to bear on each problem and so to adapt it to the understanding of the person in question that it will help the existing need.

When the Wise Men of Bethlehem presented gifts, each brought his own gifts, not another's. They were wise men. If we social workers are wise, we shall cease to try to gain from others words in which to express the knowledge of the meaning of sex in life and will bend our energies to gaining high ideals, simple workable knowledge of the use of the body and the evils of its abuse and an understanding heart and common sense.

Then we shall be able to bring our gifts to this subject and present it to those who need it in such forms as to be practical and effective.

A PLEA FOR COMFORT STATIONS

RELL M. WOODWARD
Surgeon United States Public Health Service

Travelers from almost all foreign countries describe the public convenience stations of foreign cities. In London there are many places where crooked streets converge, leaving perhaps an irregular open space or plaza. These are not all occupied by statues, as the city has attempted to provide comfort for the living as well as honor to the dead. Two modest iron stairways with suitable signs lead to two rooms below ground, one for women, the other for men, where toilets and urinals are found.

On the continent the provisions are usually less complete and in many instances in the eyes of Anglo-Saxon observers seem much too public. For instance in Paris urinals for men are located at convenient points, but some of them only cover the user from the breast to the knees. In Antwerp and Brussels urinals are attached to posts at the edge of the narrow sidewalk, and some of them have no screen at all. In Rotterdam at frequent intervals scrolls of sheet iron shaped somewhat like a letter C are located in the gutters of the sidewalks; the open side of the scroll facing the street. They reach from a point above the head to about a foot from the ground. In Italy there are places, notably Naples, where two slabs of slate set in a wall at an angle serve the purpose of a urinal. They are usually at the entrance to a small street or alley, and are not screened. The custom of ages causes the natives to pass by these without a glance, but to use them is embarrassing to the tourist.

It is not the intention to advocate such crude contrivances, but to present a plea for the establishment at frequent intervals of convenience stations designed for the use of both men and women, and with such surroundings that one may enter and leave without feeling the blush of shame.

Many American cities have provided a few such places, for instance in parks, and some of these are admirable in conception and in structure; but one cannot always remain near a park, and in winter when the kidneys are most active, these stations are often closed. One of the most practical stations of this kind that I have seen is in the Boston Common. It is underground in a small hill, with a wide stairway leading to it.

As one approaches it he sees that the room is lighted and is lined with white tiling. There are urinals, closets, washstands, and a shoeblacking establishment. It has the appearance of a toilet room in a hotel, and the place is well ventilated and kept clean. I do not recall how it is heated, but such places could be heated with steam from adjacent buildings or by stoves.

Cities must of course consider the economic side of any new enterprise. I believe that such stations, outside of the cost of original construction, could be made almost if not quite self-supporting, in the following way. Lease the shoe-blacking privilege to an individual for a good round fee, said individual to be subject to certain rigid rules and regulations, and the place to be subject to periodical inspections. The lessee should be required to keep the place in perfect sanitary condition. In addition to his income from blacking shoes the lessee might be allowed to rent a few closets, ordinarily kept locked, and charge a small prescribed fee. If the patronage of the station in Boston Common is a criterion it would seem to me that the city could demand a fee from the lessee that would cover all ordinary running expenses.

A woman attendant in the ladies' station, could be allowed the privilege of renting closets, and could also be provided with pins, buttons, and other necessaries such as are kept in the ladies' waiting rooms at department stores.

As a public health measure the subject must be considered from two standpoints, the health of the individual, and the health of the community.

Physiology teaches us that the normal adult

bladder, when fully distended, holds twenty ounces, but that a discomfort begins when it contains more than four ounces. As one advances in years prolonged retention of urine causes ammoniacal decomposition, with consequent irritation of the bladder. If the retention is frequent, disease of the kidneys must follow.

At present in most American cities there are few convenience stations available to the public outside of hotels and saloons. In nearly all hotels one finds a sign stating that the toilet facilities are for the exclusive use of the guests. This makes a stranger feel unwelcome.

Saloons are open to the public, but one dislikes to make use of the sanitary privileges offered without purchasing something. To a man of mature age, who is perhaps in the habit of taking an occasional drink, this phase of the subject has little importance; but for a young man in a strange city, driven for lack of comfort stations into a saloon the question assumes a moral side. The only way to avoid the saloon is to make use of an alley or other dark place, thereby breaking a city ordinance and creating a nuisance which gives the offence a public health aspect. The frequency with which this is done is evidenced by the familiar sign "Commit No Nuisance." In London I saw a sign that to my mind was much less objectionable and equally effective; it read simply "Decency Forbids."

The establishment of comfort stations at convenient points would I think contribute greatly to public health.

JOTTINGS

INFANT MOTALITY RATE IN N. Y.

The January Bulletin of the Department of Health in New York city shows that the downward curve of the death rate during 1910 and 1911 was continued in 1912 and that the lowest point ever recorded in the city has been reached. In 1911 the death rate was 15.13 for 1,000, while in 1912 it was 14.11. The difference of 1.02 between the two years means that 5,276 lives were saved in 1912, for, if the rate of 1911 had prevailed last year, New York's death roll would have been larger by just that number. In analyzing the returns it is found that the decrease has affected those diseases which the Department of Health seeks to control; namely, the acute infectious diseases, tuberculosis of the lungs, and the diarrhoea of children. On the other hand, there is a decided increase in the mortality from those diseases which seem to be peculiar to our modern society and which are not under public health control, organic heart disease and Bright's disease.

The infant mortality rate is low. Calculated on the basis of reported births the deaths of children under one year number only 105 per thousand born, and in all probability this is a little too high, for New York city does not claim to have more than from 90 to 95 per cent birth registration. The record is encouraging when compared with the figures for Great Britain and Germany. The rate for England and Wales in 1911 was 130; that for Berlin in 1910 was 157.

HEALTH OF LONDON SCHOOL CHILDREN

Only in the last few years has the law required every child attending an elementary school to be physically examined on entering and leaving and, therefore, statistics on the health of school children in England are only now available. About a million and a half children are now examined annually. The report of Sir George Newman, chief medical officer of the Board of Education for 1911, has just been issued. It shows the condition of 186,652 children in thirteen counties and sixteen urban areas and is far from satisfactory. Only in one urban area did the percentage of "good" nutrition reach 45, and from this figure it ranged down as low as 3.8. Of 200,000 children examined in London more than half were found to be defective and over 78,000 were recommended for treatment. According to this report the malnutrition is due in the great majority of cases to ignorance of the relative value of foodstuffs and the means of using them economically, and only in the minority to poverty. About .5 per cent of the children are feeble-minded and of these about one-seventh are of such low grade as to be uneducable.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE

The preliminary bulletin of the Fourth International Congress for School Hygiene announces a meeting, which is to be held in Buffalo, N. Y., August 25 to 30 next. The three preceding congresses were held in 1904 in Nuremberg; in 1907 in London, and in 1910 in Paris. The president of the congress is Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University; the vice-presidents are: Dr. W. H. Welch, professor of pathology at Johns Hopkins University and Dr. Henry P. Walcott, chairman of the Massachusetts Board of Health. The lists of vice-presidents and members of the international committee includes the names of some of the foremost men of science in Europe and Asia. Buffalo has raised $40,000 to meet the expenses of the Congress and to entertain the delegates.

3 TO 1 FOR TUBERCULOSIS HOSPITAL

That the people are coming to favor taxing themselves for public measures to control tuberculosis is indicated by a referendum vote on the establishment of a county tuberculosis hospital in eight towns of St. Lawrence county, New York. The public health committee of the board of supervisors failed to draw up a question to be voted upon in all the towns of the county as instructed by the board. But eight town supervisors took an informal vote on the question. The question carried in all eight towns. The ballots stood more than three to one in the affirmative. This is the first time that this question has been submitted to a vote of the people in New York state. Three of the towns are distinctly rural and only one of the eight communities is a city.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

CONFERENCES

April and May Conferences

Alabama Sociological Congress, Birmingham, Ala. April 22-24, 1913. William M. McGrath, Pres., Associated Charities, Birmingham.

Baptist Convention, Northern, Detroit, Mich., May 13-20, 1913. Cor. Sec'y. Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis.

Boys, General Assembly of Workers with. Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.

Charities and Correction, New York City Conference on. May 14-15, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Charities and Correction, Semi-annual Conference. Colorado State Board of. Denver. May 13, 1913. Sec'y, William Thomas, Capitol Building, Denver.

Charities and Corrections, Arkansas Conference of. Little Rock, Ark., May 13-15, 1913. Sec'y, Murray A. Auerbach, Little Rock.

City Planning, National Conference On. Chicago, May 5-7, 1913. Sec'y, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress Street, Boston.

Conservation of Human Life, Conference on. Portland, Ore., May 9-11, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing Reed College, Portland.

Colored People, Fifth Annual Conference of National Association for Advancement of. Philadelphia, Pa., April 23-25, 1913. Sec'y, May Childs Nerney, 26 Vesey St., New York City.

Jewish Social Workers, Third Informal Conference, National Association of. Atlantic City, N. J. May 29-30, 1913.

Mothers, National Congress of. Boston, May 15-20, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. A. A. Birney, 806 Loan and Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Peace Conference, Fourth American. St. Louis, Mo., May 1-4, 1913. James E. Smith, Chairman, St. Louis.

Playground and Recreation Association of America. Richmond, Va., May 6-10, 1913. Sec'y, H. S. Braucher, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

Southern Sociological Congress, Atlanta, Ga., April 25-29, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, J. E. McCulloch, Nashville, Tenn.

Women's Clubs, New Jersey Federation of Atlantic City, May 2 and 3, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. Joseph M. Middleton, 46 Prospect St., Trenton.

Young Men's Christian Association, International Conference of. Cincinnati, May 15-18, 1913.

LATER MEETINGS

International

Blind, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the London, England, 1914; probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

Children's Welfare, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.

Christian Citizenship Conference, World's. Portland, Ore., June 29-July 6, 1913. Chairman, Rev. James S. Martin, 209 9th St., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Farm Women, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

Housing, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe, director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

Infant Mortality, English-speaking conference on. London, England, August 4 and 5, 1913. Under auspices of the British National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, London.

Prison Congress, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

Student Christian Federation, World's, Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

Students ("Corda Fratres"), Eighth International Congress of. Ithaca, N. Y., August 29-September 13, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing the Cornell Cosmopolitan Club, Ithaca, N. Y.

Town Planning and Organization of Municipal Life, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, Summer 1913. General Sec'y, Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

Unemployment, International Association on. Ghent, Belgium, September 3-6, 1913. American Section secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23rd St., New York City.

National

Charities and Correction, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

Home Economics, American Association of. Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913. Information may be secured from Marguerite B. Lake, Forest Hill, Md.

Infant Mortality, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Kansas City, Mo., Oct. 23-25, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore.

Medicine, American Academy of. Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.

Officials of Charities and Correction, American Association of. Fourth Annual Meeting. Springfield, Ill. June 24-26, 1913. Sec'y, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.

Prison Association, American, Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

Social Insurance, First American Conference on. Chicago, Ill., June 6-7, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d St., New York City.

State and Local

Charities and Correction, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

EXHIBITIONS

International

Panama-Pacific Exposition, San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Frank A. Wolff, Washington, D. C.

Panama-California Exposition, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego.

Student Christian Federation World's, Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Exhibits including "social study and service." Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug 25-30, 1913. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

National

Conservation Exposition, National, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

Local

Child Welfare Exhibit, New Britain, Conn., April 25-May 2. Sec'y, E. W. Pelton.

Taxation in New Jersey. Charts prepared by the Bureau of Municipal Research will be shown at the New Jersey Federation of Women's Clubs, Atlantic City, May 2 and 3. Sec'y, Mrs. Joseph M. Middleton, 46 Prospect St., Trenton, N. J.

JOTTING

KENTUCKY SCHOOL LAW

A newly enacted state-wide compulsory school attendance law brings Tennessee into line with its neighbor Kentucky. Attendance at school is required of all between the ages of eight and fourteen and of all between fourteen and sixteen who are not "actively and regularly and lawfully" employed or who are unable to read and write. This new law takes from the map printed in The Survey of February 15 one of the five gray southern states that have had compulsory attendance only in certain counties.



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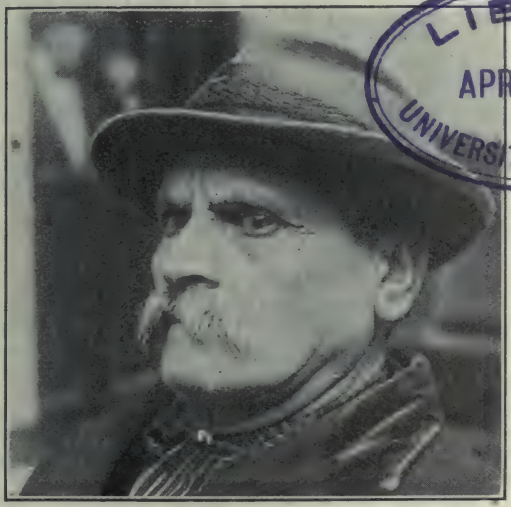
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THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

AFTER three years' fruitless effort to secure a federal charter from Congress for the Rockefeller Foundation, John D. Rockefeller and his associates are seeking an act of incorporation from the New York Legislature. Introduced by Mr. Foley, on March 25, the bill passed the state senate last week.

It will be remembered that the original federal act introduced by Senator Gallagher in March, 1910, met with sober and constructive criticism, based on the tremendous resources and powers about to be entrusted by the government and by the founder to the uncontrolled disposition of a small group of men. These criticisms were met in good spirit by the incorporators, who radically modified the bill so as to throw limitations and safeguards about the trust. Opposition to the project as a whole, however, continued in Congress, and when last March the revised bill, which was passed by the House, reached only its second reading in the Senate before adjournment, it was reported that recourse would be had to some state. In the interval New York had granted the Carnegie Corporation a charter, and to it Mr. Carnegie has transferred $125,000,000.

In its revised form the Rockefeller act won the endorsement of its constructive critics and the incorporators won public commendation by their patient seeking for a charter which would make Mr. Rockefeller's gift "direct to the whole American people, and forever subject to the control of their elected representatives." They have now, however, applied for a state charter without the following specific provisions of the revised federal bill:

Limiting the amount of property held at any one time to $100,000,000.

Providing that the income shall not be accumulated but be currently applied to the objects of the corporation.

Providing that the corporation may distribute the principal of any property fifty years after its receipt, and requiring that this be done after one hundred years if so directed by Congress.

Providing that if the number of members falls below nine, no gifts can be made until the vacancies are filled.

Putting the election of the members of the corporation subject to the disapproval of a distinguished group of *ex officio* referees.

Requiring a public annual report stating in detail the property held and uses made of it.

What the Rockefeller incorporators have done in turning to New York has been to follow the exact precedent of the Russell Sage Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, which are also unlimited endowments in perpetuity, managed by self-perpetuating boards. Insofar as their special charters do not provide to the contrary, they are subject to the provisions of the Membership Corporation Act; but that act does not impose any of the specific limitations cited above. Under the constitution of the state of New York, however, such special charters can be modified by subsequent legislation. Under its reserve power, the legislature can, by amending statutes, insert in a charter any restriction or limitations which it may hereafter deem desirable.

THE SURVEY

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THE COMMON WELFARE

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THE PITH OF IT

HOUSES are being set back on their foundations, furniture and bedding replenished, grants made to householders, and a slow but sure work of rehabilitation set going at Dayton. P. 129.

THE third national drainage congress in session at St. Louis petitioned Congress for the immediate consideration of adequate provision for flood control. P. 131.

FORTY-SEVEN volunteer bodies interested in public health met in New York last week and discussed a central national health organization. P. 131.

IS THE census office to become the odd-jobs bureau of the Democratic Party? A. Dana Durand, statistician and scientist, has been asked to resign and the chairman of the Georgia state committee—a man neither a statistician nor a scientist—has been nominated for the post. It is not the sort of appointment expected of President Wilson and Secretary Redfield.

EDGAR T. DAVIES, widely known as the head of the Illinois labor department, has been ousted and a political appointment made to fill what is apparently going to be a long drawn out civil service vacancy.

THE COMMON WELFARE

REHABILITATION WORK AT DAYTON

If the immediate adoption of comprehensive, carefully considered plans, and the unification of all important resources of relief can accomplish it, the Red Cross work in the flooded district of Ohio will mean rehabilitation at every stage rather than merely the distribution of supplies. This is the end toward which the efforts of Mr. Bicknell and his associates have been directed. The state and local authorities readily grasped the idea, and showed a real sympathy with its aim.

First of all, the Red Cross has itself received in direct contributions at Washington the sum of $1,750,000. Much the larger part of this was, of course, contributed with the appalling disaster at Dayton in view, though from the beginning it was recognized that there were serious needs elsewhere in Ohio, in Indiana and other states. The Ohio authorities received in contributions $611,632, and it was decided by the governor and the flood commission which he appointed, to expend this also through the Red Cross. Finally, the Dayton citizens' relief committee, appointed by the governor and presided over by John H. Patterson, who had taken complete charge of the situation even while the river was overflowing the levees and inundating the town, has been receiving donations directly. It has been selected as the channel through which Red Cross funds available are to be disbursed.

While Edward T. Devine and Eugene T. Lies went to Dayton originally for the Washington Headquarters of the Red Cross, they also are doing their work under the authority and with appropriations from the local committee. They are assisted by Amelia N. Sears, secretary of Woman's City Club, Chicago, who took part in the San Francisco rehabilitation work; Rose J. McHugh, secretary of Funds to Parents Committee, Chicago; Ada H. Rankin and Johanne Bojesen of the New York Charity Organization Society, who helped in the relief of the victims of the Triangle shirt waist fire and the Titanic disaster; Grace O. Edwards of the Chicago United Charities; Edna E. Hatfield, probation officer, Indiana Harbor, Ind.; Edith S. Reider, general secretary, Associated Charities, Evanston, Ill.; Helen Zegar of the Compulsory Education Department, Chicago, who was in special charge of the relief of Polish and other immigrant families at the time of the Cherry Mine disaster. These Red Cross agents are in turn aided by a corps of local citizens, especially principals and teachers in the public schools, members of spontaneously organized local committees, and others.

There is no longer talk of plans for rehabilitation, for rehabilitation is in actual process. The careful Red Cross registration which was begun before the end of the week in which the disaster occurred, is proceeding rapidly. Four thousand families had been registered and the supplementary visits largely completed at the end of two weeks. On the basis of this registration, furniture is being provided, assistance in repairing houses and cash donations of moderate amounts, and other measures taken. All of these are intended to be a distinct step, even if in some instances not a very long one, towards the restoration of ordinary family life.

Among the measures which have been adopted in the rehabilitation stage, as distinct from the emergent distribution of supplies, are the following:

Houses which were occupied by owners of limited means and which were comparatively slightly injured are being repaired by gangs of carpenters who work in one section of the city after another. The work mainly consists of putting frame houses on their foundations, moving them back across the street, or doing such other things as an owner unaided cannot do, but which a gang of half a dozen men, some of whom are skilled carpenters can do in half a day or a day. This service is not rendered if the owner is in position to hire men to do it, or if the house is so badly injured that it involves much labor and expense.

Owners of lots, whose houses have been entirely demolished, and who wish to rebuild on the same site, are to be given an army pyramidal tent equipped with cots and tent stove. These tents will be put up by a hospital corps, under the direction of an army surgeon who will advise where on the lot the tent should be pitched, see that sewer connection or latrine is in order, and give instructions as to the use and care of the tent, so that the investment of about $100 which the donation represents may not be wasted.

The greatest immediate need after food and

dry clothing, is for furniture and mattresses to replenish the thousands of homes whose furniture is utterly demolished, or so badly wrecked as to be practically useless. The first impulse was to ship in large quantities of furniture and give it away, or sell it at cost. Fortunately, a live furniture man, the president, in fact, of the National Retail Furniture Dealers' Association, was encountered accidentally early in the proceedings. He was asked whether the retail dealers of Dayton could not handle this matter themselves. One large furniture house was entirely destroyed, but twelve others remained. All were in the flooded district, but all proved to be uninjured above the first floor. On the first floor the more expensive kinds of furniture had usually been displayed. This was all gone, either bodily out of the window—these were the more fortunate—or in a hopeless mess of mud and wreckage in the building. The less expensive kinds of beds, tables, chairs and dressers were largely stored on the upper floors. It was, therefore, only a question of cleaning out the first floor—getting the elevators into operation—often a hard job in itself—and securing trucks or wagons for delivery. This was a still harder job, for those that were not gone in the flood had been impressed into military or relief service. But the retail dealers held a meeting of their association, and agreed to handle the problem, and later the department stores which carry furniture came into line. By resolution they bound themselves not to increase prices. Requisitions are therefore given after the Red Cross registration is completed, for from $10 to $100 worth of furniture, according to the losses and circumstances of the family, to be selected by the purchaser at any one of a dozen stores from a list printed on the back of the requisition. These orders are filled in the usual way by the dealer and already such goods are being delivered.

Transportation from Dayton and other points for women, children and disabled men has been given by the railways through to the real destination after the usual inquiries and precautions familiar to those who work under the national transportation agreement.

In the first few days refugees were carried free without question to points in the vicinity of Dayton, but on the opening of the Red Cross headquarters, this indiscriminate free travelling was at once replaced by the other system.

The first considerable issue of cash and furniture orders was made on April 9—about $10,000. Since that time the number of registered families ready for decision has been so great that it taxes the energy of the central office in spite of the excellent facilities at its disposal. In some instances these grants will have to be only first installments on account of a larger plan; in many others, and it is hoped the large majority, it will be all that is necessary. In each envelop with furniture order or check, Mr. Devine is inserting, over his signature, a printed slip as follows:

> "The Dayton Citizens' Relief Committee and the American Red Cross beg you to accept this expression of sympathy for your losses and hardships and their best wishes for the speedy restoration of your prosperity and accustomed manner of living."

FLOOD PROBLEMS TACKLED BY DRAINAGE CONVENTION

The date of the Third National Drainage Congress which convened in St. Louis April 10 to 12, seems almost to have been planned providentially. Just as significance attached to a similar meeting in New Orleans at the time of the Mississippi flood last year, the attention of this year's gathering was concentrated on the problems which the floods of the central states have so insistently raised.

Important resolutions were passed in response to a suggestion from President Wilson that Congress should formulate some plan for the prevention of floods and their disastrous consequences. The resolutions were addressed to the President and Congress. They urged that the government, under the welfare clause of the constitution, should take adequate measures to control the water resources of the country, and continued:

"We respectfully petition the immediate consideration of adequate provisions for flood control, for the regulation and control of stream flow, and for the reclamation of swamp and overflow lands and arid lands, and in furtherance thereof we pray that in your wisdom you create a body which will put in effect at the earliest moment possible such plans, in co-operation with the several states and the other agencies, as will meet the needs of the several localities of the United States, and we believe the most effectual and direct means will be the establishment of a Department of Public Works with a secretary in charge thereof who shall be a member of the President's cabinet.

"Be it further resolved that the wide scope of the problem of flood water control, affecting practically all the states of the Union, can best be conducted under the immediate supervision of the President of the United States in the exercise of such authority as is conferred upon him by the Congress of the United States."

Control and prevention of malarial diseases were the subject of another important resolution. The prevalence of these diseases throughout the country, especially in regions frequently flooded, was declared to be a cause of "great disability, loss of earning capacity and a

considerable number of preventable deaths." Since there are well established methods of prevention, the Congress established a section on malaria with Dr. Oscar Dowling of the Louisiana State Board of Health as president and Dr. W. H. Deaderick of Little Rock, Ark., as secretary. It was resolved further

"That the several states be requested to appoint malarial commissions and that the commission of the Southern Medical Association and other duly authorized malarial commissions be invited to join in this movement and that the co-operation of the federal government be requested through the United States Public Health Service and the Medical Departments of the army and navy."

These efforts to combat malaria followed an important discussion of National Drainage and National Health by Dr. William A. Evans, formerly health commissioner of Chicago and now health editor of the Chicago *Tribune*. He pointed out that the aftermath from floods was frequently more serious than the disaster itself, and referred to the fact that in the flood of a year ago on the Wabash River there occurred 400 cases of typhoid fever at Peru, Ind., and 100 cases at Logansport, Ind. The main burden of his talk related to the fact that with the drainage of low lands malaria could be almost, if not entirely, extinguished. Malaria was declared to be the cause of more disturbance and economic loss than all the floods. It was estimated by Dr. Evans that the cost of malarial fever in the United States was $160,000,000 per year. The notable reduction in cases of malaria and deaths resulting therefrom in the Panama Canal Zone since the American occupation was vividly pictured as indicative of what scientific effort can accomplish.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND JERSEY LEGISLATION

Before its adjournment this month the Legislature in New Jersey finally passed a grist of bills in the field of social legislation. A large proportion, if not a majority, of these were pending when Woodrow Wilson left the state house at Trenton, and, as often happens, especially in the case of bills which carry appropriations, they came to a head during the last three weeks of the session. Mrs. Alexander reviews the notable part the governor-president had in their advancement.[1]

While no immediate steps were taken by the Legislature to relieve the congestion at the state insane hospitals, a movement toward a serious consideration of the whole subject of state care, custody and treatment of mental defectives, including the insane, the epileptic and the feebleminded was inaugurated by a joint resolution providing $2,500 for a commission to report before March 1, 1914.

The Legislature decided to continue the Prison Labor Commission. In a general way the recommendations of this body were adopted. The Board of Prison Inspectors insisted upon retaining the powers of administration and control of the prisoners, leaving to the commission the power to plan and direct operations. The Prison Labor Commission is authorized to purchase a farm at an expense of $21,000. There is also $17,000 immediately available for stock, implements, buildings, fencing, fixtures and furniture for this farm. The general appropriation bill available next November provides $12,500 for the purchase of a quarry, $3,500 for the expenses of the commission, and $12,000 for buildings and furniture for the farm. The reformatory at Rahway has secured an appropriation of $5,000 for a foundry building. This is the beginning of a policy of trade school instruction. The output of the foundry is to be sold to state use account.

The appropriations for the other state institutions provide for a continuance of the research work going on in the several state institutions. The new reformatory for women at Clinton receives $25,000 for a new cottage, the Jamesburg School for Boys $20,000 for a trade school building, and the epileptic village at Skillman $55,000 to complete a custodial building and $110,000 for future building.

Besides these appropriation measures New Jersey has enacted a widows' pension law, which will be reviewed in a later issue of THE SURVEY, a bill providing for summer agricultural schools, and a new parental school act which permits their creation under the educational authorities. Another measure which was passed is a new compulsory attendance law calculated to fill the gap between the educational authorities and those of the state labor department which went far to nullify the effectiveness of the old law. "Add to this program," writes an enthusiastic New Jersey social worker, "a few odds and ends of laws and you can see Jersey is still hitting up the pace."

NATIONAL HEALTH BODIES PLAN TO WORK TOGETHER

At the call of the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association, forty-seven representatives of volunteer and philanthropic bodies interested in some special phase of the health situation in this country met on April 12 at the headquarters of the American Association for Labor Legislation in New York city.

Feeling that, with the multiplication of independent organizations, there is danger of overlapping of function, interference in work, duplication of effort and expense and lack of effective co-operation for want of a common program

[1]See page 140 of this issue.

of procedure, the American Medical Association early in January addressed a letter to the executive officers of about thirty of the more important national organizations suggesting a conference to discuss a plan for co-operation. This proposal met with a ready response. Among the bodies that were represented at the meeting held in New York were the United States Public Health Service, the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, the National Committee of One Hundred on Health, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, the Russell Sage Foundation, the National Child Labor Committee, the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission and the National Commission on Milk Standards. John M. Glenn, director of the Russell Sage Foundation was chosen chairman of the meeting and John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, who with Dr. Frederick H. Green of the American Medical Association had made many of the preliminary arrangements, acted as secretary.

Among the suggestions discussed by the representatives of the various agencies were the following:

1. A central national health organization, composed of one representative (perhaps the executive officer) from each of the fifty odd national health organizations in the United States.
2. An annual conference of this central organization in January at which might be discussed one topic of paramount importance in the health field, to the end that the work of the central organization during the year be centered instead of scattered.
3. Establishment of a central bureau or clearing house with an executive secretary and facilities for collecting and distributing information relating to the work of the various health organizations represented.
4. Provision of $10,000 to $20,000 for the expense of the central bureau.
5. Appointment of a committee (of seven perhaps) to study and carry forward the plans of the bureau of health organizations.

As a result of the discussion on these questions the following resolutions were adopted:

RESOLVED, that it is the sense of this meeting that we should organize as a conference, either independently of the American Public Health Association or as a section thereof or of any other organization which should later be decided, after investigation by a committee to be appointed to work out details.

RESOLVED, that a committee consisting of fifteen members, of which five shall constitute a quorum, shall be appointed by the chairman at his convenience, to report at a subsequent meeting.

WIDOWS PENSIONS IN MASSACHUSETTS

That the private charitable societies of Boston oppose the plan to transfer to the state the care of deserving widows with dependent children as an independent class is indicated by the hearings on the various bills now before the Massachusetts Legislature. Four bills have been introduced at this session. The first of these (House Bill No. 815) provides:

"If the parent or parents of a dependent or neglected child are poor and unable to properly care for the said child, but are otherwise proper guardians, and it is for the welfare of such child to remain at home, the juvenile court, the probate court, or, except in Boston, any police, municipal or district court, may enter an order finding such facts and fixing the amount of money necessary to enable the parent or parents to properly care for such child, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the county commissioners, or, in Suffolk County, the city council of Boston, to pay to such parent or parents at such times and as such order may designate the money so specified for the care of such dependent or neglected child until the further order of the court."

The second bill (House Bill No. 1369) which is even shorter, restates the general principles of the first bill without providing machinery for carrying its provisions into effect. It reads as follows:

"Children whose parents are unable to support them shall not be placed in state, county or municipal institutions, but if either parent, or any relative or other suitable person, is maintaining a home, payment shall be made to such parent or relative or other person for the support therein of such children."

House Bill No. 1366, the third proposed act, was prepared by representatives of many of the principal charitable organizations of Boston.

The bill does not so much state a new doctrine of relief for dependents as define more clearly the duties of the local overseers of the poor and more definitely chart their course in their work preliminary to granting relief. The avowed purpose of the bill, in the language of its proponents, "is to correlate the various public and private agencies of the state into one co-operative relief system under the general control and direction of the state Board of Charities and to use the local overseers of the poor as the active disbursers of the relief granted." It is also made the duty of the overseers in the first instance to determine whether the mother is "fit to bring up her children and that the other members of the household and the surroundings of the home are such as make for good character, and that aid is necessary." If this question is decided by the overseers in favor of the applicant then they are charged with the further

duty of investigating the financial resources of the family and relatives, although the law does not clearly state to what degree of consanguinity this inquiry shall extend. They shall next inquire as to "individuals, societies or agencies who may be interested therein." If they have by good fortune found anyone who is legally bound to support the mother and child, they are directed to enforce the full legal liability of the obligation.

They are admonished to get the family to work if possible, and to secure such relief as can be obtained from organizations and individuals. The law adds, however, that none of these directions shall be construed "to prevent said overseers from giving prompt and suitable temporary aid pending compliance with the requirements of this section, when in their opinion such aid is necessary, and cannot be obtained from other sources." The bill provides, therefore, that local overseers shall aid such mothers and children as they deem worthy if they can find no one else who can be forced or coaxed into doing it. The bill further provides that the overseers shall follow up their initial activity by visiting the recipients of aid at least once in three months and shall keep a careful detailed account of the conditions found at each visit as a part of their official records. It is made the duty of the State Board of Charity to supervise the work done by the overseers and to report thereon in its annual report to the state Legislature.

This bill was presented because of the report of the commission on the support of dependent minor children of widowed mothers, and the measure (House Bill No. 1770) proposed by the commission. The general court of 1912 created a commission to investigate the condition of widowed mothers, provided $1,000 for its expenses, and ordered it to report at the present session. The commission as appointed consisted of Robert F. Foerster of the department of social ethics of Harvard University; David F. Tilley of Boston, for many years a member of the Central Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul and at present a member of the State Board of Charity, and Clara Cahill Park of Wollaston, Mass.

The report of the commission and the arguments in support of its bill in general were:

That the present system of outdoor relief is inadequate;

That frequent separation between the widowed mother and her children occurs;

That the cause of the mother's dependence is seldom purely local but a matter in which the state in the large is concerned;

That therefore the state should grant the relief and not the locality alone;

That while all needy mothers, whether widowed or not, are proper subjects of the state's bounty, yet widows are in a class which need a different technique of relief.

The commission expressed its belief that widows' families were the most important single group in poverty and that they should be dealt with by a method unhampered by the need of dealing with other cases. The commission's bill, it was argued, would further break up indiscriminate relief, introducing state control and state standards for a great group of dependents, continuing the process begun for the feeble-minded, insane, blind and the like. The friends of the bill believed that the state Board of Charity administered so much relief that widows would not be adequately cared for by it. They urged that while House Bill No. 1366 in terms disclaimed any intention of regarding its proposed relief, pauper aid, yet in fact it could not fail to be so regarded by possible claimants. The commission called the aid it proposed giving subsidies rather than pensions, as it regarded its aid as in no sense payments for services rendered but assistance in rendering needed service to the state.

The report of the commission was signed by Professor Foerster and Mrs. Park. Mr. Tilley presented a minority report stating that he was fully in accord with the desire of the commission to adequately assist widowed mothers with dependent children, but that he felt that the report was based upon insufficient evidence. He further believed that the present machinery of relief was entirely adequate for the purpose desired.

The bill proposed by the commission provided for a permanent commission of five, two of whom should be women, who should have authority to order subsidies paid by the overseers of the poor, in such sums and manner as the commission should decide. The commission is authorized by the bill to make its investigations by its special field agents, and it is made the duty of the overseers to visit the family at least once in every four months and to report its condition to the commission. Two-thirds of the amounts paid to families who have no settlement and one-third of the amounts paid to all other families shall be repaid to the overseers by the state Board of Charity. No relative other than those legally bound to aid the family, and no private society shall be asked to contribute any portion of the subsidy.

The commission by its bill provided a new state machine designed to administer a specific pension or subsidy to a specific class of dependents. The bill proposed by the opponents of the commission's bill, defined and enlarged the present relief machinery of each locality. The purpose of the friends of each bill is unquestionably to render the same service to the needy widow.

THE MASSACHUSETTS REPORT ON THE RELIEF OF WIDOWS

PORTER R. LEE

Massachusetts deserves credit for being the first state to preface mothers' pension legislation with a formal study of existing conditions. The Legislature of 1912 authorized the appointment of a commission "to investigate the question of the condition of widowed mothers within the commonwealth having minor children dependent upon them for support," and to report to the succeeding Legislature "as to the advisability of enacting legislation providing for payments by the commonwealth for the purpose of maintaining such minor children in their homes." The report of the commission giving its findings and recommending legislation based thereon has been published as is stated elsewhere in this issue,[1] David F. Tilley, one of the members of the commission, dissenting from the conclusions of the majority.

The success or failure of the mothers' pension movement must depend largely upon our ability to avoid the mistakes which have characterized outdoor relief and other gratuitous payments to individuals from the public treasury, and to read into the proposed remedy a new and dignified meaning which outdoor relief has never had. It may be that both these ends will be difficult to attain. Certainly they can only be attained after the most careful study of the operation of outdoor relief, both public and private, to ascertain to what extent it has succeeded or failed and why. Such a study has long been necessary in the interests of the poor and of efficient relief work. To be successful it cannot be hasty, inexpensive or inexpert. Quite as important as this study of outdoor relief will be a study of the conditions under which children are admitted to institutions which must be undertaken with much the same end in view.

Those who have felt the need of more facts before enacting mothers' pension legislation have been much interested in the study which Massachusetts has been making. If all the possibilities of such a study were realized in this report, a good many of our stumbling blocks would be removed. The existing outdoor relief machinery, public and private, an analysis of its success or failure and a standard for future procedure would all have been revealed.

The report of the Massachusetts commission, however, gives us very little help. It is marked by evident earnestness of purpose; but its conclusions are of little value because they represent in almost every case inferences from inadequate data. To a large extent this is to be charged to the commission's inadequate resources; but whatever the reason the report as it stands does not give us a model for other states. It does not give us even a clear relation between the commission's own findings and their recommendations. Because the right kind of an outdoor relief study is necessary and because the example of Massachusetts is likely to be followed by other states, it is important to subject this report to somewhat critical examination.

The commission's method of study was fivefold:

1. A questionnaire to fifty-seven child helping societies and several public departments caring for dependent children as to the circumstances under which the children in their care were committed.

2. A questionnaire to various children's agencies asking why children are separated from their mothers in poverty.

3. A questionnaire to public and private relief agencies asking for "the total income and the sources thereof, together with certain other facts in each widow's family receiving through it (the agency) regular relief" for a definite period.

4. Special study of the Juvenile Court records of Boston and of the results of a day nursery investigation.

5. A use of analogies, observations and "reasons of a non-statistical kind" which suggest the desirability of legislation granting pensions to mothers.

Methods 1 and 3 brought the statistics upon which the chief conclusions of the report are based. But the commission itself by a series of statements regarding their accuracy robs one of any confidence in the results obtained. For example, these statements appear in the discussion of the statistics received from relief agencies:

"Because of its small appropriation it [the commission] was enabled to make a much less detailed and exact statistical study of the position of these widows than would have been desirable."

"The resources of your commission did not permit it to secure its information by the personal visit of an investigator, hence the information must be less accurate than it might otherwise have been."

"The commissioners believe that despite the limited accuracy of some of their relief statistics further study of the relief given by charities is not necessary."

Moreover, regarding the information gained from the children's agencies as to the causes for the removal of children from their homes, it may be doubted whether these agencies are compe-

[1] See page 132 of this issue.

tent witnesses. The standard of work done by the public agencies and many of the private agencies for the care of children in Massachusetts is unusually high. It may be doubted, however, whether any such agency after the most careful preliminary inquiry is fully able to determine the real economic status of a family which is usually a matter that requires long acquaintance. Many of these societies receiving children who have been removed from their mothers have very little first hand information as to the reason for it. In fact, the report itself, in discussing the information secured through this questionnaire regarding the insurance carried by the families, states: "The fact that the children's agencies failed to answer this question in so many cases was undoubtedly because they did not possess the information." For the same reason it is doubtful if they were competent witnesses on many other points calling for knowledge of what happened before the children came into their care.

The statistics secured through method 3 are condemned even more directly. After information had been secured through the questionnaire to public and private relief agencies regarding 1,258 families, Mr. Tilley of the commission arranged for a special study of one hundred of these in their own homes by trained visitors in the service of the State Board of Charity. These studies revealed conditions completely at variance with those stated in the returns received from the agencies themselves. The report itself comments: "It is clear that many records previously received from the overseers, especially, but also from others, were glaringly incorrect."

It is hardly possible to put confidence in conclusions based upon data whose inaccuracy is so clear. It does not become any more possible when the inaccuracy is frankly conceded by those who reach the conclusions.

Another method of study used by the commission—the compilation of analogies and other non-statistical reasons for proving its case—is rendered impotent in much the same way. In a carefully developed argument the report draws an analogy between the proposed subsidy scheme for widows and the industrial accident compensation plan. "The situation of dependents of men killed by industrial accident is scarcely distinguishable from that of these widows. . . . Consequently, widows through death of husbands by disease or other non-industrial cause should be dealt with by a similar principle."

After developing this analogy somewhat elaborately, however, the report says: "The commission rejects the principle of payment by way of indemnity of loss," apparently abandoning the workmen's compensation analogy just after making it serviceable.

It would not be difficult to point out other traits which are fatal to the report as a basis for scientific action, for example, its constant introduction of important conclusions with such expressions as "it is obvious," "the inference is," "it is not unlikely," "so far as information was obtainable" and "important inferences are possible." Moreover, when conclusions are based upon statistics compiled from different sources by different persons with different standards and possibly different interpretations of the questions asked, a report giving these statistics and the conclusions reached should give also a copy of the schedule used in gathering them. The report does not include the commission's schedule.

With the purpose of the commission to point the way to the adequate assistance of widows most of us like Mr. Tilley, who submits a minority report, are in complete accord. During recent years our enlarging conceptions of social treatment have condemned utterly much of our supposedly efficient work in family and individual reconstruction. There is a widespread conviction of sin in this matter and an earnest searching for the remedy. The mothers' pension movement is no doubt a result of this; but the conviction of sin and the earnest search are true of many to whom mothers' pensions seem a remedy of doubtful immediate value.

If we have failed in our relief work, the children of the widow are not the only ones who have suffered. Upon the children of disabled fathers, of incompetent and neglectful parents, of all those tragic families who fall outside the commission's category of "worthy," our sins are visited still more heavily. The commission was charged only with the duty of studying the condition of widows; but it seems to have taken some note of families of other types. We read: "Consistently, widows through death of husbands by disease or other industrial cause . . . deserve an utterly different kind of treatment from that accorded to the lazy and shiftless, the victims of drink, gambling or other dissipation or persons in transitory or emergency destitution. The commission does not believe that the same persons who administer the general poor law should alone determine the aid for worthy widows. Administration of such aid is sufficiently complicated, difficult and frequent to deserve separate care." It might be noted incidentally that the cause of a husband's death is not always a satisfactory test of a wife's moral habits, and that "widows through death of husbands by disease, etc." are not infrequently of the unsatisfactory type described by the commission. But a still more important comment is the following from Mr. Pear of Boston:

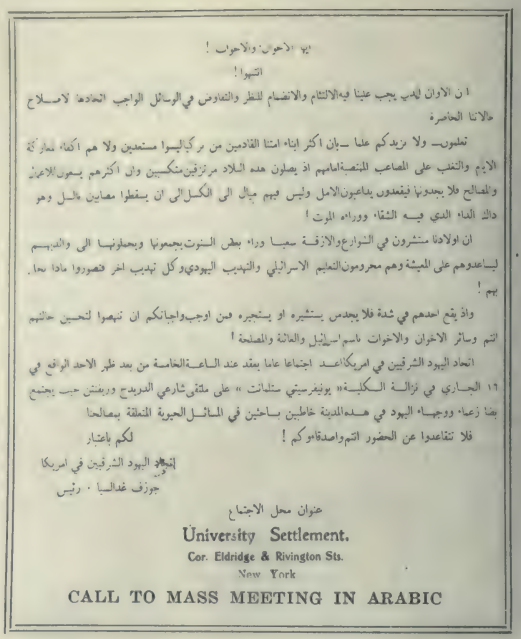
"It is well understood by social workers that those whom your correspondent terms the

incompetent, and willingly leaves to the care of overseers of the poor are really in need of the most skillful ministration. They too have children. To assume that they may well be left to officials considered incapable of caring for respectable widows is evidence of a complacency which social workers cannot share."

The report of the commission gives us much that suggests the fact of our failure to provide adequately or helpfully for the families of widows, a fact of which we had already become conscious. What we need, however, is not so much evidence of the fact of failure as a clear understanding of why we have failed. Why have public outdoor relief and private charity conceived in as deep an interest in the destitute widow as any mother's subsidy program, failed to satisfy either the widow or the charitable or society at large?

The failure has rarely been due to lack of aggregate resources. Nobody familiar with the enormous totals spent for relief, public and private, could doubt that. It must lie somewhere in the quality of the service which brings relief with it. To determine just where it does lie calls for a study requiring money, time and the sure touch of somebody who knows what to look for. The mothers' pension schemes which the various states have worked out give us very little that is new or of higher promise in the service that goes with relief. The subsidy plan that follows the study of the Massachusetts commission is no exception.

Few institutions have been subject to more criticism than public outdoor relief. No institution has been under fire so long with so little real effort to find out what makes it criticizable. It may well be that public assistance in some form is indispensable in this country and will be made to yield the results we seek. If so, its administration must be revolutionized. Giving existing outdoor relief officials new duties and responsibility to a new authority for part of their work, which is an important part of the proposal resulting from the Massachusetts report, will not revolutionize it. Nor will the giving of new names to old practices not otherwise shorn of the defects which popularize the new name do so. Again and again we have started with a clear call to do justice to the widow. Every time we try to translate our zeal into legislation we come square up against our outdoor relief machinery. Some one of these United States has a golden opportunity to make a study which will point the way to justice not only for the widow and her children but for every other person, old or young, who through our stupidity or his own fault, or both, finds himself forced to seek assistance. But the Massachusetts report does not point the way.



يا الاخوان والاخوات !

انتبهوا !

ان الاوان لهذي يجب علينا فيه الالتئام والانضمام للنظر والتداوس في الوسائل الواجب اتخاذها لاصلاح حالاتنا الحاضرة

تعلمون ولا نزيدكم علما بان اكثر ابناء امتنا القادمين من تركيا لسوا مستعدين ولا هم اكفاء لمباراة الايام والتغلب على المصاعب المتنصبة امامهم اذ يصلون هذه البلاد مرتزقين متكسبين وان اكثرهم يسعون للاعمال والمصالح فلا يجدونها فيقعدون يتاسفون الامل وليس فيهم ميال الى الكسل الى ان يسقطوا مصابين بالسل وهو داء الداء الذي فيه الشفاء ووراءه الموت !

ان اولادنا منتشرون في الشوارع والازقة سعيا وراء بعض السنوت يجمعونها ويحملونها الى والديهم ليساعدوهم على المعيشة وهم محرومون التعليم الاسرائيلي والتهذيب اليهودي وكل تهذيب اخر فتصورو ماذا يكون حالهم !

واذ يقع احدهم في شدة فلا يجدس يستشيره او يستجيره فمن اوجب واجباتكم ان تنهضوا لتحسين حالتهم انتم وسائر الاخوان والاخوات ناسم اسرائيل والعائلة والمصلحة !

اتحاد اليهود الشرقيين في امريكا عقد اجتماعا عاما يعقد عند الساعة الخامسة من بعد ظهر الاحد الواقع في ١٦ الجاري في قاعة الكلية « يونيفرسيتي سنتلمنت » على ملتقى شارعي الدريدج وريفنتن حيث يجتمع بها زعماء ووجهاء اليهود في هذه المدينة خاطبين باحثين في المسائل العيوبة المتعلقة بمعالجتها

فلا تتقاعدوا عن الحضور انتم واصدقاؤكم ! لكم باعتبار

اتحاد اليهود الشرقيين في امريكا
جوزف غدالیا . رئيس

عنوان محل الاجتماع
University Settlement.
Cor. Eldridge & Rivington Sts.
New York

CALL TO MASS MEETING IN ARABIC

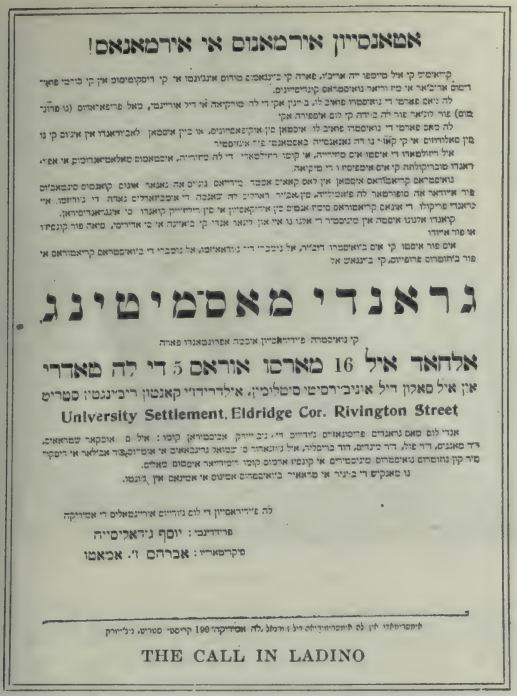
THE LADINO SPEAKERS

MARY BROWN SUMNER

For four years New York has had a steadily growing colony of Castilian speaking Oriental Jews. The major part of them speak a Spanish dialect known as Ladino, but use Hebrew characters in writing. Knowing no English, they have lived in isolation, the largest group between Essex, Rivington, Christie and Canal streets. The rest are east of Lenox avenue in about twenty blocks north of 100th street.

The biggest step toward the Americanization of this group, which now numbers 15,000 and is not yet too large or scattered to be handled by a group plan, was the calling at the University Settlement last month of a mass meeting of the race. Here Joseph Gedalecia, manager of the Free Employment Agency for the Handicapped established by the Jewish community of New York, and president of the Federation of Oriental Jews, and other speakers proposed plans for lectures on American institutions and opportunities and suggested classes in English for the adults of the race.

In 1492 or thereabouts persecutions drove from the shores of Spain the Jewish merchants and scholars to whom the nation owed not a little of its development. They were welcomed by the Mohammedans and settled both in European Turkey and on the Asiatic coast. Most of the settlements of refugees preserved their Castilian speech, and the Ladino dialect, which they use today, is only slightly mixed with Greek or Bulgarian or Turkish or Arabic words, ac-



אטאנסיון אירמאנוס אי אירמאנאס!

קיראנסיס קי אל מיסמי יזה איניבי, אשרה קי ביזנאסוס טודוס אינבאנטו אי קי דיסקוסיוסוס אין קי סיביי פוער רשטל אדרוכאר אי פיז וזראר נואיסמראס קיריסיוסוס.

לה נואס אפרסי די נואיסמרי מאוב לו, ביזיין אקי די לה סוריקאה אי דיב אדריבי, כאל פרוביאראוס (נו פולני בוס) צור וזראר צור לה בידה קי טוס אינסיוירה אקי.

לה נאס אפרסי די נואיסמרי מאוב לו: אינסאן סין אקוקאסיונוס, אי ביין אינסאן לאבראדאר אין אינוס קי נו סון פאלוזיוס אי קי קאנ׳ נו דה נאנאסיוה באסאנאס: סיי אינוסיוסי.

אל וזילפארו די אינסאי אוס סיזיוזיוס, אי קיסי וזילפארי די לה סיזיוזיוס, אינסאנוס סאלוסאראוסיוס אי אפי. ראנדו סוברקולוסוס קי אוס אינסיוסיוס די סיקוסאי.

נואסטראס קריאנדראס אינסאן אין נאס קאוזאס אכבר בידיזאס נו נייוס את נאנאר אנוס קאנסיוס סיבאנוס פור אידיזאר אה סוברואר לה פיוביזידיי סין אבזיר דאדוס דה נאכנה די אינסיאנדוס נעדה. די נידוסי אי טיאנדי סרקולו. די אנוס קריאנדראס סיסה אנוס בין אידיקאסיון אי בין וזידיזיוין קראנדו סי אינואנדוסיוה.

קאנדו אינוי אינסאי אין סיבסיבר די אינו נו אי אין ליאר אנדי קי בואיזה אי סי אדרוסי, סאה פור קונסידו אל פור אידיר

אוס פור אינסאי קי אוס בואיסטרו רוביזיה, אל נייסבי די בואיסטראוס, אל נייסבי די בואיסטראס קריאנדראס אי פור בידוסוס פוזיוזיוס, קי בינאוס אי

גראנדי מאסמיטינג

קי נואיסטרה פידיראסיון אינבה אסוציאסיון פוזה

אלחאד איל 16 מארסו אוראס 5 די לה מאדרי

אין איל סאון דיל אינוביוסיטי סיטליזין, אילדידוי קאנטון ריבינגטו סטריט

University Settlement, Eldridge Cor. Rivington Street

אנדי לוס סאס נאנדס סיסטנאדס נידוזיס די נוביוייק אבסטראן קומו: אל ס אוסקאר שוראוס, דיד סאנגס, דיד צול, דיד סיזוס, דיד סיסלה, אל נידואדו פ. שואר נידבואוס אי אפרסיקאד אבלאר אי דיסקר סד קן נוזוסוס נואסטרוס סיבסיזיוס אי קנסיו אינוס קוסי דיסידיר אינסוס סאלס.

נו סאבקוס די ביזיר אי סראוור ביואבסטרוס אסוס אי אסינאס אין נוסטו.

לה ציידראסיין די לוס נידוזיוס אידיבואלס די אסוציקה

פרידינט: יוסף נידאיסיה

סיקרסריי: אברהם ו׳. אכאטו

פיספרוסלו לין לה פיספרוסלה, דיל ו אדמל, לה אסדידקה 190 קיסס סטריט, נידיזיק

THE CALL IN LADINO

ATTENTION BROTHERS AND SISTERS!

It is high time for us to come together and discuss ways and means to improve our conditions. Most of our people come to this country from Turkey and the Orient not altogether prepared for the struggle for existence that awaits them. A good many remain idle, or their work is intermittent, and others, again, work in surroundings not conducive to good health, nor is the remuneration sufficient to enable them to earn a decent livelihood, resulting in time in poverty, and in some cases our people are obliged to live in congested surroundings with disastrous effect on their health, and some are becoming tubercular. A good many of our children do not attend religious school and roam the streets without having religious training or the ideals of our religion inculcated in them, which may prove disastrous to Judaism and good citizenship. No central bureau of information for our people is available when they are in need of advice of any kind.

Therefore we appeal to you for the sake of yourself, your families and your children, as well as for the sake of Israel and your country, to attend a mass meeting which our federation has arranged to be held on Sunday, March 16, at the University Settlement where leaders of our community and other prominent men will discuss the issues affecting your interests.

Don't fail to attend and urge your friends to do the same.

FEDERATION OF ORIENTAL JEWS OF AMERICA,

JOSEPH GEDALECIA, President.
A. J. AMATEAU, Secretary.

cording to the section of the Turkish empire in which they happened to settle.

These Spanish Jews preserved their standing as merchants, artisans or even small semi-professionals. In some towns, notably Salonika, they came to form the bulk of the population. They were seldom persecuted as they had no suppressed nationalism to defend against an invader. They never sank to the level of the native peasantry. Though materially comfortable, their intellectual development stagnated, under Turkish discouragement of education, until the young Turk movement of a few years ago. This was accompanied by a spread of popular education and with it knowledge that there was a world outside their own particular corner of the Orient. Ambition and a desire to see the world stimulated an Oriental Jewish migration which is largely responsible for their presence in New York city. It is almost the only Jewish migration to America that was not due to poverty or persecution. The Spanish Jews chose America as their place of pilgrimage in the face of the fact that the Spanish government has recently sent representatives to Turkey for the purpose of inducing them to return to Spain, an evidence that that country believes them to have qualities that would be an asset to the country of their choice.

The present westward migration of the Spanish Jew had less to offer than their migration eastward five hundred years ago. In New York their isolation has been complete, for the Yiddish speaking East Side Jew does not understand them any better than does the American, and rather despises their lack of intellectual attainments.

In physical equipment these people are superior to the Russian Jew; they have strong, handsome physiques. The men have drifted to day labor rather than to the unwholesome work of the garment trades. The girls alone are in these trades; it is said, indeed, that they have usurped the whole of the East Side kimono work from the Russians. Free from the weakening effect of European persecution, the Ladino-speaking Jews have shown even in their short and handicapped history in America so far, a daring business sense which enables them to point to half a dozen American millionaires of their race. The Russian Jew among his million immigrants can point to scarcely more.

It is to give scope to these native abilities by adapting them to American conditions that Mr. Gedalecia and other leaders of the race have for four years been working up to the mass meeting of last month. This was held under the auspices of the Federation of Oriental Jews, a union of eighteen benefit societies which the Spanish and Portuguese Sisterhood and the North American Civic League for Immigrants were largely instrumental in forming about three years ago. Night classes for Ladino Jews have been opened in two public schools. Intensive work has been done by the Industrial Removal Office, also, in distributing individuals in other parts of the country besides New York or sending them to Panama, Central and South America and the

Philippines, where their antique Spanish dialect survives and where, without the handicap of language, in more than one case, beginning as peddlers, they have become merchants. Many of those who have succeeded in business import their goods from the United States, thus becoming a medium of bringing about business relations between this country and its Latin-American neighbors.

THE COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES IN OKLAHOMA

ALEXANDER JOHNSON
Secretary National Conference of Charities and Correction

The fourth report of the commissioner of charities of the new state of Oklahoma is an interesting document and much of the work reported is unique for it is work not done in a similar way or not done at all in any other state.

The plan of having a single commissioner do work ordinarily done by a secretary and a board exists only in two states—New Jersey and Oklahoma. In Oklahoma the work has been developed along some lines that are intensely interesting, although it seems doubtful whether the conditions anywhere else will lead to this plan being copied.

When Indian Territory became a part of Oklahoma, the lands were allotted in severalty to the Indians of the various tribes. Much of the land is almost worthless, but there is a great deal that is valuable because of the presence of oil, deposits of asphalt, building stone, coal, etc., while a large part of the old Indian Territory is among the best agricultural land of the state.

The temptation to exploit these Indian lands, to purchase them from the Indians at a tenth of their value, has been somewhat offset by the action of the United States government. But among the Indians were a large number of orphans. Their land has been cared for by guardians, some of whom have succeeded in getting themselves appointed, with motives anything but benevolent toward their wards.

The legal department conducted under Kate Barnard, the commissioner, by Dr. J. H. Stolper, has taken up a vast number of Indian orphan cases. The results have been positively surprising. The legal department has not failed in one single case. The entire amount of money wrested from incompetent or dishonest guardians and returned to orphans has been nearly $950,000. The value of the land is not stated but it is probably several times as much as that of the actual cash returned. The number of minors represented in the report is 1,373 and the number of cases 1,361. These were tried out in thirty-six different county courts. The



KATE BARNARD

The Oklahoma charities commissioner whose administration has secured the return of a million dollars to Indian orphans under incompetent or dishonest guardians.

cost of handling this enormous amount of legal work as well as all the legal work in the office was less than $6,000 which covers the salary of the general attorney, that of one stenographer and the necessary traveling expenses.

The commissioner suggests that, as there seems to be some difficulty in appropriating sufficient money for the support of her office, she should be allowed to charge a uniform fee of $5 for each case of the kind which is undertaken, that fee going to the support of the Department of Charities and Correction. At present no fees are charged from any of the minors.

Beside acting as next friend of orphan children, the general attorney of the commission has been for a year or more acting as public defender. It seemed to the Legislature that there was as much need of a public defender as of a public prosecutor and accordingly, at the last Legislature a law was passed creating the office. This the governor vetoed, but his veto was not in time to defeat the bill. However, the question of the salary was not taken up and Dr. Stolper, attorney for the commissioner, was appointed public defender and has been doing the work. A number of interesting instances of miscarriage of justice which the public defender has been able to remedy are given in the report.

The report gives the usual account of inspection of institutions both state and county and shows that the commissioner with her very limited office and inspection force was able to do much more work than would be expected.

On the whole it seems as though the plan of a single headed commission is a success in the state of Oklahoma.

FEDERAL QUARANTINE AT NEW YORK

THOMAS W. SALMON, M. D.

Attention has again been directed to the unsatisfactory conditions which prevail in the administration of quarantine inspection at the port of New York by the report of a special committee of the New York Academy of Medicine.

This report, which was recently made public, strongly advocated the national control of quarantine from "the point of view of convenience, efficiency and uniformity of administration, economy and law." The subject aroused discussion in the newspapers a few weeks ago because the chairman of Governor Sulzer's commission for the investigation of state departments urged the transfer of this function to the federal government.

In the discussion of this recommendation, several important points have been overlooked. For example, there is some significance in the discrepancy between the large sums spent by New York on the quarantine station, which protects the country at large, and the small amount expended for the State Health Department, upon which rests the protection of the citizens of the state. Doubtless, as has been pointed out, the fees charged steamship companies can be increased so that the state will not be required to make any annual appropriations for the maintenance of the quarantine station but the health officer of the port has asked for an appropriation of about $1,800,000 for needed repairs and improvements. About $180,000 is appropriated for the State Department of Health each year. This constitutes practically all the money spent by the state for the protection of the health of its 9,000,000 citizens. Out of it must be paid all salaries and expenses of administration, the cost of collecting vital statistics, maintaining laboratories for research and for the production of diphtheria antitoxin, the control of epidemics, the inspection of water supplies and, in short, all the work in the prevention of disease in which the state is engaged. If the Legislature grants the $1,800,000 which the health officer of the port requests, it will give him an amount equal to that expended during ten years for safeguarding the health of those residing in the state.

Closely related to this aspect of the question is the fact, which has received little attention, that some of the largest immigrant-carrying lines do not enter New York at all but dock at Hoboken and Jersey City. Last year more than 36 per cent. of all the passengers who arrived at this port from Europe landed in New Jersey. The following table shows the passengers brought during 1912 by steamship lines having docks at Hoboken and Jersey City:

Steamship Lines	Cabin	Steerage	Total
North German Lloyd.....	51,920	118,803	170,723
Hamburg American.....	38,033	98,043	136,076
Holland American.....	18,611	33,877	52,488
Scandinavian American ...	5,265	13,064	18,329
Lloyd Sabaudo.....	652	7,119	7,771
	114,481	270,906	385,387

Less than 30 per cent. of the immigrants who arrived at this port during the year remained in this state, a large proportion landing in New Jersey, being examined at Ellis Island and going west by one of the railroad lines terminating at Jersey City. They were distributed over a wide area and it cannot be denied that it is chiefly for the protection of distant states that New York's expensive quarantine is maintained.

Much has been said about the advantages to commerce of the state control of quarantine at the port of New York. If $300,000 are collected during 1913 in fees from steamship companies, the amount will equal the earnings on $7,500,000 of invested capital. In other words, an amount of capital which would purchase ten large freighters must be set aside to meet the quarantine dues at this port for one year. If ten such vessels were tied up at one of the piers in this city for a year, as an object lesson, we would not hear very much about the advantages to commerce which local control of quarantine insures.

The tax rate in the Borough of Manhattan for 1911 was 1.72248. At such a rate it would be necessary to tax $17,000,000 of capital to raise $300,000 a year. This means that a tax equal to that rate on real estate in the Borough of Manhattan has to be levied on $17,000,000 of the capital of steamship companies to pay for a quarantine station, the cost of which should be borne by the country which it protects.

Another phase of the question which has not been touched upon is the relation between quarantine and the medical control of immigration. At ports where the United States Public Health Service administers the quarantine law and conducts the medical inspection of immigrants, the two functions are performed under conditions making each more efficient and also reducing interference with commerce to a minimum. The medical inspection of immigrants at Ellis Island, which is performed by medical officers of the United States Public Health Service, constitutes the second line of quarantine defense and not a few cases of small-pox and typhus fever which have escaped observation at the state quarantine station have been detected in the medical examination at Ellis Island.

If both functions were performed by the

Public Health Service at this port the work could be carried on much more effectively and with benefit to the immigrant—a factor which no one seems to have considered. When cases of scarlet fever, measles, diptheria and the other contagious diseases of childhood were taken off vessels at the state quarantine station, children died without their mothers, who were detained at Ellis Island, even being able to visit them once during their illness. At the same time a magnificent new group of hospitals for contagious diseases remained idle at Ellis Island. No better example of the danger and inutility of divided control could be found than this.

WILSON LEGISLATION IN NEW JERSEY

CAROLINE B. ALEXANDER
Hoboken, N. J.

In attempting a review of the social legislation passed in New Jersey during the administration of Woodrow Wilson, it is difficult to disentangle his share in its accomplishment. It is also difficult to distinguish between purely political measures and those which would be of special interest to social workers.

Measures for better primaries and corrupt practices acts had been introduced several times while he was still president of Princeton University. The Employers' Liability Act was recommended by a commission named by his predecessor, Governor Fort. The Consumer's League and Federation of Women's Clubs had been working for a long time to improve laws relating to the hours and condition of women and children in industry. At the same time, no one who has been in touch with the marvelous change which has brought New Jersey to the first rank of progressive states can fail to realize that in practically one session of the Legislature the astounding insight, force and influence of one man achieved what might otherwise have taken years to accomplish. It must be remembered that almost all the important Wilson legislation was passed by the Legislature of 1911, when the House was Democratic. The Senate, although Republican, was brought into line by the governor. The session of 1912, when both Houses were Republican, produced little important legislation, and the Legislature of this year up to the time when President Wilson resigned to assume his duties at Washington passed but one important measure—that regulating the trusts incorporated in New Jersey. The jury reform bill is still under discussion and will be the subject of a special session of the Legislature in May.

I shall attempt to give a list of the laws primarily relating to social legislation, but the great reforms which will always be associated with Wilson's name, although specifically political in their nature, must have a vast influence on the whole structure of the state. If our politics become cleaner, inefficiency and graft must gradually disappear and the citizens will grow to feel that they can trust their representatives with larger and larger sums to be used for the relief and care of the wards of the state.

Among these laws perhaps the most important are the following:

Limitation of the working hours of women to sixty a week, the first regulation of any kind for New Jersey women in industry; appropriation for the first time for the Woman's Reformatory which was urged in Governor Wilson's message to the legislature of 1911; standardization of trained nursing; establishment under the State Board of Education of special classes for children three years below the normal and also special classes for blind children; provision for the punishment of any person controlling a public place of amusement who permits the admission of children under eighteen years without a parent or guardian, and for any adult who encourages juvenile delinquency; passage of an act requiring that no pawnbroker shall receive any article from any person under the age of eighteen years; prohibition of furnishing cigarettes or tobacco to minors; provision for parental schools or house of detention for juvenile offenders; appointment of a special county judge for juvenile and domestic relation cases; enactment of an act placing New Jersey in the front rank in the campaign against tuberculosis; prohibition of the use of common drinking cups; establishment of free dental clinics; regulation of moving picture shows; employment of prison labor on roads; enactment of a comprehensive and scientific poor law; regulation of weights and measures; passage of an indeterminate sentence act; abolition of contract labor in all prisons and reformatories.

In addition to this legislation, it may be interesting to mention the appointment of commissions on prison labor, employers' liability, city government, public expenditures, ameliorating the condition of the blind and playgrounds in all cities and villages. Governor Wilson also made several excellent appointments with entire disregard of politics, particularly those of his commissioner of education and his commissioner of charities and corrections. For the first position he brought Dr. Calvin Kendall from Indiana, and for the second he named Joseph P. Byers. Excellent appointments were also made to the boards of managers of the various state institutions.

Governor Wilson with his wife and daughter made a tour of inspection of all our state institutions, which in contrast to the usual perfunctory governor's visit, was most valuable in bringing him in touch with the superintendents and with the various problems at the different institutions.

PERSONALS

FRANCIS GREENWOOD PEABODY, Plummer professor of Christian morals in Harvard University, recently retired from its faculty after service extending over a generation.

To the observant public he is known chiefly as author of several works on social ethics, such as The Approach to the Social Question and Jesus Christ and the Social Question or as a preacher and speaker whose inspiring thoughts are clothed in remarkably well chosen words. At Harvard he was a college preacher, and had a leading part in changing the religious exercises of the College Chapel so that attendance was voluntary instead of required, and there were ministrations from clergymen of different denominations. He helped to place the divinity school on a board basis.

His chief work in the academic world was the significant one of beginning and developing systematic instruction in the application of principles of ethics to pressing social problems. Just thirty-three years ago he began a course of lectures on that subject in the divinity school of Harvard. Four years later it was made a general university course for advanced students. In this said Mr. Peabody, there is "a new opportunity in university instruction. With us it has been quite without precedent. It summons the young men who have been imbued with the principles of political economy and of philosophy, to the practical application of those studies."

That course at Harvard, with the instruction begun at Cornell in 1884 by Frank B. Sanborn, under President White, was the beginning of academic work in this country, specialized and practical, in that field, and at Harvard it has continued, a systematic development. It is within the division of Philosophy. This means no lack of appreciation of the economic forces in society, but it points to the broad highway to solving vital problems through the field of ethics. This teaching so won the confidence of a generous donor, prominent alike in business and philanthropy, that the erection of Emerson Hall was made possible, with ample quarters for the Department of Social Ethics. Thus Mr. Peabody leaves the department which he has built up on the solid ground of continuity.

Among the hundreds of young men who have taken Mr. Peabody's general course and his seminary courses, many have been helped by him to be better citizens and neighbors. Not a few have carried stimulus caught from him into professional life in social service the country over.

The recent and really remarkable activity of Harvard students in social service, centering at Phillips Brooks House, was largely founded and fostered by Mr. Peabody. He has been identified with Prospect Union from its opening in 1891; a piece of university extension, in whose evening classes the teachers are college students and the students are all sorts and conditions of men from mercantile and industrial life in Cambridge. Long ago, he helped to start co-opeative stores, a method of bringing forward democray and thrift—which is none the less sound because many persons were not ready for it. He urged the trial in Massachusetts cities, under local option, of the foreign system of government administration of the sale of liquor—to which worse systems may yet bring us.

He was a leading founder of the Associated Charities of Cambridge. In these and many other ways he has brought the knowledge of a college professor, with warm interest, into the affairs of the community.

JEFFREY R. BRACKETT.

* * *

THE social survey is gaining recognition as an instrument for community advance so rapidly that the new Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation, which was established last October, has found it necessary to increase its staff. The work of the department during its first three months has been largely advisory—defining surveys by specific illustrations, outlining the steps for selecting a representative committee to back a survey or an exhibit, assisting in the choice of subjects to be covered and estimating probable costs. The increase in the staff will facilitate an extension of this service and make more field work possible. The new members of the staff are Zenas L. Potter of New York and Franz Schneider, Jr., of Boston.

Mr. Potter is a graduate of the University of Minnesota where he specialized in administration of governmental problems. This was followed by a year's graduate work at Columbia in economics and social economy, where he received the Toppan prize for the best work in constitutional law. After leaving Columbia he was field secretary of the New York Child Labor Committee for two years. He investigated the work conditions of children in the state, and in 1912 directed the cannery investigation for the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. The findings of this inquiry are being used in the campaign for better laws regulating child labor conditions in New York state.

Mr. Schneider, while taking courses leading to his bachelor's and master's degrees at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, gave special attention to subjects in the field of public health and sanitation. Since 1910 he has taught in the institute, and will leave the position of research associate in the sanitary research laboratories to join the Department of Surveys and Exhibits. In the summer of 1911 he was employed in Kansas on special investigations into the bacteriology of the egg-packing industry, and during the summer of 1912 on an investigation into the fundamental principles of ventilation. For the last year he has helped edit the *American Journal of Public Health* and at present is health officer of Wellesley, Mass. The latter work is part of a plan which is being worked out with Prof. E. B. Phelps, also of the institute, to build up an organization to operate the Board of Health work of small towns in

the neighborhood of Boston. The aim is to give these towns a service comparable to that of the large cities, a service which they alone could not afford.

* * *

A YOUNG sanitary inspector in a mid-western city had his suspicions of a new milk company. He never seemed to be able to catch the wagon as it drove into town, so one day he jumped on his bicycle and rode out to the farm to get a sample. The man was not there, and his wife said that they had no milk left on the place that morning. The inspector's suspicions were more than ever aroused, and he made a search of ice boxes and cooling places, only to find no milk. It is a very easy thing for milk to disappear when an inspector turns in at the gate. Nothing daunted, therefore, he pulled down a pail from its peg, marched out to the pasture, cornered a cow, milked her, and, sample in hand, rode back to the city triumphant.

The health commissioner is wonderfully proud of this spirit of not-to-be-balkedness in his inspector. He has the makings in him of a master of public health. But the commissioner felt obliged to explain to his assistant with as sober a face as he could muster, that up to date in that part of the commonwealth they had not hitherto arrested a single cow for putting formaldehyde in her milk or for diluting it.

* * *

CHILDHOOD'S BILL OF RIGHTS, printed some time ago in THE SURVEY[1], has developed an ever widening influence. One enthusiastic friend sent it during the past Christmas season to some forty foreign lands. V. H. Lockwood, author of the bill, is a busy Indianapolis attorney but he finds time for social service whether called upon to act as judge *pro tem* of the juvenile court, as the vice-president of the Children's Aid Association, or on a committee of the State Conference of Charities. His special interest just now is the work of the vice committee of the Indianapolis Church Federation.

Mr. Lockwood, long ago, became interested in the juvenile court. He was frequently consulted by Judge Stubbs, the first juvenile court judge in Indiana, and for several years was one of his substitutes on the bench. Out of this experience grew the Bill of Rights which was jotted down in his notebook years ago. From it grew also the Children's Aid Association, which Mr. Lockwood helped to organize for the purpose of saving children from being taken into court. He has also co-operated in drafting several of Indiana's laws for the safeguarding of children, particularly those having to do with the juvenile court, contributory delinquency, the licensing of maternity hospitals and children's institutions, and child labor.

To Mrs. Lockwood, however, is due most of the credit in connection with Indiana's child labor law. She has for several years been secretary of the State Child Labor Committee and

[1]See THE SURVEY, December 14, 1912, p. 341.



MRS. V. H. LOCKWOOD

has been active in other welfare work. Two years spent under the direction of the National Child Labor Committee in investigating conditions in Indiana armed her with facts which were used effectively before the two legislatures which considered the child labor bill. The first attempt met with defeat, but the next session passed the present law. Between the two sessions Mrs. Lockwood traveled over the state, working to educate the people through the clubs and schools. She is one of the lecturers of the Indiana Federation of Clubs, and takes a part in many branches of social welfare work in Indianapolis.

* * *

A Sunny Life: The biography of Samuel June Barrows, is the title of a volume which Little, Brown and Company are to bring out in April. The author is Mrs. Barrows. Readers of THE SURVEY who knew the former president of the International Prison Congress, but who had only glimpses of his remarkable experiences as editor, congressman, minister, digger of Greek temples, and follower of Custer on the plains, will look forward to this record of the man by his comrade and fellow worker of fifty years.

* * *

FLOYD J. MILLER, who has been in newspaper work for six years, has left the staff of the Detroit *Free Press* to become financial secretary of the Detroit Associated Charities.

TREND

FROM the pages of John Gower, a correspondent of the New York *Evening Post* takes the following passage, in the hope that the trials of a housekeeper in the fifteenth century may bring consolation to the householder of today. Says the worthy Gower:

> Man is so constituted as to require above all else food and drink. So it is no wonder if I speak of victualers, whose principle it is to deceive and to practice fraud. I will begin, as an instance, with the tavern-keeper and his wine-cellar. . . . If his red or white wine loses its proper color, he mixes it freely to procure the proper shade. . . . If I stop in to fill my flask, he gives me of his best wine to taste, and then fills my flask with some cheap stuff. He pretends to have any foreign vintage that one desires, but under divers names he draws ten kinds from the same barrel. . . . The poor people complain with reason that their beer is made from an inferior quality of grain, while good beer is almost as dear as wine. If you give an order for beer to be delivered at the house, the inn-keeper will send a good quality once or twice until he gets your trade, and then he sends worse at the same price. . . . Every one in the city is complaining of the short-weight loaves the bakers sell, and wheat is stored with the intention to boost the price of bread. . . . Whether you buy at wholesale or retail, you have to pay the butcher twice the right price for beef and lamb. Lean beef is fattened by larding it, but the skewers are left in and ruin the carver's knife. . . . To fetch their price, butchers often hold back meat until it is bad, when they try to sell it rather than cast it to the dogs. . . . Poulterers sell as fresh game what has been killed ten days before (!). . . . For my own part, I can dispense with partridges, pheasants, and plovers. But capons and geese are almost as high nowadays as hens.
>
> Yet, if all those of whom I have spoken agreed to be fair and just, there would still be unfairness in the world. For even laborers are unfair, and will not willingly subject themselves to what is reasonable, claiming high wages for little work; they want five or six shillings for the work they formerly did for two. In old times workingmen did not expect to eat wheat bread, but were satisfied with coarser bread and with water to drink, regarding cheese and milk as a treat. I cannot find one servant of that sort now in the market (*i. e.*, intelligence office!). They are all extravagant in their dress, and it would be easier to satisfy two gentlemen than one such ill-bred servant. They are neither faithful, polite or well-behaved. Many are too proud to serve like their fathers. . . . The fault lies with the lethargy of the gentry, who pay no heed to this folly of the lower classes; but, unless care be taken, these tares will soon spring up, and the insurgence of these classes is to be feared like a flood or a fire.
>
> The trouble is that no one is satisfied with his own estate; lord, prelate, commoner—each accuses the other. The lower classes blame the gentleman and the townsman, and the upper classes blame the lower, and all is in confusion. . . . The days prophesied by Hosea are come to pass, when there shall be no wisdom in the earth. I know not if the fault lie with laymen or churchmen, but all unite in the common cry: "the times are bad, the times are bad."

* * *

ANNIE LAWS (*Kindergarten Review*) believes that she can trace the social spirit of the kindergartner as an important factor in stimulating, and in some cases, even initiating, many of the social movements of today, among them playgrounds, social centers, vacation schools, public libraries, mothers' clubs and school and home gardens.

The relation between the kindergarten and the big world outside the kindergarten Miss Laws states as follows:

> Some one has said that "the primary aim of the kindergarten is to create a miniature world which shall be to the child a faithful portrait of the greater world in its ideal aspects."
>
> If the kindergarten can bring to each and all of us its aid in helping us to create for ourselves a miniature world, which shall be a faithful portrait of the greater world in its ideal aspects; and if it can aid in making us content to give to our communities the service for which we are best fitted, and can teach us to so live that not so much social efficiency as social reciprocity shall be our aim and purpose, then we shall all agree to give to the kindergarten its true place as one of the most valuable factors of social life and social work of the present time, one worthy of our best thought and effort.

* * *

A CONTRAST

LAURA SIMMONS

Across the gloom a shadow flits; I glimpse a sodden face
Wherein the years of sin and toil and care have left their trace;
A wanton laugh—I mark no more, for yonder in the glow
One waiteth me—my love, my star! with welcoming, I know;
Tender and fine is she; withal so stately sweet and fair
My grateful heart thrills thanks to Heaven, to see her standing there!
If this be Woman—pure, benign, Man's blessed beacon-light,
Then—Christ! What that poor outcast soul that passed me in the night?

THE following striking comparison is from The Road from Jerusalem to Jericho (*Good Housekeeping*), a plea by Frances Duncan for votes for women on the ground that woman is the ideal samaritan; man the priest and the Levite who at the present time alone has the power, but lacks the inclination, to stoop to care for the injured by righting social wrongs, especially those affecting women. Miss Duncan tells of a haunting drawing by Frederick Remington:

> The central figure is that of a man who has been taken by a band of Indians; four or five of his captors are about him, and you see the relentless faces lit with the grim joy of capture. Around the man's neck a noose hangs loosely; about him he sees only the inexorable faces, the wide stretches of the plains, the silences in which there is no help. The man looks past the plains into the ghastly future that is just ahead. The picture is called "Missing."
>
> In this country hardly a day goes by but in it is enacted a tragedy worse than that of Remington's picture; and it's called by the same name. Take up a paper almost any day in New York and you read of the disappearance of a girl of fourteen or fifteen or sixteen, or of the suicide of a girl who has been caught in the horrible undertow from which, as far as society is concerned, there is no return. Within the last year, on the various routes between New York and Chicago, no less than nine hundred and sixty girls have disappeared.

* * *

THE UNDER DOGS

HORATIO WINSLOW in the *Coming Nation*

If I had not heard the bitter cry,
If I had not seen the bleeding feet—
I think I should echo the salving lie
That toil is jolly and chains are sweet.

If I had not walked the bedless night,
If I had not lived the mealless day—
I think I should censure the appetite
Of thieves that pilfer and fools that slay.

If I had not heard and seen and felt
And wept for lack of a pathway out—
Most like I should pat an expansive belt
And say nice things of the Russian knout.

* * *

A WOMAN of philanthropic tendencies was paying a visit to a lower East Side school. She was particularly interested in a group of poor pupils and asked permission to question them.

"Children, which is the greatest of all virtues?"

No one answered.

"Now, think a little. What is it I am doing when I give up time and pleasure to come and talk with you for your own good?"

A grimy hand went up in the rear of the room.

"'Please, ma'am, youse are buttin' in."—*The Delineator.*

THE *Ladies Home Journal* believes that, no less than factory and commercial worker, the oldest of home workers—the "domestic"—should be protected by standardization of wages, hours and living conditions. An editorial in the March issue says:

> There is today practically no standard of wages for domestic help. The wages vary in different cities: in fact they vary in a city and a neighboring suburb. One "employment agency" fixes one wage: another settles on a different wage. There is no equitable fairness either to mistress or servant. No one really knows what is fair. The same haphazard system applies to hours of work. Neither employer nor servant knows what constitutes a fair day's work for a cook or a maid. The whole question should be threshed out and adjusted to a standard just as are other branches of labor. Whether the eight-hour idea can be effectively worked out in the home is a question: more likely we shall have to begin on a ten-hour-day basis and gradually adjust ourselves to an eight-hour schedule with extra pay for extra hours. Employer and helper should know exactly where each stands on both questions of hours and wages. There is no further reason why, gradually, the system of our servants living outside of our homes should not be generally brought into vogue—the same as the working women engaged in all business lines. It is now done in "flats" and "apartments" where there is no room for servants' quarters, and there is really no reason why the system should not be followed in houses where there is room. This would give a freedom of life to the servant that she does not now have, and which lack of freedom, and hours of her own and a life of her own, is the chief source of objection to domestic service, while the employers' gain would lie in the fact that our homes could be smaller in proportion to the number of servants for whom we must now have rooms. In other words there seems to be no practical reason, except a blind adherence to custom, why the worker in the home should not be placed on exactly the same basis as the worker in the office, the store or the factory. That this idea is destined to come in the future, and in the near future, admits of no doubt. Of course it will take some time to consider all the phases of the matter that make home service different from office or store service. But we shall never solve the question of domestic service until we first place it on a practical business basis.

* * *

IN the library of Clark University the volumes of Charles Booth's Life and Labor of London are bound under the title A Survey of London.

BOOKS

THE EVOLUTION OF A COUNTRY COMMUNITY

By WARREN H. WILSON. The Pilgrim Press. 221 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

Because Dr. Wilson has made a clear and pointed statement of fundamental conditions, the student of rural sociology is grateful for this book, even though much of what it contains is obvious to him. Throughout, the writer shows his belief that the rural population can be improved by a socially actuated church. Although he believes that a country church should be inspirational he makes clear the fact that the church cannot succeed unless it enters into the whole life of the farm, economic and otherwise. For instance, Dr. Wilson very properly insists that if a farmer is producing but sixty bushels of potatoes on an acre of land which should yield three hundred bushels he is guilty of a wrong that should be denounced just as stridently as the doctrinal sins which have so long occupied the attention of rural pastors. In the co-operation of these activities rather than in actual union the writer sees promise of a solution of many of the problems of the country church. He shows clearly that people cannot be united in religion until they are united in their social economy.

"The business of the church is to organize co-operative enterprises, economic, social and educational, and . . . to educate them in the advantages of life together. Co-operation must become a gospel."

This definition of the business of the church may seem rather heterodox, coming from the head of a Presbyterian department, but the department of which Dr. Wilson is the head has reached its widely recognized effectiveness because it has been actuated by such aggressive common sense as this.

That the volume is dedicated to Anna B. Taft, who has contributed so largely to the success of the movement to reanimate country churches, is indeed pleasant. Dr. Wilson adds to the value of the volume by giving many definite instances of definite achievement in the redirection of country life through the church's activity.

The book is well named; it does present in an orderly fashion the development of the country community. Dr. Wilson follows Professor Ross of Purdue in his definition of the four types of farmers—the pioneer, the land farmer, the exploiter, and the husbandman. The writer very happily shows that in many communities the evolution has proceeded so irregularly that all the four types of farmers are now living side by side, and that their four sides may be contending for mastery. That the pastor and the church ministering to the farmer of each type are determined by that type is a clearly stated lesson that social workers outside of rural communities might very well take to heart.

Some communities, Dr. Wilson recognizes, are exceptional. He apparently agrees with Prof. T. N. Carver of Harvard that the best farmers in the country are the Mormons, the Scotch Presbyterians, and the Pennsylvania Germans. Each one of these peoples—for they are no less—has come to agricultural prosperity because this agriculture has been built around the church. The organization of the Mormons, for instance, is not only efficient, but it revolves around the church. Dr. Wilson might very well have gone further in this connection and called attention to the fact that the leaders of the Latter Day Saints have made their people happy, here and now, by realizing that all their wants—social, economic, religious, political—were so closely interrelated that they must all be taken care of by collective action.

As a clear and well-proportioned statement, characterized by ample knowledge, careful statement and good temper, the book is valuable.

WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER.

CONSTRUCTIVE RURAL SOCIOLOGY

By JOHN M. GILLETTE. Introduction by George E. Vincent, president of the University of Minnesota. New York, Sturgis & Walton. 301 pp. Price $1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.75.

There can be no doubt that this work is constructive if we remember that adequate information is the beginning of all sound construction. The book is packed with information on all phases of rural life. Whether it is sociology or not depends upon one's point of view and one's bringing up. It may be economics. Among the eighteen chapters there are included such topics as Rural and Urban Increase (IV), Improvement of Agricultural Production (VII), Improving the Business Side of Farming (VIII), and Rural and Social Institutions and Their Improvement (XV and XVI). There are numerous tables and illustrations, including an interesting map of a rural Methodist parish.

One of the most interesting chapters is entitled Social Aspects of Land and Labor in the United States, though in the first paragraph the reader is confronted with the statement that "The nation's population is ultimately determined by the amount of its arable land." This is doubtless a casual statement and ought not to be allowed to mar what is otherwise an excellent chapter. Of course it is only the nation's rural population which is ultimately determined by its arable land. So long as foreign markets hold out, there is no limit to the urban population short of lack of building room. Or one

might say that the population of a nation which aims to be self-contained, or physically self-supporting as distinct from commercially self-supporting, is limited by its arable land. The reviewer does not remember to have seen so good a discussion of the problem of agricultural labor as is found in this chapter.

Probably the most valuable chapter is the one on Rural Health and Sanitation. The author outlines the problem and presents in systematic order the dangers to rural health and the methods of safeguarding against them. Under such heads as Water, Garbage and Sewage, Insects and Animals, Foods, and Transmissible Diseases, he sets forth the chief problems of farm sanitation, and emphasizes the need of co-operation in neighborhood sanitation.

The book is a substantial contribution to the growing problem of rural life and rural adjustment. The author shows a first-hand knowledge of the subject which he treats, and a wide familiarity with statistical and other documentary sources of information. All sincere students owe him a debt of gratitude.

T. N. CARVER.

STARVING AMERICA

By ALFRED W. MCCANN. F. M. Barton. 270 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

This is an adulterating age. The organized exploitation of the primary wants of civilized mankind, the demand for products prepared for immediate consumption, the stimulation of new desires by unprecedented advertising campaigns, the conspicuous consumption of the rich and the unreasoning imitation of the richer by the poorer, the ever lengthening cycle of production from raw material to finished product, the fierce competition among manufacturers and dispensers of goods, the rising cost of living, and more than all, the amazing carelessness of the purchasing public, especially with regard to articles of food and clothing, have caused the adulterators to multiply and flourish and have developed adulteration to a fine art.

The exposure of various forms of food impurities and adulterants, harmless or criminal, is neither new nor unpublished. Few men in our country are better known than Harvey Wiley, and Wiley in the popular mind stands as the champion of pure food and the implacable foe of fraudulent food distributors. No person who reads or listens but knows something of Wiley and something of impure food supplies.

Mr. McCann, whose book under the sensational title of Starving America has recently appeared, is no less valiant than Wiley in his promulgation of pure-food propaganda. Almost unknown, unsupported by the scientific training and the official standing which Wiley possesses, this dark champion girds on his armor and heroically enters the lists, shouting, "I'll tell the truth if I die for it." Of course there's no danger of his dying for it. Speaking logically, the conclusion seems to be that the rest of us will die of starvation if we refuse to heed his speaking.

In general the book supports two theses:

First, that the mineral constituents of foods are much more important in body building than food chemists and dietitians are aware; in fact, that we are either literally starving ourselves and our children by eliminating the ash from our bread, meat, potatoes, rice and other foods, or we are rendering our bodies susceptible to disease—such as tuberculosis—through failure to supply certain mineral defenses to the tissues. The essential ashes, always present in food stuffs—vegetable or animal—in their original raw state, are removed in the manufacture or in the cooking. Wholesome nutritious whole wheat bread and unpolished rice are set over against the insidious, emasculated, mineral-denuded white bread and polished rice—real whited sepulchers, beautiful but deadly.

In the development of this thesis Mr. McCann presents some facts already published and fully accepted, and an array of startling statements. Most of his reasoning is, of course, deductive, because scientists have little authentic data to offer on the effect of the various mineral elements or the lack of them, much less on the most desirable methods of introducing them into the human system. Though neither a university man, nor a graduate chemist, it appears that the author has had exceptional opportunities to study biochemistry as an amateur; and formerly, as advertising agent of a large food industry he spent much time in the food laboratory of the concern. Notwithstanding these qualifications, which he fully sets forth in his preface, some of his conclusions, for example the vital importance of ash in the system and the dire results of our ordinary dietary, though analogically sound, fail to convince the student and perhaps the layman.

On his second proposition, that an astonishing variety and an appalling quantity of our foods are poisonously adulterated both legally and criminally, the author stands on sure ground. Candies, ice-cream, extracts, patent medicines, preservatives, coloring materials are handled without reserve. The argument is supported almost wholly by old material, rather familiar to the magazine reading public; but the cumulative evidence, followed by a dissertation on the appalling and preventable infant death rate gives strength and conviction to the presentation.

The author is not merely destructive. He urges a campaign of education through the public press and pleads for courses and demonstrations of pure food stuffs and their effects in our schools and colleges. He has formulated a practical dietary, a daily menu for a week, of simple, wholesome food, based on the principles he has worked out, for children three years of age and over. His own children have thrived wonderfully on it. He describes in one of the most satisfactory chapters in the book an ideal restaurant that appeals both to one's common sense and to his appetite.

On the whole the book is timely and deserves a wide reading. In the endeavor to catch the public ear by the presentation of a lurid array of facts under a sensational title I fear the author has overshot the mark. Thoughtful readers are likely to discount much that apparently has a reasonable basis of scientific study merely

because of the overstraining after startling statement. The author's style is not altogether pleasing, nor does it always carry conviction nor inspire confidence in the author. It is not a great book nor an epoch-making one, but it bears the stamp of sincerity, provided one reads to the end, and calls attention to a number of awful truths that should give us pause. The keynote of progress is "light and enlightenment," rather than repression.

ALEXANDER E. CANCE.

THE THREE GIFTS OF LIFE

By NELLIE M. SMITH. Dodd, Mead & Co. 138 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.56.

The market is flooded with publications on education with reference to sex, and most of them are the product of superficial or one-sided knowledge and a ready pen. The emphasis is unduly put on disease because most writers are so impressed by the results of ignorance that they find it impossible to take the attitude of the normal, healthy individual whom they are trying to reach.

Among this mass of material, there have been two or three books which could be put into the hands of young girls, but even these should be used with care. The large demand for a good book and our failure to meet it has been a source of anxiety to all who have appreciated the dire need which it voiced. Then came The Three Gifts of Life, which answers the appeal for knowledge concerning the mysteries of reproduction, showing the origin of life in plants, animals and human beings—not detached as physiological fact but interwoven in ordinary experience.

The Three Gifts are the three attributes by which the different forms of life progress: i.e., dependence, as illustrated by plants; instinct, plus dependence, as shown by animals; choice, plus dependence and instinct, which are given to every human being.

Throughout the interesting account of plant and animal reproduction, Miss Smith is working through the law of progress to the girls' responsibility in the life of the race, showing how the reproductive instinct can be made into a race instinct by means of the gift of choice. The one adverse criticism I should make is calling any gift of the flowers "poor" even in comparison. When the marvels of plant and animal life are being so wonderfully revealed, there is a singular opportunity to communicate the thrill and zest which come from close contact with Nature; there is nothing poor in the "scheme of things."

The book does not warn girls against men's companionship; it does not describe the horrors of venereal diseases; it does not frighten them into a fear of all mankind by giving the details of prostitution. It does not prophesy changes which take place during the adolescent period, so that attention will be concentrated on a whole new set of feelings which may or may not appear. On the contrary, it is all positive and sane, and is by far the best book we have for educational work with girls.

MARION E. DODD.

EVE'S OTHER CHILDREN

By LUCILLE BALDWIN VAN SLYKE. Fred'k A. Stokes. 275 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

Mrs. Van Slyke has chosen as her special field of interest the Syrian quarter of Brooklyn, and the result of her observations she has given us in a short dozen of stories, grouped under the title, Eve's Other Children. With considerable skill and great charm, through the medium of little Nazileh, she permits us to see into the mind of the Oriental "within our gates." Each tale illustrates some Syrian custom or legend or characteristic, picturesquely trying to maintain itself in this matter-of-fact "land of Brooklyn."

Those looking for diversion will find it in these tales; those looking for something deeper will find that also. While the association of the Oriental with other immigrants is rather casually treated, the relation between the Syrian population and the Americans with whom they come in contact has been a matter of careful observation and thought on the part of the writer. Between the lines, one feels her protest against the current attitude toward this peculiarly sensitive alien. Teacher and social worker, as well as the Tommy O'Brien's and Geraldine Schmidts of the neighborhood, constantly offend the little Syrians by referring to them as "dagos." Throughout these stories, like a plaintive refrain, runs the explanation of little Nazileh: "Oxcuse—me, I ees not a dago—I Syreean!"

To deal rightly with these children it is not enough to study only the outward type. Not to blunder one must know the unique workings of their minds, their superstitions, their strong racial traits. To illustrate:

Baby Antar has a new tooth, to Nazileh a most important event. A certain native dish must be prepared to do the occasion justice. But she is so poor and her mother works so hard! Suddenly Nazileh remembers that "Teacher" has admired her Mashallah beads; she will give fifty cents for them. Without them, the child is defenseless before the "evil eye," but a Syrian custom is at stake; she must not falter. The teacher buys them gaily, without suspicion that she has taken from the frightened child her most valued and valuable possession.

Nor is the philanthropist always understanding:

Nazileh's most striking trait is her passionate love for her baby brother. Two ladies stop her ramshackle perambulator in the street. Antar has prickly heat. The ladies discuss ways and means; they talk of "district tickets" and "transfer stubs." Then the awful word "Freshairfund" escapes them, and in a second two flying legs and four wobbly wheels are all that are seen of Nazileh and her precious burden. "That Freshairfun," she gasps from a safe distance, "eet steal sweet little babees from their homes. I weesh"—she stopped in delight at the American oath she was about to utter—"I weesh a gosh on eet!"

It is a great pity to deal clumsily with the Oriental, for no one can lay down this book with-

out feeling that there are exquisite qualities lurking in the Syrian quarter, qualities that we as a people need. Nazileh, gay, sad, loving, poetic, mischievous little girl, always courteous, never shrewd, seems to represent the best type of Syrian child. We need her filial devotion, her deference to old age, her fine hold on tradition in this rough and ready civilization of ours. Evidently the high tide of immigration that washes in so many problems, brings treasure also. How can we capture it?

With much that is beautiful and picturesque, the book leaves on our minds also the impression of great hardship, of overwork and underpay, of little children driven indoors out of the sunlight to ply a wearisome trade; of young girls fighting for existence in the misery of the sweat-shop.

But the author's sympathetic understanding and charming interpretation of Oriental ideas, scenes, and customs mitigate the somberness even of the final tale, which gives the title to the book. The story is told by Nazileh's sad young mother arrayed in bright Oriental garb for the Syrian Christmas, when the camel comes with gifts,—"And when Eve saw God coming, she hid all her unsightly children in a dark cave and only her pretty children were washed and dressed for God to see. . . ." The lame, the halt, the blind, and those pursued of poverty,—these are "Eve's Other Children."

MARY BANNISTER WILLARD.

COMMUNICATIONS

TREAT BOTH ALIKE

TO THE EDITOR:

In most phases of life it is the little things that count. In the matter of prostitution we have heard so much about the big things—the inevitableness of it, because the man wants it, because the girl must have more money than her pay-envelope brings her, and the necessity for changing public opinion before any change in dealing with the situation can become effective—that we have become well-nigh overwhelmed by the magnitude of the evil. Yet, may we not expect shortly to gain public approval for two small and difficult yet perfectly feasible changes of method in handling the situation? These are my two suggestions:

1. When a house is raided, take all found in the house, women and men and put their names on the police-blotter.

2. Then, examine these people for venereal disease. Restrain the liberty of all the diseased, both women and men, till they are cured.

I am one of those heretics who are not particularly concerned with the exact law covering the matter at the present time in any particular place; it suffices me to know that not everywhere are these two regulations in force; nor does declaring unconstitutional the ordinances dealing with these things bother me. I am tremendously interested in seeing that these ideas get across.

When the public has made these two suggestions part of its conviction of the right way of doing things, then we will find the way to formulate workable, constitutional regulations embodying these suggestions.

"They" tell us that it is an infringement of the liberty of the individual when the women taken for soliciting or in houses are examined for disease. Most certainly it is. And practically all the other laws on our books curtail the liberty of the individual.

But, it is an infringement of the right of the community when men and woman with venereal disease go about freely. The community is interested in its own perpetuation. Therefore, it is interested that the prospective and the actual husband shall be just as clean from disease as the girl.

But, "they" say such handling of the situation does not meet the economic objection; these suggestions do not even attempt to provide more cash for the girl. Good, the suggestions do not solve the problem for her; that is just the point. She must solve it for herself. That is the only salvation worth having. Yet, not simply by herself and for herself. She will probably fail, if she attempts it alone. But, joining forces with other girls and working together, success will probably follow and there will probably be a greater amount of cash in the pay-envelope. That is worth most to the individual which is conquered into the person, not received as gift.

Putting these suggestions into practice will diminish greatly the number who "have to have it." It will make sinning less popular.

MORGAN T. RILEY.

New York.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of March 22 there is a reference and quotation from the statement of "Principles and Policies that Should Underlie State Legislation for a State System of Vocational Education," adopted at the December meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in Philadelphia, that tends to give a wrong impression of the attitude of the society regarding the matter of dual control referred to in Professor Dewey's very clear and forcible article in the same issue.[1]

It may be stated without reservation that the executive committee of the society are unanimously of the belief that the best way to administer the new provisions for industrial education rapidly being enacted into laws in various states is by a state board of education which has all forms of education under its control.

The committee that developed the statement, however, recognized that in some states where no board of education exists and state control is represented by a superintendent of instruction, it is possible that the initial development of this new work may be best secured for a short period by a separate board of control. This point of view is embodied in a paragraph relating to state

[1] See page 870 for Professor Dewey's article; page 893 for the reference to "principles and policies."

control in the statement of "principles and policies," as follows:

> "Effective administrative control, on the part of the state, of both vocational and general education, requires the existence of a State Board possessing sufficient powers, effectively to supervise all forms of education receiving financial aid from the state. Should such a board not exist, in any state, or should it be found that an existing board is unprepared to deal effectively with the establishment and promotion of vocational education, then it is expedient that a special administrative Board of Control for Vocational Education shall be established until such time as a state board properly qualified to deal with all forms of state-aided education shall exist."

The feeling of the representative committee which formulated the statement of "principles and policies" and which gave it careful consideration and discussion at the meeting at Philadelphia, was that such a separation of control while not desirable as a permanent arrangement, might under some circumstances be of value in effectively launching the new movement, might better secure a fair trial of new methods, and better arouse public opinion to its consideration.

The paragraphs quoted in THE SURVEY do not relate to the matter of state control, which is the point under discussion in Professor Dewey's paper, but to the question of separateness of instruction being accorded vocational schools and classes. By separate organization in this connection is meant a separate school organization. Separation to this extent, it is safe to say, a great majority of teachers and other educators who have been intimately connected with real work in industrial education (not merely with manual training as an element in the general course of study), thoroughly believe in as essential to effective results in this field. Such separateness of organization as is specified in the quoted paragraphs, is typified by the organization of the Manhattan Trade Schools for Girls, by the New York Vocational School for Boys, and by the various other vocational schools at Rochester, Albany and Buffalo in this state, all of which are administered by regular local school boards.

C. R. RICHARDS.

[Director Cooper Union.]
New York.

TODAY IT IS SPRING

TO THE EDITOR:

Today it is Spring and in office and in schools, we find ourselves forgetting our work and leaning back to breath the soft, warm air. Why is it that the Spring fever fills every one's veins, and we find ourselves caring so little about the important interests upon which our minds were fixed. Why do we turn to dreaming of fields and blue distances and mornings when we discovered that some one was in love with us. On such days as these, for a few moments, the schoolteacher *must* stop schooling, the trader *must* stop trading, the reformer *must* stop reforming. What is the meaning of this? It is God's holiday.

In these moments we learn one of the great lessons of life. After all, it is the cosmic forces that make the world. We learn the great lesson of trust. Little do our efforts accomplish to brighten and beautify the world. But when the Spring comes, even in Mulberry street the children sing and shout, and soft gray buds are ready to burst from the few trees in Alton Park Place.

In these moments we learn the highest, best in life: that which comes not from our own efforts but is the gift of God.

CLARENCE D. BLACHLY.

Chicago.

AN INVITATION FROM CUBA

TO THE EDITOR:

The Woman's Club of Havana would be very grateful if when social workers of the United States anticipate visiting our city they would kindly let us know as we want to avail ourselves of any opportunity to get in touch with their work.

Our club is young and working under unusual circumstances. It is composed of Cubans and Americans. A cordial welcome and appreciative hearing would be given to any one willing to help us by speaking before the club.

We feel that all such courtesies not only strengthen the union between our countries but make for the better understanding and development of both.

IONE R. VAN GORDEN.

[Secretary Woman's Club of Havana.]

SHOPPERS' PUZZLE

In reading THE SURVEY of March 29, I was interested in the Shoppers' Puzzle on page 913. It certainly seems unfair to people employed all during the week in offices and factories to deprive them of their only opportunity to do their shopping Saturday afternoons. On the other hand while they are having their half holiday the clerks who wait on them are deprived of the half holiday so much needed during the hot summer months.

Would it not be possible, however, for the St. Louis Consumers' League to arrange with the heads of the department stores to give the customary half holiday on some other day—say Thursday or Friday?

I was in England last June and there was a great deal of discussion in the papers over the enforcement of a law compelling a weekly half holiday in every line of business. In London business was suspended at 1 P. M. Saturday, but in Oxford we learned to our sorrow that the closing day was Thursday.

One of our party being in need of a dentist one Thursday afternoon we started out to find one about 2 o'clock. Not one was to be seen until 9:30 Friday morning, we were told. "The next best thing, we decided, would be to consult a druggist or "chemist," but there again we were met with barred doors and drawn curtains. Fin-

ally appealing to a "bobby" we were directed to a shop where we could ring a night bell and get some attention. When we told the chemist that in America the drug stores were always open even when other places of business were closed he said that in England it was against the law. He also explained that the country towns in England had the half holiday during the week as Saturday was the country market day. In Winchester the closing day was Wednesday. This is offered as one answer, though there may be better ones for this modern industrial puzzle.

JEAN ALLISON.

Allentown, Pa.

THE RINGING OF THE BELL

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of March 15, 1913, you describe the ringing of a bell, every five minutes, to indicate the unearned increment of $1,000 in New York city real estate. This corresponds to a yearly increase of a little over $106,000,000. As stated further on, however, the community takes over $57,000,000 of this, directly, in taxes. It is perfectly true that the industries of the city account for the increase in value. But, on the other hand, the men who own and have built skyscrapers on the land have made the space in which the community lives. The land area itself is utterly inadequate for the business and living room of the community. There does not seem to be any great injustice in leaving for the men who have bought and improved and who manage this land, between 40 and 45 per cent of the increase, especially as the increase is itself subject to an increased assessment and progressive taxation.

Looking at the matter in another way, the owner of land in New York is allowed a trifle over 1½ per cent a year interest on his investment. Unless he makes a high rate of interest on the buildings, and the general experience for most cities is that 5 per cent on a realty investment is rather beyond the average, it does not appear that his profits are usurious.

A comparatively small fraction of the great fortunes of the country is invested in realty, and for the country as a whole real estate is the safeguard of the poor but thrifty. To reduce rents below the average interest on conservative investments is to discourage thrift and home owning. Temporarily and to a small degree increase of land tax will stimulate building and thereby, by disturbing the relation of supply and demand, reduce rents. But this effect will last only until those who hold unsalable land have made the best of a bad investment. No one will continue to engage in any kind of a business beyond the point at which it yields a return fairly equivalent to that obtainable in other lines.

It is almost an axiom that 4 per cent of the total cost of any kind of a building must be allowed for taxes, insurance, repairs, depreciation, &c. As much as 9 or 10 per cent of the investment must therefore be charged in rentals, to equal even quiet investments which require very little personal attention. In a small town or in suburbs, where the land value is about $200 for a twenty-foot front lot, a cottage can be built, with proper plumbing and lighting equipment, so as to represent a total investment of somewhat less than $1,000. This corresponds to a yearly rental of $90, or thereabouts. How far the enormously increased land value can be counterbalanced by building on a large scale, but with inevitably more expensive material, is a question to be carefully considered. But the rental must be calculated on a business basis unless the problem is solved by a frank reversion to charity.

While it is unfortunate that any one should be poor, it does not seem strange that 30 per cent of the earnings of the very poor, in a city where there is literally too little land for the inhabitants, should go for a home. Rent nowadays often includes water, care of exterior of premises, and sometimes heat and light. A generation ago 25 per cent, without any of these extras, was considered a fair average for the moderately well-to-do family.

A. L. BENEDICT, M.D.

[Editor *Buffalo Medical Journal.*]

Buffalo.

THE BABY GARDEN

TO THE EDITOR:

As long as most mothers were able to stay at home and personally care for their babies, the care of children remained an individual matter. But, present economic conditions which force so many young mothers to earn a living away from their homes and babies, present this problem. How shall these babies be adequately cared for, in their mother's absence?

The public nurseries are charitable institutions for the children of the poor. The middle-class working women, who earn enough to pay a little for the care of their babies, are not permitted to leave their little ones in them. But, even if they are permitted to do so, no intelligent mother would be willing to do so. For these nurseries attempt to minister only to physical wants. Although the needs of the child at infancy seem to be largely physical, we know, that from the day of its birth, the infant is getting impressions and forming habits. The manner in which we satisfy his needs, the habits which he forms under our care, shape his future character,—and yet, the training of the so-called trained nurses in charge of the average nursery, enables them to attend to the physical needs only. We all realize the need of professionally trained teachers for the kindergarten and school vant? The self-supporting mother ofarA-colA age. Is it not equally important to have trained specialists at infancy, the most important stage of Childhood?

Though the present day nurseries need improvement, their charges fare better than those left at home, to the mercy of hired servants. The collective work of an institution carries with it a sense of social responsibility for those entrusted to its care. What sense of responsibility can we expect from an ignorant hired servant? The self-supporting mother of moderate means has no alternative. She must either give up her

work and sometimes deprive her family of the necessities of existence or else abandon her babe to the hands of an ignorant servant.

Women of means can hire trained specialists for their babies. The poor are helped by settlement nurseries. But the intelligent self-supporting mothers, such as school-teachers and journalists, are utterly helpless, each groping blindly with her own individual problem that can no longer be solved individually. These women, while compelled to do a man's work, never can have that singleness of mind that a man has while attending to his business.

The problem faced by these mothers can be solved only by social co-operative measures. The establishment of a new type of public nursery to meet the demands of intelligent mothers is now under way. To distinguish it from the prevailing nurseries it is to be called "the baby garden." The children are to be divided into the following groups according to age: Infants of one year or less; babies from a year to two years; those from two to four years. Only experts in baby culture specially trained to meet the needs of each of these individual groups are to be placed in charge. The baby garden will be surrounded by open-air balconies so that the children may be out of doors the greater part of the day. Mothers who are so tied up that they cannot go to the doctor or the dentist or attend to their necessary shopping for the family without dragging baby along, will be permitted to bring tneir babies for a few hours each day.

It is hoped that in time such baby gardens will become either self-supporting or public institutions. The plan here outlined has been approved by a number of public-spirited people who have promised to temporarily subsidize this baby garden provided fifty mothers endorse the scheme by their readiness to enroll their babies. The amount to be paid for the care of these babies will be decided at a meeting of the mothers who endorse the plan. All who are interested may communicate with me at 516 East 78th Street.

[Mrs.] A. Levitas.

New York.

ILLUSTRATED IMMORALITY

To the Editor:

I want to get together a collection of pictures from which to make slides for a lecture on illustrated immorality in its relation to our people, to the city and to the state. Will you not publish this letter asking for suggestions from your readers. To give an idea of my purpose I have on my list the Laocoön, St. Michael and the Dragon and St. George, Sir Galahad, Circe and the Swine, the triumphal march of Bacchus, a picture published by the Chicago *Tribune* last September illustrating the tale of a white slave, and a most effective picture used widely in Atlanta of a hideous monkey-man beast carrying the body of a girl under one arm and a bludgeon in the other hand.

I want more symbolical pictures like these and I want also pictures representing actual conditions in our cities, depicting perhaps the temptations to the young. With the latter I would have to have some exact information. I include, of course, the saloon in the scope of my interests as I see no distinction between the twin evils, the saloon and the bawdyhouse.

Howard A. Kelly, M.D.

Baltimore.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION: MR. JONES ANSWERED

To the Editor:

So it seems that my fellow "Socialist agitators" and I are leading around by their noses such staid and proper citizens as are to be found in the City Club of New York, the New York Federation of Labor and the American Association for Labor Legislation.[1] And because some of us are advocating here and now in New York that employers shall be permitted self-insurance, mutual insurance or contribution to a state managed fund, we are "seeking to destroy private business in all its forms." But F. Robertson Jones, who is one of those "employes of the casualty companies who have their bread and butter at stake," really need not be so perturbed. No one really proposes "to transfer their jobs to political appointees and to leave them out in the cold." That is a "pure figment of the imagination" to make use of Mr. Jones' own restrained language. There are many good men working for the state now and there will be more when Mr. Jones and his fellow-employes are taken over to apply to the public good the experience and knowledge gained in private enterprises. And if public service is too contaminating, there will still be the self insurers, and the mutuals in which those left "out in the cold" may find ready employment. Let me hasten to add that I do not make this statement "sneeringly" and that I hope a sober consideration of it will carry conviction that if untrue, at least it is not "unqualifiedly untrue."

One example will do as well as a dozen to illustrate my point about the attitude of the casualty companies toward "elective" acts. It is well known that those companies opposed the New Jersey "elective" act at the start. Seeing its tremendous advantages they then became active in its support. As illustrating this point, I need only refer to the energy and insistence with which the officers and counsel of various casualty companies tried to put through, in the closing days of the session last year in New York, a bill fashioned on the New Jersey model. A special message from the governor and a special session of the Legislature were talked of and only the uncompromising persistence of the State Federation of Labor and the American Association for Labor Legislation saved the employes of this state from something even worse than the New Jersey act. The author of that proposed New York bill, when it emerged from the conference called by certain casualty officials and attorneys disowned it, it was so bad.

The Pennsylvania commission is an example of a commission advised by more than casualty

[1] See The Survey, April 12, 1913, p. 72.

company *actuaries*. Of that act a commissioner from another state writes: "The Pennsylvania act is calculated to turn the employe over to the "Shylocks" and loan sharks in the liability business. The report of the Pennsylvania commission outlines the most abominable act that it has been my privilege to examine, and it fully maintains the reputation of the state of Pennsylvania as being the "'rotten borough' of the world."

No facts are quoted to prove that my statement as to the club feature is "diametrically the opposite of the truth." If the scheme does not work out to the advantage of the casualty companies it would be interesting to know why not. We would all agree that what the companies most desire is that they shall get the employers, "or all large employers," to "come permanently under the compensation feature or to stay out permanently"—exactly my point. Under such happy circumstances prospective profits are beyond the dreams of avarice. Maybe the profits have not been made yet, certainly I have not so stated. It is the prospect which is so alluring, the profits so nearly within grasp which are now slipping through their very fingers, because of these "ill-advised enthusiasts" and other undesirable citizens.

And is it, then, "a purely gratuitous misstatement of the fact" that the casualty companies opposed, tooth and nail, the Ohio compulsory act which, by the way, does not give a monopoly to political boards? Do they not oppose such an act here in New York today? Have they not opposed it in Iowa, California and Washington?

As to the casualty companies having been most active "for a constitutional amendment in New York," so far as I have observed, that activity has been very largely confined, as has that of certain lawyers, to advocating such changes in the amendment as would defeat the whole broad purpose of last year's amendment. If listened to by the Legislature these advocates would have put off for another three years the much to be desired amendment to our constitution.

The objections to the fixing of rates by the insurance department are two-fold. First, that that department is not "composed of officials expert" in casualty insurance; second, that Senator Foley at the public hearing at Albany, in order to meet the criticism of the American Federation of Labor, proposed a state fund divorced from the state insurance department. This was an important concession to labor and was so intended. Labor and many others had fears of the state insurance department, remembering the influence of the insurance interests before Superintendent Emmett took charge and fearing their influence after his retirement. That the "constitutional objections have been carefully considered and that the overwhelming weight of opinion is that they are not valid" is, as Mr. Jones would say, "a purely gratuitous mis-statement of the facts," "a figment of the imagination," if not, indeed, "a gratuitous insult" to our intelligence. A few lawyers retained by the casualty insurance companies may disagree with us, but that hardly makes such a weight of opinion as to be overwhelming. As to bar associations, all that is needed is to look up the clients of some of these association committeemen. If what is wanted is a duly attested power of attorney of the casualty companies, I must admit that I cannot produce it.

If the Foley bill be studied with a little more care and with some understanding of the lengths to which insurance agents will go and have recently been going in Wisconsin, to misrepresent the state fund, the statement about turning over the rich New York field may not appear as such "nonsense." It is to be remembered, too, that at the time the Foley bill was introduced, the accompanying bill providing for the organization of mutuals made such organization a matter of extreme difficulty. This has been somewhat remedied lately, more or less at the instigation, I fear, of the aforementioned enthusiasts and Socialists.

The men who were openly planning the rout of the casualty companies at the time I wrote were the State Federation of Labor, of course. To that valiant and determined host has now been added the American Association for Labor Legislation, the Progressive Party in which ex-Superintendent of Insurance Hotchkiss is so important a figure and Colonel Roosevelt.

PAUL KENNADAY.

New York.

JOTTINGS

PRUSSIAN COLONIZATION

Six million dollars will be spent by Prussia this year for the cultivation and colonization of moor lands by farmers and agricultural laborers. Part of the money will be used to provide cheap credit to settlers.

GALSWORTHY ON THE EAST SIDE AGAIN

Because of its local appeal a performance of Galsworthy's Strife is being given by the Madison Square Church House at the Murray Hill Lyceum, 160 East 34th Street, New York. [April 25.] The men and boys in the cast have been trained by Jean Marcet and Inez Milholland. Members of the Barnard College Dramatic Club take the female parts.

FROM MOTORS TO FORKED-STICKS

Modern progress and practices which savor of the middle ages sometimes go hand in hand, says the *Engineering News*. A press dispatch from a city in the Canadian Northwest states that the city council had voted to buy a motor-driven chemical and hose wagon, and at the same meeting decided to engage a water finder hailing from Hamiota to "make a thorough investigation with his magnetic instrument of all possible sources of water supply."

SOCIAL SERVICE WORK FOR GIRLS

The Department of Social Service of the Girls Friendly Society offers a well worked out program for practical study and work by an "associate" of the department. The program begins,

it may be said in passing, with a recommendadation to subscribe to THE SURVEY. Other general recommendations are that the associate inform herself about social work, especially among women and children; that she cooperate with established societies and with such movements as that for early shopping; that she recommend to her local group the circulation among the membership of copies of state laws affecting women and children, and arrange for conferences on social topics, both formal and informal.

The Girls Friendly Society has a membership of 44,000, in 700 locals scattered throughout the country.

JEWISH FEDERATION IN DENVER

The Jewish Social Service Federation of Denver has been made a permanent organization. It will work in the field covered by United Hebrew Charities in other cities. It is primarily a federation for the centralized collection of funds for Jewish societies.

The following organizations constitute the federation: Jewish Relief Society, Jewish Ladies' Aid Society, Denver Sheltering Home for Jewish Children, Jewish Free Loan Society, Hachnosos Orchim Society, philanthropic committee of the Council of Jewish Women, Ladies' Shroud Sewing Society and the Moas Chittim Society.

The beneficiaries of the federation include the National Jewish Consumptives' Hospital at Denver; the Jewish Consumptives' Relief Society at Denver; the Jewish Orphan Asylum at Cleveland, and the Sir Moses Montefiore Kesher Home for Aged and Infirm Israelites at Cleveland.

DETAINING THE DEFECTIVE DELINQUENT

The province of Ontario, Canada, is trying to provide a means for more adequately handling the delinquent girl or woman who is also feebleminded or suffering from venereal disease. It is well known that a third or a fourth of the boys and girls sent to reformatories are mentally deficient, but in many places there is no legal treatment for them except that of the reformatory which is designed for normal people.

An act now before the Ontario legislature provides that any female between the ages of fifteen and thirty-five who has been sent to an industrial refuge, which is a house of correction, and who is discovered to be so feeble-minded that she can not take care of herself shall be kept in the refuge until the medical officer, with the approval of the inspector, orders her discharge. All girls found to have venereal diseases, or to be suffering from contagious or dangerous illnesses, are to be kept in the refuge until they have fully recovered.

CRIME AND ITS TREATMENT IN COLORADO

The wider resort to argicultural and manual labor as an educative and reformative force for young and old alike in our correctional institutions was urged at the Colorado Conference of Charities and Correction. Coupled with this was a plea for employment in the open and for training in useful pursuits. The institutions of Denver, it was declared, need more land that these things may be done.

Thomas J. Tynan, warden of the state prison, recommended that the state conduct a scientific farm and that it pay prisoners what their labor produces. It is the opinion of Warden Tynan that economic conditions affect the size of prison populations. For several years past there has been a steady decrease, he said, in the number of inmates in his penitentiary; this he ascribed to a general increase in prosperity. Men who commit daring crimes, requiring courage, make the quickest and most permanent reforms, he thinks, because they have the character to adhere to newly made resolutions. From the fact that there are now only nine women in the Colorado state prison and that the average heretofore has been twenty-six, Warden Tynan argues a decrease in crime among women in his state.

ANOTHER SPECIAL TRAIN TO SEATTLE

A special train from Chicago to the National Conference of Charities and Correction to be held at Seattle July 5-12 is being planned by a group of charity organization society workers. Others who wish to go, however, will be welcome to join the party. If the number reaches one hundred, a special train will be provided, leaving Chicago Sunday evening, June 29.

All day Wednesday will be spent at Banff and Laggan. The train will remain on the tracks at Laggan, departing early Thursday morning to give an all-day trip through the Canadian Rockies. The party will arrive in Vancouver on Friday and proceed to Seattle by boat. The day's sail down Puget Sound will be broken by a stop of three hours at Victoria. Return is possible by any route preferred.

The cost of the round trip from Chicago will be $65, not including sleeper.

The committee arranging for this trip is Francis H. McLean, Eugene T. Lies, Fred S. Hall and James Minnick. Those planning to travel with this party should buy round trip tickets at their homes and arrange for sleeper reservations through James Minnick, Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, 10 South La Salle St., Chicago.

A WORKING MOTHER AND HER CHILDREN

When a mother has to work, what is she to do with her young children?

In co-operation with the Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, the Edison Company has produced a motion picture film which is one answer to the question. The reply, as given in the *Kinetogram*, a semimonthly bulletin of moving picture news, is that "she should board her baby with some mother who is capable of caring for and feeding another child than her own." The film is described as follows:

"In this picture the mother has twins, one she boards with a foster mother and the other is put into an institution because the foster mother will take only one. The mother of the twins is compelled to do this because so handi-

capped she cannot get work. The work of the care of infants in an institution is shown and the only fault to be found is that the individual attention that an infant must have is lacking, owing to the fact that a nurse in an asylum often has as many as fifteen babies to care for alone. That is where the infant suffers. It is not, however, due to any fault of the nurses but to conditions. In this case the fostered child lives while the institution child does not. Seventy per cent of asylum babies succumb while seventy out of a hundred live where individual care is exercised."

SEX HYGIENE IN YIDDISH

The first literature on sex hygiene to be published in this country in Yiddish has been issued by the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, 105 West 40th Street. Through the generosity of a Hebrew philanthropic organization in New York city the society has been able to publish a Yiddish edition of its pamphlet on Health and the Hygiene of Sex. This new booklet will be distributed through such organizations as the Educational Alliance, the Hebrew Young Men's Association, the Hebrew Educational League and the Hebrew Sheltering Arms. An edition of 5,000 was printed, but in less than a week it was exhausted. Large orders have been received for subsequent issues. As yet only local Hebrew charities have been given this pamphlet for distribution.

The same pamphlet in English is being distributed to boys in preparatory schools and colleges and through Y. M. C. A.'s and boys' clubs all over the country at the rate of a thousand copies a month.

The society hopes during the coming year to publish Italian and other translations of its pamphlet and to issue new pamphlets for special distribution among settlements and organizations dealing with uneducated groups of boys and girls.

PREVENTION IN THE COUNTY

The spread of preventive measures from city and town to outlying county and rural districts seems to be gaining headway. In Minnesota a county conference of charities and correction was recently started and at Cumberland, Md., a strong plea was made last month for a county-wide charity organization society. Speaking before the Maryland Conference of Charities and Correction, Margaret F. Byington, associate field secretary, Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, told of the effective work that had been done by county organizations in New York and New Jersey. She was met with the response that the association of Cumberland would probably employ an additional paid secretary in the near future to work entirely outside the city.

The last legislature authorized the establishment of a juvenile court for Allegheny County, of which Cumberland is the county seat. One of the discussions of the conference dealt with the difficulties surrounding the work of such a court with a jurisdiction extending over some fifty or sixty miles of territory.

As a result of the conference it is probable that a state-wide housing law will be presented to the next legislature, that all acute cases of insanity will be transferred from the local almshouses to the state hospitals and that a branch of the Maryland Children's Aid Society will be established in Cumberland.

COMMUNITY MACHINERY IN THE SOUTH

Three distinct social agencies have been recently developed in Birmingham, Ala., from one association, the Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society. They are the Juvenile Court with its probation system, the Children's Aid Society and the Boys' Club proper. The story of these changes is expressive of the development of social organization in the southern cities.

The parent society has for several years been one of Birmingham's most vigorous efforts toward the betterment of the conditions affecting child life. In 1903 the Boys' Club had just one room at the City Hall. By 1909 a New Year's dinner and a summer camp had become regular features. Next a special reading room and shower baths were added. Children's aid work was then undertaken more systematically. Two men and one woman devoted themselves to the interests of dependent and neglected children. Probation work was also introduced, and the club has twice moved to larger quarters.

It was largely through the instrumentality of the Boys' Club that the Juvenile Court was established in October, 1912. Following the suggestion of A. J. McKelway, southern secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, in his article in the Birmingham number of THE SURVEY[1] the functions of each of the three new social agencies have been clearly defined. S. D. Murphy is the judge of the Juvenile Court and Ralph S. Barrow is chief probation officer. The present superintendent of the Boys' Club is Burr Blackburn.

PROBATION WORK IN NEW YORK

That beginners in law-breaking will have the benefit of real rather than nominal probation work is expected to be the result of the recent establishment of a central probation bureau in the magistrate's courts in New York. Heretofore each probation officer has remained in court while it was in session. His duty was to receive such cases of probation and make such investigations as the magistrates ordered. This compelled him to spend much time in court, where his duties were similar to those of a warrant officer or a court attendant. His real work, which should be that of looking up the history of law breakers and keeping closely in touch with them, had to be done after court adjourned or on occasional days assigned for the purpose.

Under the new system the probation officer will receive his cases and assignments for investigation from the chief probation officer. He will then be free to spend all his time in the field keeping in touch with his probationers. Another advantage will be greater equalization of work

[1] See THE SURVEY for January 6, 1912.

among officers. Formerly some officers have had as high as 150 cases, while others have had fewer than twenty. Under the new arrangement the chief probation officer will make all the assignments and will be able to distribute the work more evenly. The existence of a central headquarters will enable the officers to meet together and discuss their problems and so work much more effectively as a team.

WOMEN PRISONERS IN NEW YORK

The problem of the arrested woman is one of the baffling difficulties which the police of our large cities face. How New York handles one phase of it is noted in the recent annual report of the Women's Prison Association of this city. Matrons are assigned to nineteen of the police stations in Manhattan and the Bronx. Women arrested in any of the fifty-two precincts in these boroughs are transferred to one of these station houses.

In Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond the same plan is followed, for but ten of the fifty-three station houses have matrons. Women offenders, after being taken from the station house of the precinct in which they are arrested, to the nearest station having a matron must be again transferred to court. Of this the report says: "This dragging of women from station house to station house is most demoralizing to prisoners, officers and the general public."

Of the nineteen precinct station houses to which matrons are assigned only five, says the report, have properly ventilated and sanitary prisons for either sex. In five of the police stations the report goes on, the prisons for both sexes are in the same corridor, and men and women can converse freely. To quote again: "From the fact that thousands of prisoners and officers have been lodged in them for many years, 70 per cent of our station houses are unsanitary and can never be made otherwise. Over 130,000 men and women prisoners in all stages of disease and dirt pass through them yearly. Many are lodged for hours in their prisons and leave behind them disease germs of every kind. Thus the prisoner becomes not only a danger to his successor but may become a prey to the condition of his or her predecessor."

JUVENILE COURT NURSERY RHYMES

WILLIAM FRANKLIN ROSENBLUM[1]

SIX little culprits
  Stood before Judge Ive;
One went to Lancaster
  And then there were five.

FIVE little culprits
  Robbed a candy store;
One went to Hudson Farm
  And then there were four.

FOUR little culprits
  Up for truancy;
One went to Boys' School
  And then there were three.

THREE little culprits,
  Mighty bad ones too;
One was paroled to me
  And then there were two.

TWO little culprits
  Killed a dog for fun;
One got a "padding," friend,
  And then there was one.

ONE little culprit,
  Innocent was he;
Judge smiled and shook his hand,
  And then he was free.

NOW, friends, this little rhyme
  Would but a moral preach
To every man that has
  A heart and soul to reach.

These little culprits six,
  You see them every day.
'Tis not alone their due—
  The penalty they pay.

The home, the church, the school—
  They teach not wrong from right;
And when the child must choose
  HIS is a sorry plight.

To him the wrong doth seem
  But childish prank and fun,
And then we punish him
  Though harm he meant to none.

Some few there are, 'tis true
  By intuition bad
Exceptions to the rule
  Unlike the normal lad.

But take them all as one—
  The boy is born for good,
And if you teach aright
  Will do the things he should.

Six little children, friend,
  Were stamped with sign of shame;
All innocent they were
  And ours alone the blame.

[1]Director of male activities, Council Educational Alliance, Cleveland.

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THE NEW SEMESTER

WITH these April numbers, THE SURVEY enters the second volume of the publication year 1912-13. Up to March 31, $13,531 of the $20,000 appealed for as necessary to carry on our educational work was in hand.

553 readers had enlisted as co-operating subscribers, out of the 800 we had set as our year's goal.

The caliber of issues and educational work in spring and summer depend on our receipts and pledges for the next six months. Without capital stock or credit, we must pay our bills as we go. If we wait until money is actually in hand, the work of the staff will be cramped from week to week, and opportunities for constructive work will have slipped past.

The April magazine number illustrated how we feel the "pinch" in this direction. We had been unable to send a staff man to investigate the West Virginia coal strike. We were obliged to decline an offer of $500 from one of the interested parties to the conflict to pay the expenses of such a staff investigation.

It is not only in these larger undertakings, but in the every-week craftsmanship of issues—appearance, paper, size—that the cramp is felt.

If you have not renewed your last year's contribution, send it now—or send us word. If you have not joined in this co-operative enterprise, now is the time to do it.

A BIT OF EVIDENCE

From Alexander Johnson, Secretary National Conference of Charities and Correction

"On going, a couple of weeks ago, to the little village of Waterloo, Ind., to lecture on the Care of the Feeble-minded, I was agreeably surprised to find quite a large audience gathered to hear my lecture. Miss ———, who had arranged the lecture, told me when I expressed my surprise at the large audience: 'You see we are getting quite socially-minded in our little village. We have eight subscribers to THE SURVEY here, and every copy is read by at least a dozen or fifteen people. It is THE SURVEY that has done it for us.'"

No. 563

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THE COMMON WELFARE

SPREAD OF THE SURVEY IDEA

A hundred and more cities in thirty-four states have asked for surveys or advice in starting local survey movements. This nation-wide service sought from the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation, since its organization last October[1], shows how thoroughly the idea has gripped the leaders of social and civic effort throughout the country. Furthermore, leading citizens and organizations, who once looked askance at "exposures" and "muck raking," have come to understand the constructive value of a survey and now take active part in local efforts in this direction.

In many cases requests are backed by local commercial organizations, chambers of commerce and boards of trade. Business men are recognizing the commercial value of making cities healthier, better and more comfortable to live in. Cities in Canada and several other foreign countries, notably India, have also sought information and advice from the department.

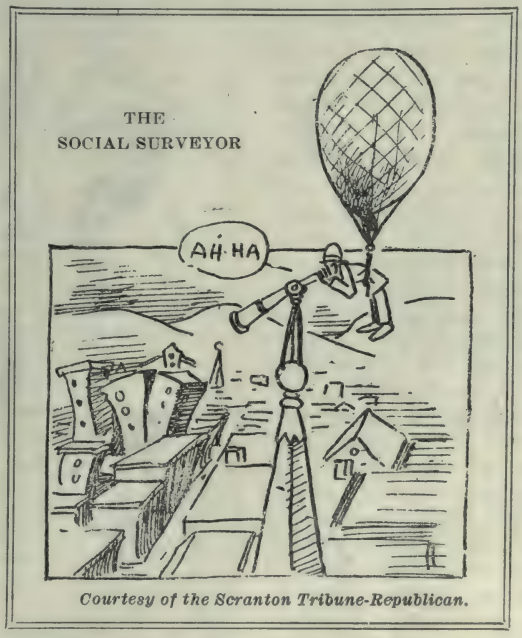
Response to these requests has been determined by several factors—chiefly the timeliness of the proposed survey and its probable influence on other cities. As to timeliness consideration is made of the probability of the project being adequately financed and of its receiving representative local backing. If a city cannot see sufficient value in a survey to be willing to pay for it (especially when all overhead charges are borne by an outside organization) it is considered not ready for a survey. Moreover, the undertaking should be a community enterprise, aimed to advance the well being not of any particular interest or set of interests, but of the community as generally as possible. The survey is an effort toward a democratic solution of local problems, and therefore must be shouldered by representatives of all interests and groups in the population—in other words, by the community through its representatives. Emphasis has been laid upon the importance of the work being done by persons with adequate training and experience. Emphasis has also been placed upon the importance of co-operation with national organizations so that the local program following the survey, whether it involves housing, organized charity, prison reform, or other special effort, will be in harmony with the standards set up by the national organizations in the various fields.

This method of procedure has tended in some instances to hold back surveys rather than to encourage them, and this the department regards as preferable to undertaking surveys where conditions are not favorable.

PATH-FINDER SURVEYING

Two kinds of field work in surveys have been undertaken—"pathfinder's surveys" and preliminary surveys. The former are quick diagnoses of local conditions pointing to the need of the longer and more intensive survey. They gather enough local facts to indicate the main lines of investigation which should be taken up later, the probable length of time necessary for the survey, and the probable cost.

At the invitation of the Topeka (Kans.) Federation of Churches given through its president, Rev. Roy B. Guild, such a pathfinder's survey of Topeka was made in December. As a result, a local survey committee composed of representative citizens was formed, and a campaign started to raise the funds estimated as necessary. Twelve hundred dollars in cash was contributed within a few weeks after the campaign was started.



Courtesy of the Scranton Tribune-Republican.

[1]See THE SURVEY for October 5, 1912.

The Chairman, Judge T. F. Garver and Secretary, H. T. Chase have been supported by a strong favorable public opinion among leading citizens.

Similarly, as a result of the sanitary survey of Springfield, Ill., made by Dr. George T. Palmer, local citizens wished such other investigations made as would in the end mean a general survey of the city. At their invitation a "pathfinder's" survey of Springfield was made by the department, and a local survey committee headed by Senator Logan Hay and with A. L. Bowen, secretary of the State Board of Charities, as secretary, was organized. The appointment of a finance committee has been authorized, and work toward raising the necessary funds is soon to begin.

Another quick diagnosis of city conditions was made by the department recently for Scranton, Pa. The project was urged by the Civic Improvement Committee of the Scranton Century Club, of which Gertrude Lovell is chairman. The Century Club became interested and through its president, Mrs. Ronald P. Gleason, the Department of Surveys and Exhibits was invited to make the preliminary examination. The report presented to an open meeting of the club covered public health and sanitation, taxation and public finance, community assets, civic improvement, education, charity and other betterment agencies, recreation, delinquency, work conditions and relations. The findings and recommendations of this quick diagnosis were given wide circulation in the city by the newspapers.

Among the larger efforts of the department is a preliminary survey of Newburgh, N. Y., which was started March 15. The department's field director, Zenas L. Potter, is being assisted by Franz Schneider, Jr., also of the department's staff, in the investigation of public health; Margaret F. Byington of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation has investigated public and private charity work; D. O. Decker is covering public finance and municipal efficiency; E. F. Brown of the National Child Labor Committee is assisting in the studies of labor conditions; and Franklin Zeiger is studying housing. The New York Consumers League expects also to send a field worker to co-operate for a fortnight. Amy Woods, secretary of the Newburgh Associated Charities, started the movement toward the Newburgh survey. The project has had the support of citizens representing the business-men's associations, labor unions, churches, charity and other social organizations, city administration and women's organizations. The findings of this survey are soon to be ready for publication.

The preliminary surveys are designed to attain three kinds of results. First, they aim to reveal sufficient local facts to permit the planning of an intelligent program for community advance, say for a period of five years. Not only liabilities but community assets—the forces to build on and to build with—as well as what to build will be.

Second, the preliminary survey aims to be the means of enlisting public support for measures which champion human welfare. The public official with a vision of what he might accomplish toward social well-being needs the support of public opinion. His and other work for city progress are as often hampered by public indifference as by the selfish interests of an active few. Public indifference in matters of its own vital concern disappears quickly when the public is intelligently informed. City self-knowledge is a chief effort of the survey.

Third, the preliminary survey is to collect sufficient data to point out the problems which need more thorough or continuous investigation.

PROSTITUTION BANISHED IN ONE NEW YORK TOWN

It is an innovation for the physicians of any community to protest in a body against prostitution solely on the ground that it is a menace to public health. Yet this has happened in Norwich, a village of 8,000 people in Chenango County, New York.



Newburgh, N. Y., Journal

"I SEE BY THE PAPERS—"

Several months ago, Dr. Paul B. Brooks of Norwich, at a meeting of a district branch of The New York State Medical Society presented a paper on the Relation of the General Practitioner to the Prevalence of Veneral Diseases. In it he declared that the medical profession possessed information which, if frankly revealed, would bring about widespread reforms. Through their inactivity, he said, doctors are more responsible than any other class of citizens for the prevalence of veneral diseases. He asserted that a large percentage of infections of this class could be traced, directly or indirectly, to the public prostitute; that prostitution is, in no sense, a "necessary evil," and that if "the people demand it," then the moral sense of "the people" is open to criticism. He believed that the police of any community, large or small, if given power to drive out prostitutes, would be able to protect virtuous women.

Shortly after this some eight or ten physicians, assembled for a meeting of the Physician's Club of Norwich, fell to comparing notes on the prevalence of veneral diseases in the community. The result was startling. Six or seven houses of prostitution, running openly and apparently without restriction, were turning out dozens of men, and even boys of school age, prepared to spread the scourge among innocent women, and through them, to generations unborn. A large number of the inmates of establishments were known to be actually infected.

The situation impressed these physicians as being so serious that they determined to call a special meeting of the club and to invite the town and village authorities to confer with them. In the meantime they considered the various possibilities, including intervention by the Board of Health, medical inspection, etc. In the end they decided that there was but one feasible plan—to attempt the elimination of public prostitution or at least all but such as was clandestinely practised.

They regarded it as their duty to advise, and demand, if necessary, the removal of the obvious breeding grounds for disease.

When the local authorities met these physicians, some were skeptical as to the results which would follow from such an attempt, though nearly all agreed that the situation was serious enough to demand vigorous action. The village attorney, who had openly opposed public prostitution for many years, after hearing the evidence, declared: "If the fathers of this town were to hear the evidence put before us by these physicians they would mob these places, and discredit every one of us!" Some of the establishments had been in operation for twenty years, and were regarded as fixtures. It was said that they "made business"—certain it was that many physicians had found the inmates regular and remunerative clients, and that all had shared in the income from treatment of the diseases which they bred. Some officials feared that public sentiment would not support radical action and that the morals of innocent boys and girls would be injured by having their attention called to conditions which perhaps had escaped their notice. On the other hand they found themselves in an unusual position—they were confronted by practically all the local physicians, standing shoulder to shoulder in a demand for drastic action.

Finally, these physicians brought the officials to their way of thinking. They voted unanimously to clean out the "red light" district, and proceeded at once and vigorously. In a month they had closed up every known establishment, and had rid the town of a number of street walkers. Greatly to their surprise, they found that public sentiment strongly approved of their action. Since then there has been a reduction of at least 75 per cent in number of the new cases of venereal infection.

After the establishments within the corporation limits had been closed, there was one house without the village jurisdiction, which remained in operation for a short time. During that period, every new case, so far as is known that came to a local physician, could be traced to that establishment. The district attorney collected evidence, including the testimony of a young man who had been infected, presented it to the Grand Jury, and an indictment followed. A few weeks later, the proprietor committed suicide. There has been scarcely a new case since.

"This town of ours," says a local physician "is just an average town, no better and no worse than other towns similar in size and environment. The physicians, likewise, are average physicians. What we have accomplished can be accomplished elsewhere, assuming that our results are worth while."

THE DEAD MAN AT MAMARONECK

It took the killing of one man in the prime of life, a strike sympathizer—a small merchant and property holder, he was, of Mamaroneck—and the wounding of half a dozen strikers by local police and New York detective-agency men, to bring to public notice in New York not only the low pay of the Italian "pick and shovel men" employed in the suburban towns along the sound, but also the general violation of New York state laws on jobs done under contract for the state and various municipalities.

By a coincidence, one of the strikers who left the town hall of Mamaroneck on April 16, after the Arbitration Bureau of the New York State Labor Department had brought about a settlement, made much the same comment as was

made by the labor representatives before the Massachusetts Board of Arbitration when the Lawrence strike was on.

"Why didn't they investigate before we had to strike?" he asked. "Why did we have to lose our brother to get what we have a right to anyway?"

The grievances which had led, two days before this settlement, to a fight on a country road leading from Harrison to Mamaroneck were not new.

Three months ago, wage and other demands were presented by the day laborers on road and street work in this section of the state, who had organized a year ago in the General Laborers' International Union of America. No response was made by the contractors. Thereupon several thousand men throughout the region—which is the community zone of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railway, struck to enforce these demands. On April 14 a couple of hundred strikers marched south from Harrison, doubling their numbers as they went by calling out, some say by force, the laborers on the estates they passed.

At the outskirts of Mamaroneck they were stopped by a score of town officials on the ground that they had no permit to parade. In the fight that followed, it was rock and fist—with a final appeal to knives—against club and gun. One detective had a leg broken and was otherwise seriously injured. The injuries of the strikers were bullet wounds. One was killed. Following the conflict, the sheriff was appealed to to swear in the detectives as his deputies. as vengance for the killing was feared; but he refused on the ground that that type of men had proved, here and elsewhere, altogether too handy with the gun. They had been brought out from a New York detective office by the mayor and police of Mamaroneck, when the rumors of labor trouble in the contract work grew thick. It apparently had not occurred to the town officials to spend an equal amount of energy in finding out what the trouble was about.

Road fights are not frequent occurrences in this region of gardens and express trains and the alarm spread panic. Isolated households imagined most anything at the hands of the "dagoes" who "must be kept down." There was a call for volunteer deputies, and citizens responded eagerly with their hunting arms.

The strikers crowded in hundreds to the house of their dead comrade, but after their first outbreak they were found to be so peaceably inclined that all deputies, except the police department's aids from New York, were withdrawn, and the strikers were even given permission to follow the hearse to the cemetery, the day after the strike settlement. This cortege passed through many of the strike centers at Mamaroneck, Larchmont, New Rochelle, Mt. Vernon, and other towns in which the laborers' union claims a membership of 10,000. It was the occasion for no disorderly effort at vengeance.

The laborers' demands of three months ago covered recognition of the union, wage payments by the week, an eight-hour day, a wage minimum for pick and shovel men of $2 a day with revised hour rates for others of the lower grades of work. The eight-hour demand is essentially a demand for compliance with the state law which all the contractors on these public jobs have been breaking by working a nine-hour day. The inquiry brought out the fact that the superintendent of the biggest job of all, the state road, was a brother of an official of the State Engineers' Department, which is charged with the supervision of such work.

WHAT THE ARBITRATION BOARD HEARING REVEALED

By the agreement reached by strikers and contractors at the hearing before the Bureau of Arbitration, the men waived the point of union recognition. Since present estimates on the contractor's work were made before union demands were presented, the rate of pay for an eight hour day is to be based on $2 for a nine hour day until present contracts expire, all new contracts to be based on $2 for eight hours. Other terms of the agreement call for the abolition of the padrone system; the preferential employment of laborers living in the neighborhood of any piece of work—in itself a blow at the padrone system, with its big employment fees and rake-off from feeding and transporting the labor gangs;—the abolition of the shack lodging house and its keeper and the enforcement of weekly wage payments. The last two are merely corrections of illegal conditions. This agreement was unsigned. It is perhaps given some security by being filed with the bureau, but there was no one designated to follow up and enforce any point except those correcting illegal conditions.

However much the unearthing of these illegal conditions may reflect on the state labor authorities as a whole, they are not the fault of the bureau of arbitration, whose representatives settled the strike largely on terms which call for a living up to the law in the future.

The mediators laid themselves open to criticism, however, in yielding their places as impartial questioners of both parties to the controversy, to a local official who showed open prejudice for the contractors and a tendency to browbeat the strikers throughout the hearing. This official made the original and astonishing statement that the strikers' demand for recognition was illegal as it constituted a conspiracy

in restraint of trade, and that it would therefore render the paper on which their demands were written worthless before the law.

One of his taunting questions was: "How can you demand $2 a day for a man who isn't worth seventy-five cents?" The president of the union made reply. He was an Italian and he spoke with some heat; perhaps he did not know he was setting off a human estimate against what an economist would call the commodity theory of labor?

"Man wort' seventy-five cent a day?" he asked. "No man wort' seventy-five cent, no man wort' less than two dolla day. Man got a wife, man got a child. Everybody wort' two dolla day. That the least price will take.

"I like the men live more nice. You no like to live ten in a room. You no like take your children out of the school to work. You no like to be out of work five mont' in the year. Me figure this pay on basis twelve mont' to live on seven mont' pay. That's dolla day. Can you support five, six child on that?

"Contractor can pay. On some men he make four dolla profit; big profit on all de men. The men they want this two dolla. They no take less."

Small as this strike was, in several respects it was remarkable. It is an instance of the crystalization of unskilled labor into unions and its spontaneous outbreak—in this instance without any revolutionary I. W. W. leadership. The strike was not in an industrial center, but in a community of homes, and there were people who looked out of their windows and saw how the type of hired detective, who usually operates in out of the way strike regions, shot into a crowd of strikers without guns, who were in more senses than one, to be sure, taking the law into their own hands, but doing so only long after the authority which the men with the guns represented had failed to enforce it.

But beyond all that, the strike revealed the dread, the utter misunderstanding, the gap between the people who live by the sides of the roads and the men who build them. They did not know it was a desire for settled employment, for homes instead of padrone's barracks that was arousing these workers.

SOME NEW STATE LAWS AFFECTING WOMEN'S WORK

Rhode Island was the first state to legislate in 1913 regarding women's hours of work. The law had previously failed to provide any protection for women employed in stores. It had prohibited more than fifty-six hours' work in one week in manufacturing and mechanical establishments, but it allowed more than ten hours' work in one day for various causes. The new law fixes a flat ten-hour day and fifty-four-hour week for all women employed in any "factory, manufacturing, mechanical, business or mercantile establishment."

Several measures were presented to the Legislature dealing with this subject. The bill as passed was introduced as a substitute, at the request of Chief Factory Inspector J. Ellery Hudson. It was strongly supported at the hearings before the Legislature by the Consumers' League of Rhode Island, by the representatives of the labor unions, women's clubs, and the Rhode Island Medical Society. The removal of the former exceptions in the law is as great a gain as the reduction of hours and the inclusion of mercantile houses. The bill marks a notable advance in Rhode Island.

Another important bill recently passed through effective concerted action was in Delaware, where no law was ever before enacted to limit women's hours of labor. Two years ago the Consumers' League of Delaware carried on a campaign for a ten-hour bill. This measure passed the Legislature, but was amended almost beyond recognition in the process, and in the end it was not signed by the governor. This year a ten-hour law committee of the Consumers' League was formed of which Margaret H. Shearman has been chairman. In spite of bitter opposition, a bill was carried through, providing for a ten-hour day and a fifty-five-hour week. Success followed a campaign of unusual vigor, conducted for months throughout the state. The new law includes women employed in many occupations—"in any mercantile, mechanical or manufacturing establishment; laundry, baking or printing establishment; telephone and telegraph office or exchange." Women employed in canning establishments are exempted. Many other exceptions and amendments were pressed, but only one concession was made to secure the passage of the bill. This allows one working day of twelve hours each week.

In Texas the Legislature proved more compliant to the powerful lobby which opposed the passage of the first woman's labor law in that state. Cotton-mill owners, raising the familiar cry that their industry would be ruined, succeeded in having themselves wholly excluded from the new act. They may therefore continue to employ their women workers as long as they choose, while the only manufacturers prohibited from employing women more than ten hours in one day and fifty-four hours in one week are those engaged in the garment trades!

According to the census of 1910, about 4,000 women are employed in the factories in Texas. Textiles are not separately listed, but it is fair to surmise that a small minority of the 4,000 women are garment workers covered by the new law, and that the great majority are employed

in the cotton mills, without any legal limitation of hours.

Besides garment workers, the new law includes women employed in any "printing office, dressmaking or millinery establishment, hotel, restaurant or theater, telegraph or telephone office." Laundry owners are allowed to employ women eleven hours in twenty-four, provided that "time and a half" is paid for work done in excess of ten hours. A comment by the Texas commissioner of labor on the new law is worth quoting: "Will not attempt to apologize for the same," he writes, "but will admit it is *not much.*"

In New York a new law has been enacted which is of national as well state importance. This measure was unanimously recommended by the New York State Factory Investigating Commission after careful investigation. It prohibits the employment of women at night in manufacture, between 10 P. M. and 6 A. M. It brings the Empire State with its 300,000 women employed in manufacture up to the level of the fourteen civilized nations of Europe which have by international treaty abolished the night work of women in factories.

Hitherto only three states, Massachusetts, Indiana and Nebraska, have enacted in their statutes the principle of assuring to working women a fixed period of rest at night—a principle adopted by England as long ago as 1847 in the first factory legislation.

In this country, usage has so blunted our perception of the effects of work carried on to midnight or all night, that the establishment of a legal closing hour is one of the last steps taken even by progressive states. Yet in Massachusetts 10 P. M. has been the legal closing hour in factories for almost twenty-five years, and the great textile trade has flourished with an even earlier closing hour for women, set by law at 6 P. M. since 1907.

In recommending the enactment of the night-work bill, the Factory Investigating Commission carefully considered the adverse opinion of the New York Court of Appeals, which five years ago, in the Williams case, declared unconstitutional a similar law prohibiting the night work of women. The commission concluded that two new circumstances justified the enactment of a new law and the reargument of the principle at stake before the highest court of New York—the only court of last resort which has rendered a decision on this subject.

These two circumstances are, first, the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States upholding the Oregon ten-hour law for women, handed down since the decision in the Williams case was rendered; and second, the existence of many "facts of common knowledge" regarding the physical, moral and economic effects of night work, facts which were not brought to the attention of the New York Court of Appeals when it decided that Katie Mead was not likely to be injured by working at 10.20 P. M. in a given occupation.

When the new case comes up for argument it is reasonable to hope that the New York court will follow the lead of the Supreme Court of the United States in taking "judicial cognizance" of those ascertained facts which go far beyond the single case at bar, and present to the court the world's experience as to legislation of this character.

CALIFORNIA WOMEN AND THE VICE SITUATION

A red light injunction and abatement bill, not essentially different from the law now in effect in Iowa and Nebraska, passed both houses of the California Legislature with good majorities and was signed by Governor Hiram W. Johnson on April 7. The law declares houses of prostitution and assignation to be nuisances and holds responsible both the proprietor of the house and the owner of the building. It enables any citizen, whether personally damaged or not, to bring action; and it levies a fine against the property itself and forbids its use at any future time for such purpose.[1]

The bill has had a somewhat dramatic history. In 1911 it was introduced at the request of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union by Assemblyman Wyllie, but though favorably reported from the Public Morals Committee it was killed by re-reference to the Judiciary Committee too late to be returned to the floor.

The tremendous general awakening since then on the subject of the social evil and the exposure in San Francisco of the enormous sums reaped by organized vice under the Schmitz-Ruef regime, led to the formation of a society of social hygiene. The efforts of the United States Department of Justice to suppress the traffic in girls led to the establishment of an anti-slavery society; and the State Board of Health, under the leadership of Dr. William F. Snow, made venereal, like other contagious diseases, reportable, though only by case numbers.

Attention has been gradually focussed upon the question of the desirability of segregation of vice or "red light" districts which exist in nearly all the cities of California except Los Angeles, and in most of the larger towns. San Francisco is the only city to make an attempt at systematic regulation and medical examination and this city has been the object of repeated criticism on the part of those who do not believe in the European system of reglementation. It has also done its part in preparing the public

[1]It is now reported that the opponents of the law, which goes into effect August 1, have started an effort to secure the 19,535 signatures necessary for a petition to have the law submitted to a referendum vote.

mind for a more intelligent discussion of such measures as the injunction and abatement bill, the requirement of a health certificate for marriage, and the several bills limiting the liquor traffic which were offered in the present Legislature.

The bill as passed was sponsored by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and endorsed by the State Federation of Women's Clubs and the California Civic League, thus rallying to its support the many thousands of women who were given the vote by last year's suffrage amendment. It is a significant fact that the measure, though approved by many men, was formally endorsed only by ministerial bodies. The large property interests involved and the subterranean coercion of liquor and certain real estate interests, made it impossible to obtain the formal support of commercial organizations.

The campaign on behalf of the measure was, therefore, necessarily a woman's movement. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union which, as Franklin Hichborn has pointed out, has "the largest single block of votes in the state," educated their own membership and their men folk. The California Civic League—chiefly composed of those who had been active in the suffrage campaign and whose motto is "study and service"—undertook the systematic work of educating the public on the general subject of the social evil. For four successive months it published syllabi to be studied by its three thousand members in thirty centers. Beginning in January, the union carried on a publicity campaign in the newspapers and during the last two months kept several women speakers in the field talking on the "red light" bill before church congregations, mass meetings, conferences and clubs

The California Legislature met for the first time under the new law of a divided session, bills being received in January, a recess taken in February, and measures then being discussed and voted upon. During the recess most of the legislators were invited to speak at mass meetings in their own district and to put themselves on record on this particular bill. It soon became known that the delegations from San Francisco and from Alameda County were, with the exception of a very few men, against the bill, while the members of the delegation from southern California were almost unanimously for it.

A picturesque episode of the campaign lay in the selection of Edwin D. Grant of San Francisco to introduce the bill in the senate, for Senator Grant is the successor of a well-known politician, Eddie Wolf, who had misrepresented San Francisco for sixteen years in the Legislature. The replacing of Wolf by Grant was one of the first political results of woman suffrage in the city. Although young and relatively inexperienced, Mr. Grant stood the ridicule of the reactionary press that constantly heckled him as "the boy reformer" and, with the support of older men on the floor, got his bill through without any weakening amendments.

DEBATE BEFORE THE LEGISLATURE

The debates in both houses over this bill brought clearly into view the high political and social ideals of the younger and more recently elected members of the Legislature; and it proved that the women of California, though wholly inexperienced in politics, knew what they wanted and would stand solidly for it. They won, not by lobbying, but by systematic education of the constituencies of the legislators. It is reported that one legislator asked a doubtful colleague if he intended to vote for the bill and the other replied: "Don't I have to go home?" The floor leader of the senate complained publicly of the "threats" of his constituents who had urged him to vote for the bill and said that they would remember their enemies as well as their friends. Assemblyman Nelson, chairman of the Assembly Public Morals Committee, said that he received 1,800 letters on this subject during the recess.

Although the debate in the assembly was sickening at times, in its revelation of the attitude of certain men toward the whole matter of vice, the measure passed by a vote of 62 to 17. In the senate a strong effort was made by Senator Beban of San Francisco to sidetrack it by substituting an investigation into the relation of women's wages and vice. But the senate refused to postpone the injunction bill until this special committee should report, and in spite of a five-hour debate, chiefly carried on by those who were trying to explain plausibly why they were going to vote against it, the measure passed by a vote of 29 to 11. Thus, out of a legislature of 120 members, only 28 voted against the bill and of these a majority were from San Francisco and from Alameda County.

After the bill had passed, a final dramatic touch was given by the demand of certain so-called "real estate" interests in San Francisco for a hearing before the governor. The governor announced a public hearing to which came about forty persons, both men and women, representing all the more important protective, civic and moral associations of northern California. The opponents, who perhaps had hoped to get a private hearing, did not appear; whereupon the governor signed the bill.

Meanwhile, even before the bill was signed, money had been raised and tentative plans made for taking care of the women and girls who should be thrown out of the segregated districts.

These plans are now being extended to cover the whole state. It is expected that the companion measure, a state training home for girls which carries an appropriation of $200,000, will also pass and this will ultimately provide for minors and those who go through the probation courts. As fast as the injunction measure is enforced the women's organizations intend to offer a home, medical attendance and employment, if possible, to all refugees who will accept them.

CALIFORNIA WOMEN RECALL A JUDGE

The first recall of a judge under California's new law took place on April 22 and was accomplished by the women voters of San Francisco. When a police magistrate, C. L. Weller, reduced the bail set by another police judge in the case of a prisoner accused of attacking a young girl, and the prisoner at once fled when released on bail, the women of the city secured 10,000 names to petition for recall. In the recall election Judge Weller was opposed by Wiley F. Crist, who is said to be an enthusiastic young lawyer of strong reform tendencies. Mr. Crist won by a margin of only a few hundred votes in a total of 61,000.

ORGANIZING TO FIGHT CANCER

For some time medical associations have put on record their conviction of the need of systematic work for the prevention of cancer, by the appointment, at congresses and conventions, of committees charged to work upon this subject. These many local efforts came to a head on April 22, when at a meeting in New York under the chairmanship of Dr. Clement Cleveland, the first steps were taken toward the formation of a National Anti-Cancer Association.

The need and practicability of work for cancer prevention was pointed out by Dr. LeRoy Broun, chairman of a committee of the American Gynecological Society. Dr. Broun also gave practical suggestions for work among work women, who are the most frequent victims of cancer.

The work of the new association will be along the lines followed by the National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, whose methods were described at this meeting by its secretary, Livingston Farrand. This will include magazine articles—the *Delineator* has indeed already gone into this field—leaflets, instruction by nurses, and lectures before womens clubs and other associations.

A committee of organization, consisting of Leroy Broun, James Speyer, V. Everit Macy, George C. Clark and Frederick L. Hoffman was appointed to report to the Congress of Physicians to be held at Washington next month.

FINGER PRINTS

PROBLEMS[1]

HELEN R. GUTMANN

A method of teaching arithmetic was in vogue some years ago by which the answer to each problem was printed in the back of the book. Sometimes a problem was stated wrongly or the answer given was incorrect. Of course, that complicated matters. I believe they teach arithmetric differently now.

Mildred worked unceasingly at her problem. She worked at it quite cheerfully as she set out briskly in the morning for her two mile walk from her home to the shop where she was employed as a cash girl. She worked at it wearily as she crept home on tired swollen feet, when every automobile as it whizzed past her seemed to scream "cash!" with its shrill siren.

The problem dealt with figures so small it would seem a child in the third grade could solve it. Mildred knew it to be so difficult that no professor of mathematics could have brought her nearer the answer.

This was the problem, though Mildred did not state it in quite the same way. Let x equal $3.50, her earnings. From x, plus the very small and uncertain earnings of her mother, take food for five plus rent and leave enough for a neat black dress. She had multiplied the earnings by many weeks but she had to multiply the food and rent by an equal number and the answer never came right.

Sometimes, just to keep up her spirits, she would pretend she had solved it—then what a pleasant array of problems presented themselves! The black dress meant a clerk's position and added salary. With that as a beginning one might figure up to a buyer's position. Somewhere between lay the possibilities of some problems like this:

Let x equal Mildred's salary: x minus rent, minus food, minus clothes equals y, which is enough left over to permit the tired mother to hire a woman for the washing.

One must be half starved and insufficiently clad to realize the magnitude of that problem, rightly solved. The storms of early spring in New York solve many problems by eliminating the mathematician. In Mildred's case they only postponed the solving.

Shoes have no hopes nor dreams, nor even problems, to keep them from wearing out in miles of daily walking over cobblestones, and miles of walking back and forth in the store. Mildred's shoes developed gaps and fissures, and were useless to keep out the wet. Rent was due.

[1]Drawn from a case record of the New York Charity Organization Society.

There was no money to be spared even for carfare. So huge a sum as new shoes meant was impossible.

Mildred developed pneumonia.

There are people in every city who put aside their own problems to help solve those of others. To one in Mildred's straits these became, no longer dreaded agents of charity, to be avoided, but friends. It was due to one of these friends that Mildred recovered. But with convalescence returned her problem, its weary repetition standing between her and health.

It was then the kindly agent went to her former employer. His sympathy was sincere. There were tears in his eyes when the story was finished.

"That must never happen again," he declared. "Tell her to come to me if she is ever in trouble again. She shall have shoes, or whatever she needs for comfort."

Charity, however, was not what Mildred required, but adequate pay for service. That could not be granted. It would establish that terrifying thing, a precedent!

Elsewhere the agent met with better success, Mildred has employment again and better pay: And with x as a known and more satisfactory basis, she forms her problems now.

But her old arithmetic remains the lesson book of how many other girls?

EDITORIAL GRIST

HOLDING FAST TO THE TWELVE-HOUR DAY

JOHN A. FITCH

The United States Steel Corporation, in the annual meeting of its stockholders, held in Hoboken, N. J., April 21, took a step which may tend to cause a reaction among that part of the public which had come to believe, on account of the frequent pronouncements by the corporation of its kindly intent toward its employes, that it would take any reasonable and logical step that it might to improve labor conditions.

To make this clear it is not necessary to go back to the addresses in this vein that have been delivered from time to time by executive officers of the corporation before the American Iron and Steel Institute and elsewhere. It is sufficient to refer to the committee of stockholders, appointed by Judge Gary in the fall of 1911, who made a report on labor conditions to the stockholders meeting of 1912. Their report declared that 25¾ per cent of the employes of the corporation were working twelve hours a day. This figure included all employes in mines and quarries, as well as in mills and furnaces. The committee made it clear that "this schedule of work was found in the largest proportion in its departments which are more or less continuous, such as rolling mills, open hearths, and blast furnaces, where the percentage of work for the twelve hours varies from 50 to 60."

Speaking of the effects of the twelve-hour day, the committee said:

> "We are of the opinion that a twelve-hour day of labor, followed continuously by any group of men for any considerable number of years means a decreasing of the efficiency and lessening of the vigor and virility of such men.
>
> "The question should be considered from a social as well as a physical point of view. When it is remembered that the twelve hours a day to the man in the mills means approximately thirteen hours away from his home and family—not for one day, but for all working days—it leaves but scant time for self improvement, for companionship with his family, for recreation and leisure. It is important that any industry be considered in its relation to the home life of those engaged in it, as to whether it tends to weaken or strengthen the normalness and stability of family life. By a reasonable conserving of the strength of the working population of today may we be best assured of a healthy, intelligent, productive citizenship in the future. . . .
>
> "That steps should be taken now that shall have for their purpose and end a reasonable and just arrangement to all concerned, of the problems involved in this question—*that of reducing the long hours of labor*—we would respectfully recommend to the intelligent and thoughtful consideration of the proper officers of the Corporation."

As a result of this recommendation, the finance committee of the Corporation appointed a subcommittee of its members, "to consider what, if any, arrangement with a view to reducing the twelve-hour day, in so far as it now exists among the employes of the subsidiary companies, is reasonable, just and practicable." Their findings are published in the annual report of the corporation for the year 1912, which has recently been issued. The committee calls attention to the fact that the stockholders' committee found that "only about 25 per cent of the total number of employes" were working twelve hours a day. This, in spite of the fact that the committee distinctly reported that 50 to 60 per cent of actual steel workers were twelve-hour men. But as to relieving the situation, the report reads "it is believed that unless competing iron and steel manufacturers will also enforce a less than twelve-hour day, the effort to reduce the twelve hours per day at all our works will result in losing a large number of our employes, many of them preferring to take positions requiring more hours of work per day."

The report then points out that a considerable number of men during the past year have left the employ of the Steel Corporation because they have enforced the six day week, and have gone to the employ of other companies where they could work seven days, and expresses the fear that the same thing would happen if an eight-hour day were adopted by the corporation.

Of course, nothing is said in this report, nor was anything said at the stockholders' meeting of April 21, as to the real reason why workers leave their positions when hours of labor are shortened. The inference to be drawn from the report is that steel workers are so consumed with a passion for work that they do not desire to leave it, even for one day in seven.

The facts are that the cost of this reform was borne by the men. The Steel Corporation did not pay its men their old earnings for their new six day stint. It would be interesting to know the actual wages received by the larger proportion of those who left the employ of the Corporation in order that they might work seven days a week for other companies. We should then be able to draw our own conclusions as to whether it was a passion for work or a desire to support their families in decency and comfort that led them to look elsewhere for work when their earnings were reduced by one-seventh.

But the Steel Corporation found itself, according to its own testimony, in a quandary. A committee of its own stockholders had recommended an abolition of the twelve-hour day. The finance committee had considered the matter carefully and reported back that because its competitors had not changed from the twelve-hour day, they could not. It was a practical difficulty and they intimated that they were unable to solve it. It was to cut this Gordian knot that Charles M. Cabot, the Boston stockholder who was responsible for the investigation conducted last year by the stockholders' committee headed by Stuyvesant Fish, went to the meeting on April 21 with this resolution:

> "Voted, that in view of the Finance Committee's report that the change from the twelve to the eight-hour day in continuance twenty-four hour processes in our mills and plants is impracticable unless similar action is taken by our competitors; and, further, in view of the fruitful results which followed the appointment by the American Iron and Steel Institute at the instigation of officers of our Corporation of a committee on seven-day labor, which action has led to the very general establishment of the six-day week in the steel industry of the United States; that the stockholders request the directors to enlist the co-operation of the steel manufacturers of the United States in establishing the eight-hour day in continuous twenty-four hour processes."

The purpose of this resolution was to provide the quickest, most efficient manner of solving the dilemma in which the Corporation found itself, and to provide a way whereby there could be restored to the workers such a working schedule, as would not sap their vitality or prevent them from having what the stockholders' committee thought was necessary time for relaxation and for association with their families. That this resolution was tabled with the consent of the officials of the Corporation, will undoubtedly be interpreted by many as an indication that the Corporation was not sincere in its plea that its hands were tied in trying to meet the demand of the Fish committee for a reduction in hours.

Yet Mr. Cabot performed in offering this resolution possibly his greatest service since he began his campaign to improve the labor conditions in the steel industry even though it was an achievement that he did not have in mind. He forced the Corporation to show its hand; he gave it an opportunity to prove whether or not it really desired, as it was on record as desiring, a fundamental reform. The Corporation gave him an unmistakable answer.

It would have been better if they had not forgotten the wise counsel of William B. Dickson, their former vice-president, when he said, in a speech advocating one day of rest in seven, that if the steel companies themselves did not institute this reform, they would be compelled by law to institute it, and that the law would be far more drastic than the manufacturers of steel would find comfortable.

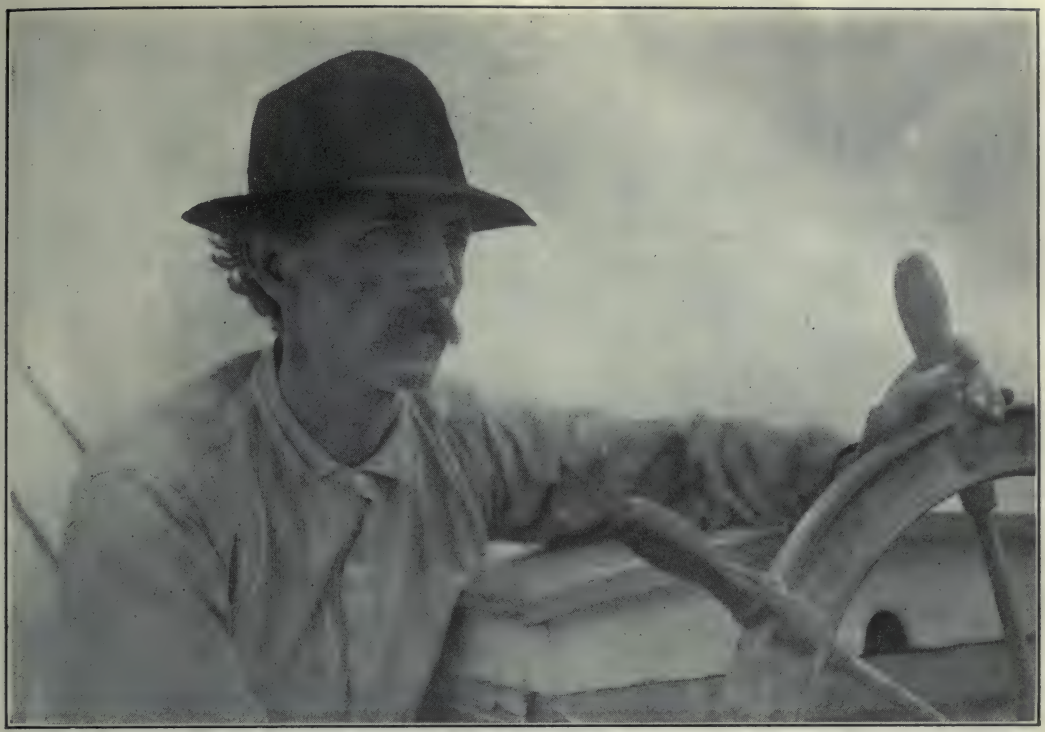
BEDFORD REFORMATORY

W. J. LAMPTON in the *New York Times*

[Bedford Reformatory, a State institution doing invaluable service in the reclamation of wayward girls, is overcrowded and asks $700,000 from the state for extension purposes.]

Behold, she stands
And stretches out her hands
For aid.
Those firm, strong hands,
Those gentle, helpful hands,
Whose spirit unafraid
Of sin and shame and loss
Have borne the burden of the cross
For girls unnamable, whose feet
Have trod the open street,
The market-place
Of body and of soul,
In search of toll
From any man who gave
To own a common slave,
The chattel of the street.
These Bedford comes to meet,
But not as shameless things;
To them she brings
Love, courage, hope, the better way,
The clean, new day
Whose morning sun awakes
Another world to these half gone
And hopeless ones
To whom there was no other dawn.
And now she stands
With outstretched hands
For aid; the means to lift
Out of the ghastly drift
These girl-souls crying in the night
For kindly light.
And shall she be denied?
Shall men who buy
Deny?
Shall any man, in whom his pride
In his own womankind is strong,
Go wrong
And say
To Bedford: "Nay"?

May 3, 1913.



THE OYSTERMAN

BALTIMORE TO BILOXI AND BACK

THE CHILD'S BURDEN IN OYSTER AND SHRIMP CANNERIES

Investigation and Photographs by

LEWIS W. HINE

FOR THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

[*Mr. Hine's photographs and the equally vivid impressions he sets down in the text, tell a story of child labor along the South Atlantic and the Gulf. In an especial sense these are conditions which public opinion can bring to the door of the Democratic Party to remedy. For in these states that party is dominant, as it is in the nation.*

First lies the channel of state action, which has thus far been laggard, and has been obstructed by the child employing interests of the South. At the present time, a child labor bill which would reach this shore work, is pending in Florida. In Mississippi shucking is prohibited but there is no enforcing agency and the work is going on as before.

If the channel of state action fails, child labor reformers point to such national legislation as would prohibit interstate commerce in canned oysters and shrimps which are so humanly costly. The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the white slave case would seem to indicate that legislation could be drafted which would hold in the courts, and several bills along the lines of the much controverted Beveridge bill of 1907 are now before Congress.

It is for the Democratic Party in state and nation to proceed through one channel or the other.—Ed.]

WHEN we speak of child labor in oyster canning, we refer to the cooked or "cove" oysters, not to the raw ones. Children are not used in opening raw oysters for the sole reason that their fingers are not strong enough. Occasionally one finds young boys at work on the boats dredging for the oysters, but not many children work on the boats, for that is a man's job.

The two chief sections engaged in the work



A TYPICAL OYSTER AND SHRIMP CANNERY

of canning oysters and shrimps are the Gulf Coast, from New Orleans eastward to Florida, and the Atlantic Coast of Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Maryland was the pioneer state, but it has already been outstripped by Mississippi, and several other states follow close in amount of annual output.

Every year about October, hundreds of Polish and Bohemian people (some authorities say thousands) are herded together by various bosses or "padrones" in Baltimore and other centers of the South shipped over to the coasts by train and by boat and set up in shacks provided by the canning companies. We are told by one of the canners, "We give these people all the modern conveniences." The modern conveniences appear to be summed up in artesian wells. If there were no cold or wet weather in these parts, if waste and sewage were carried off, and if there were no crowding, these tempor-



WORKING UNDER THE WATCHFUL EYE OF THE BOSS



RAMSHACKLE SHEDS HOUSING NEARLY FIFTY WORKERS PORT ROYAL, S. C.

ary quarters would be endurable; but in cold, or hot, or wet weather they are positively dangerous, especially to children. One row of dilapidated shacks that I found in South Carolina housed fifty workers in a single room house. One room sheltered eight persons, and the shacks were located on an old shell pile within a few rods of the factory, a few feet from the tidal marsh where odors, mosquitoes, and sand flies made life intolerable, especially in hot weather.

There is a prevailing impression that in the matter of child labor the emphasis on the labor must be very slight, but let me tell you right here that these processes involve work, hard work, deadening in its monotony, exhausting physically, irregular, the workers' only joy the closing hour. We might even say of these children that they are condemned to work.

Come out with me to one of these canneries at three o'clock some morning. Here is the



THREE-YEAR-OLD ALMA WHOSE MOTHER IS "LEARNIN' HER THE TRADE"

crude shed-like building, with a long dock at which the oyster boats unload their cargoes. Near the dock is the ever present shell pile, a monument of mute testimony to the patient toil of little fingers. It is cold, damp, dark. The whistle blew some time ago, and the young workers slipped into their meager garments, snatched a bite to eat and hurried to the shucking shed. The padrone told me "Ef dey don't git up, I go and *git 'em up.*" See those little ones over there stumbling through the dark over the shell piles, munching a piece of bread, and rubbing their heavy eyes. Boys and girls, six seven and eight years of age, take their places with the adults and work all day.

The cars are ready for them with their loads of dirty, rough clusters of shells, and as these shells accumulate under foot in irregular piles, they soon make the mere matter of standing one of physical strain. Notice the uncertain footing, and the dilapidated foot-wear of that little girl, and opposite is one with cloth fingers to protect herself from the jagged shells—they call them "finger-stalls." Their fingers are often sore in spite of this precaution.

When they are picking shrimps, their fingers and even their shoes are attacked by a corrosive substance in the shrimp that is strong enough to eat the tin cans into which they are put. The day's work on shrimp is much shorter than on oysters as the fingers of the worker give out in spite of the fact that they are compelled to harden them in an alum solution at the end of the day. Moreover, the shrimp are packed in ice, and a few hours handling of these icy things is dangerous for any child. Then, too, the mornings, and many of the days, are cold, foggy and damp.

The workers are thinly clad, but, like the fabled ostrich, cover their heads and imagine they are warm. If a child is sick, it gets a vacation, and wanders around to kill time.

The youngest of all shift for themselves at a very early age. One father told me that they brought their baby, two months old, down to the shucking-shed at four o'clock every morning and kept it there all day. Another told me that they locked a baby of six months in the shack when they went away in the morning, and left it until noon, then left it alone again all the afternoon. A baby carriage with its occupant half smothered under piles of blankets is a common sight. Snuggled up against a steam box you find many a youngster asleep on a cold morning. As soon as they can toddle, they hang around the older members of the family, something of a nuisance, of course, and very early they learn to amuse themselves. For hours at a time, they play with the dirty shells, imitating the work of the grown-ups. They toddle around the shed, and out on to the docks at the risk of their lives.

A little older and they learn to "tend the baby." As a substitute for real recreation, this baby-tending is pathetic.

Mary said, "I shucks six pots if I don't got the baby; two pots if I got him."

As soon as they can handle the oysters and shrimps, they are "allowed to help."

The mother often says, "Sure. I'm learnin' her de trade," and you see many youngsters beginning to help at a very early age. Standing on a box in order to reach the table, little Olga, five years old, was picking shrimps for her mother at the cannery I visited. Later in the day, I found her at home worn out with the work she had been doing, but the mother complained that Olga was "ugly." Little sympathy they get when they most need it! Four-year-old Mary was working irregularly through the day shucking about two pots of oysters. The mother is the fastest shucker in the place, and the boss said,

"Mary will work *steady* next year." The most excitement that many of them get from one month to another is that of being dressed up in their Sunday best to spend the day seeing the sights of the settlement.

Now we all know that the amount of work these little ones can do is not much, and yet I have been surprised and horrified at the number of hours a day a six or a seven year old will stay at work, and this with the willing and eager consent of the parents. "Freckled Bill," a bright lad of five years, told me that he worked, and his mother added reproachfully,

"He kin make fifteen cents any day he wants to work, but he won't do it steady."

Annie, seven years old, is a steady worker. The mother said, for her benefit, of course, "She kin beat me shuckin', an' she's mighty good at housework too, but I mustn't praise her too much right before her."

This is only one of the means used to keep the children at work. Another method is to tell the neighbors that Annie can shuck eight pots a day. Then some other child beats the record, and so the interest is kept up, and incidentally the work is done and the family income enlarged. Can we call that motherhood? Compared with real maternity, it is a distorted perversion, a travesty. The baby at Ellis Island little dreams what is in store for him.

Hundreds of these children from four to twelve years of age are regularly employed, often as helpers, for the greater part of the six months if it is a good season. At three and four years of age they play around and help a little, "learnin' de trade." At five and six years of age they work more regularly, and at seven and eight years, they put in long

hours every working day. This is the regular program for these children day after day, week after week for the six months of their alleged—"outing down South."

I remarked to one of the village people, "It's a wonder that these youngsters live through it all."

"Yes," she replied, "and when they *don't* live through it, there is a corner over in a little cemetery waiting for them, and *many of them go there.*"

You see, "They're only Hickeys."

I suppose the cemetery is one of the "conveniences" that the company does not boast about.

The wages of these workers vary according to their locality, and the kind of season they find. The work on the shrimp is better paid than oyster-shucking, but it is much more irregular. On the latter families frequently earn ten and fifteen or twenty dollars a week so when there are several children, and the work is steady, there is a great temptation to make them all help. Children of seven years earn about twenty-five cents a day, and at eight and ten years of age often fifty cents a day or more. At twelve and fourteen years they frequently earn as high as a dollar a day and this is adult pay. The fastest adult shucker seldom earns much more than a dollar a day after years of experience. What then is the outlook for children beginning this industry?

"What is your name, little girl?"

"Dunno."

"How old are you?"

"Dunno."

"How many pots do you shuck in a day?"

"Dunno."

And the pity of it is that *they do not know.*

What then do they know? Enough to stand patiently with the rest picking up one hard, dirty cluster of shells, deftly prying them open, dropping the meat into the pot; and then go through this process with another and another and another, until after many minutes the pot is full—a relief, for they carry it over to the weigher and rest doing nothing a minute, and walk back,—such a change from the dreary standing, reaching, prying and dropping—minute upon minute, hour upon hour, day upon day, month after month. Or perchance, for variety, the catch may have been shrimp, and then the hours of work are shorter, but the shrimp are icy cold, and the blood in one's fingers congeals, and the fingers become so sore that she welcomes the oysters again.



CHILDREN OF THE OYSTER CANNERIES

A young girl who has been shucking six years and earns a dollar a day; a little mother who alternates baby tending and oyster shucking; a ten-year-old worker has no time for school.

Are you surprised then to find that many children seem dumb and can not understand our language?

"But we educate them" some canners tell us.

This is the way they do it. In the few places where I found any pretense to education the children shucked oysters for four hours before school. Then they went to school for half a day, returning at one o'clock for a hurried lunch.

They worked for four hours more, five days in the week. On Saturday they put in an alleged half day consisting of eight or nine hours work. Is it any marvel that the school principal told me "It isn't satisfactory, but at least we are giving them some help in learning the language." They need the help. At another place, with two canneries, but two children were going to school, and the illiteracy of both adults and children was appalling.

"There is no compulsion about schooling here," the principal said.

The "vocational guidance" which most of them receive, year in and year out, is seen in the sheds where under the eagle eye of the boss, who watches to see that they do not shirk, and under the pressure of parental authority, they put in their time where it will bring tangible returns. One padrone told me:

"I keep 'em a-working all the year. In the winter, bring 'em down here to the gulf. In summer, take 'em to the berry fields of Maryland and Delaware. They don't lose many weeks' time, but I have a hard time to get 'em sometimes. Have to tell 'em all kinds of lies."

So here we have a certain kind of "scientific management" of child labor by means of which even the vacation time of the children is utilized.

"Why do they do it?"—that question comes to one over and over; what keeps these little ones at their uninteresting task? In the first place, their immigrant parents are frugal, even parsimonious, and every little helps. Then they think it keeps the children out of trouble, little realizing that they are storing up trouble when they grow up, handicapped by lack of education, broken physically, and with a distaste for work. Small wonder if they drift into the industrial maelstrom of cheap, inefficient labor, and float on as industrial misfits.

If we look at it from the employer's point of view, we find his chief justification is that children are needed because the goods are perishable, and must be put up immediately. You ask him if the children are not perishable, and he says he can't see that they are spoiled. "It doesn't hurt 'em. They're tough. I began myself at their age," and so on. It will be long years before these employers will be looking at this children's labor with a long-range finder, a problem to be met along with that of improved machinery. The children themselves are docile; they do as they are told; they are imitative, like to do what the rest are doing; they are easily stimulated by the idea of competing with other children; and they are very sensitive to criticism and ridicule. I do not, however, recall a single case of a child being whipped for not working. It can easily be seen that with the parents, or employers, and children against it, the task of liberation from this commercialized family peonage of immature workers is not an easy one.

On the Atlantic Coast more Negroes are employed, than on the Gulf Coast, and they do not work the children very much, except where they have come under the influence of the immigrant workers. In almost every case, the bosses and padrones agree that the Baltimore workers are much more satisfactory than the Negroes. They say:

"There is no comparing them. The whites work harder, longer hours, are more easily driven, and use the children much more."

The chief advantage of Negro help is that it saves the cost of transportation. Where it is necessary to get the work done promptly the immigrants are imported.

That this exploitation of the children is absolutely unnecessary is proven by the canneries that get along without them. It needs merely more efficient planning on the part of the managers, and better supervision on the part of the state. It is certainly a condition not to be endured when we consider the hardships involved—the long hours, the monotonous and tiring work, the irregular conditions of work and of life, the exposure, the unsanitary surroundings, the moral dangers, the lack of education, and the double exploitation of summer and winter.

One morning I found a little cannery worker setting about her endless job. At the end of the day as I passed near, human nature asserted itself. She asked me to photograph her dolly too, this oyster shucker.



SHE SHUCKS OYSTERS
For twenty-five cents a day. Seven-year-old Gulf Coast worker.

M'AMS AND SUPERM'AMS

How the public school, responding to the trend of the twentieth century, is developing new staff and personality to link up the classroom with the individual aptitudes of children and with their life outside of school hours, with home making, workmanship and community life.

THE VISITING TEACHER
THE VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR
THE HOUSEHOLD ADMINISTRATOR

SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ELEANOR HOPE JOHNSON
SECRETARY COMMITTEE ON THE HYGIENE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, PUBLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN, in one of her most appealing stories, tells of a child who was walking in a garden with his mother when they came upon a misshapen tree. In reply to the mother's question as to why the tree was crooked the child replied that he guessed someone had stepped on it when it was little. So it is with many of the children in our larger cities—they get stepped on physically, intellectually and spiritually when they are young.

Little Ivan, whose mother had come here from Russia after passing through we know not how many scenes of terror and suffering, bore the stamp of her misery on his face and in his soul. When he came to a New York public school at eight years of age it seemed impossible that teacher and textbook should be able to do anything for him. He was ragged and dirty and could not speak. But after patient effort the teacher of the special class, where he had been put, found that he was not a mute and that he did understand English. Next, his mother was seen, and she became so interested in her boy's welfare that his ragged days were brought to an end. A new suit of clothes and a clean face transformed him into an intelligent and alert looking youngster. Now he is struggling with the words, "boy and ran, dog and book," and is attacking the other branches with some notion of what they are all about. His destructive tendency is being dealt with firmly and patiently, and there are great hopes that some day Ivan may develop into a normal and sturdy boy.

This story of Ivan is a good illustration of what the school can do to help prevent the little



NELLO, THE "UTTERLY BAD"
Until a visiting teacher went to his home and found his mother dying of cancer, Nello nursing her and the three younger children, and the father sharing his morning beer with the undersized boy. The schoolroom tantrum was understood then. Nello was sent to the country.

trees from being so harshly trodden upon. It is also a good illustration of the manner in which they can do it. For it is one of the most promising signs of our times that our conception of the process called education is a constantly broadening one. It is no longer enough to teach children to read, write and cipher, even to draw, cook and sew. We have been in the past contented with the dictum that the public schools exist in order to abolish illiteracy, but now we are inclined to take the fuller meaning which, surprisingly enough, the dictionary gives: "to educate is to qualify for the business and duties of life." Up to now, unfortunately, the dictionary has not been followed with too great care. Much time has been lost and from the results of this loss we are now suffering. In our new vision, the schools must not only train children toward constructive citizenship, but must do what they can to prevent the development of destructive citizens, must help in overcoming completely the original anti-social condition into which psychologists tell us children are born.

Industrial teaching and vocational guidance through the public schools should do much to bring about this training toward constructive citizenship. But for the equally important task of prevention some preliminary work must be done. Obstacles must be removed. Those who can profit by such training must be sifted out from those who cannot, and through the schools we must fit by some preliminary process, those who at first sight seem unfit. For in the schools are often found the beginning of all the bitter problems with which our strongest philanthropic organizations are struggling so manfully. "Millions for cure, nothing for prevention" sometimes seems to express pretty clearly where the emphasis has been placed in the past. The schools can help greatly if they would get back behind the present situation, and discuss, point out, and if necessary, perform these acts of prevention.

What does all this mean? It means that social service must come to be regarded as a justifiable function of the schools, as justifiable as it has already become in the case of at least two other institutions.

Upwards of twenty years ago a militant clergyman in New York is quoted as having said: "It is all very well to talk of saving souls, but I never yet have seen a soul that was not connected with a body." At that time religious work was confined much more closely than it now is within certain traditional limits, and these ringing words did much to turn the attention of the churches toward their old ideal of social service.

A later grafting of the spirit of social service on long established practices is shown in the progress of hospital social service. What first opened the eyes of the medical profession is not recorded, but it was soon proven that the assurance given to a woman at the hospital that her children were being well cared for in her absence hastened her recovery, and that the visits of a wise and sympathetic nurse or trained social worker to the home of a discharged patient almost always succeeded in preventing that patient's return because of a relapse due to carelessness or ignorance. A physician in a large Boston hospital where the social service is famous for its completeness and efficiency has said that a good social service nurse saves her salary twice over by the cures she hastens and the returns she prevents.

There is a tradition in this country on which we greatly pride ourselves, that education, at least in certain of its fundamental branches, is free to all who wish to avail themselves of the opportunity afforded by the state. Indeed, we go so far in most of our states as to make it not only free but compulsory between certain ages. But look carefully through any large school and many a small one, and you will find children who would gladly partake of this free education but who for many reasons, and through no fault of their own, are unable to do so. Children who sit idly in school or stumble blindly through a grade or two, and children whose names are finally taken from the register because for them no place in school can be made. And so we come to see that our free education is for those fortunate ones who are fitted for it, while for others it is practically non-existent. You can compel a child to go to school, but you cannot compel him to profit by his stay there.

The story of Nello is a pathetic illustration of this. Here was a boy of eleven, pitifully small for his age, who had been placed in an ungraded class, and was disturbing the class and distracting the teacher by his utter badness. A visitor was asked to investigate the home conditions and find out a possible explanation for his incorrigibility. She found ample cause. Nello's mother was dying of cancer. His father was a heavy drinker, often out of work, who shared his beer with the small boy instead of getting proper food for him each morning. Nello was the only nurse his mother and the three younger children had, and his burden of responsibility gave him no other outlet except the schoolroom tantrum. A nurse and proper food were secured. The two youngest children were placed temporarily in an institution. Nello was taken to a doctor who said that the boy was permanently dwarfed because of his alcoholic diet, and the father was induced to discontinue this and give him milk instead. With better food and some time in the country it may be proved that Nello is only temporarily dwarfed mentally, even if his physical state is permanent. In any event, with the burden, too



CLASS FOR ANAEMIC CHILDREN IN A NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOL
When the room is in a building the windows are so arranged that the largest amount of air is taken into the room. The windows are never closed.

great for his narrow shoulders, finally removed the boy is now doing well in school and his future is not hopeless.

Happily certain phases of the situation are now being remedied. Through the increase in the differentiation of special classes within the schools our educational systems are making education more nearly free to all, and so taking a most important part in the great work of prevention. We are ceasing to think quite so exclusively of the ambulances at the foot of the precipice and are building our fence, foot by foot, across its top. By means of these special classes, the different demands which differently constituted minds and bodies make are in great part met, the fact that certain obstacles prevent many minds from attaining full development is recognized; and due allowance is made for the effect physical and mental handicaps have on individual education.

To give an instance: In the public schools of New York these special classes are carried out to an admirable extent. Physical handicaps are recognized and provided for in the classes for cripples, for blind, anaemic and tubercular children, and in the School for the Deaf. The teachers of these classes come to know a great deal about the homes and the individual difficulties of their pupils, and what home or medical care will be of the greatest assistance to them educationally. Bodies are cared for, lunches even are furnished, that the mind may have a chance to grow strong and keen—for the school lunch is more and more recognized as a real factor in education.

For the backward children and for those who are mentally rather than physically defective, there are other special classes; those for the over-age children, for foreigners who come to school before they have learned to speak English, for children who are trying to get their working papers, and the so-called Ungraded Class for those who are apparently or really backward to a hopeless extent. Often members of this latter group find their way into the classes for foreign children or those who are trying for working papers, so limiting the best usefulness of those classes.

But one step further must be taken, and in some places and in some connections is being taken in this work of prevention, and of bringing together the incomplete little being and his opportunity for becoming more complete. This step is the adaptation of the ideal of social service to our educational work and through it we shall finally come to see, I believe, the supremely important part the schools must play in the solution of our most perplexing social problems. Often this part will be not to take the actual steps themselves, but to point out to other especially equipped agencies the steps that must be taken by them in order to prevent future misery and crime. From the schools must come our most valuable information and advice concerning the treatment of various groups of dependent children. They constitute the great dragnet and the natural clearing house.

The day is fast coming when just as surely as social service is an inseparable and honored part of both religious and medical institutions,

so it shall be of our educational work. Phases of this service or movements closely allied to it, are already being slowly introduced into the public school systems of some cities, volunteer agencies are carrying on a more definite social service in close connection with the schools, and always a good teacher, interested to learn of the home surroundings of her pupils, is the most effective social service worker the schools can have.

But when the effort is made to introduce direct social service into the school system itself a suspicion has often been felt on the part of the governing body, or on that of the taxpayer, that here is an attempt to turn the schools into charitable centers. They do not seem to realize nor take to heart the message of that minister of twenty years ago that while it is all very well to talk about training the mind, no one has ever yet seen a mind that was not connected with a body. The obstacles which often prevent the mind's full development must be discovered and removed before the education the schools offer can be taken full advantage of. The same close relationship which hospital social service brings about with a patient's home must be established by the school with the homes of its pupils—as in the case of Nello—so that any hindrance to a child's education existing there may be ascertained and as far as possible overcome. Much social service of a valuable kind has been carried on in connection with some of the special classes in the New York city schools by outside agencies devoted to the care of particular forms of physical defect, and their assistance to both teachers and pupils has been generous and effective. In some cases the closest relation has existed between these organizations and the school system, as in the case of the classes for cripples. But as yet none of this work has been made an actual part of the system, though its value is recognized and the volunteer service used to the fullest extent.

Last year the social worker who was supplied to the department of ungraded classes of the New York public schools by the Public Education Association proved abundantly the need for such work in connection with all the special classes for children who are backward from any cause whatever. Children who appeared to be hopelessly defective were taken by this worker to hospitals or clinics and found to be far more nearly normal than had been at first supposed. Children who seemed to be in immediate danger of getting into evil ways because of their mental defect and whose parents were unequal to the task of keeping them from harming themselves or others, were placed in institutions where they could be taught and cared for. Out of a hundred cases investigated the visitor succeeded in placing nineteen in institutions. Unwillingness on the part of parents or lack of room in the institutions prevented putting the others there also. On the other hand, the child who could



CLASS FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN IN A NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOL
Note the adjustable chairs which can be suited to the particular difficulty of the child occupying it. Much manual work is done in these classes.



GROUP FROM A CLASS FOR FOREIGN CHILDREN IN A NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOL

These children of immigrant parents enter the class immediately on landing. The average stay is three months, when they go out into the regular grades for which they are fitted, according to the previous education they have had in their own countries. One teacher says: "They absorb just like little sponges. They are so eager to learn."

not remain in the regular grades because of mental weakness was visited at home, his difficulties explained to the parents, who were ignorantly and often cruelly blaming him for a fault not his own, and he was finally placed, with the parents' full understanding and consent, in an ungraded class. Adjustments have been made which will affect many a child's whole career for good, advice has been given at home which has in some cases changed the status of an entire family.

Because of the work done by this visitor and the effective way in which the inspector of ungraded classes has incorporated her work into the general plan for these classes; and also on account of the recommendation made by the State Charities Aid Association that more knowledge should be secured by the schools of the atypical children there, the New York Board of Education has decided to install two such visitors in the Department of Ungraded Classes. This is the first time, so far as I know, that an appropriation has been made by a school system for such a purpose. It is a step towards fulfilling this newer ideal of education of which New York city may well be proud.

It is impossible to measure the good that would result if this service were widened to include the other classes for backward children I have mentioned, particularly the working paper classes. At the Board of Health the other day a pretty Italian girl of fifteen was examined for her working paper. Her writing of the simplest English sentence was so poor that her paper was refused, and she was told she must stay in school until she was sixteen. The girl and her father came in despair to appeal to the head of the department. It was not a case of poverty; the father had work, and so had older brothers and sisters. On the girl's side it was discontent and restlessness—"I do not want to go to school any more; they scold me all the time." She had been in a special working paper class and had undoubtedly been dull and unambitious. The father had a more serious story. His English was halting, they talked only Italian at home, he told me, which accounted somewhat for the girl's curious mistakes. But the mother was dead, the older sister working, and there was no one at home to look after the girl in her hours after school. The father's distressed face showed clearly his perplexity as to the chaperonage of his daughter according to the Italian ideas. It was not safe or proper that she should be at home alone or wandering about the streets; she was better off at work. Whether the father's statement was true or not, without much question the girl will never go regularly to school again, if she goes at all—in spite of attendance officers and all—and for another year she cannot go legally to work. It is not hard to guess the sequel, and the remedy is equally easy to see. How long will it take us to learn that when we take something from young people which they must not have, we must at the same moment supply its place with something desirable but safe. Social service directly connected with the school would solve the future of the pretty little Italian and of many others in the same evil case. They want not only the careful schooling that will correct the lack which prevents them from going to work, but, more than that, the home visiting which shall explain the need for this further training and arouse interest in the connection between school and work.

The best example of volunteer social service in connection with the public schools is that which for several years has been carried on by various outside agencies interested in linking more closely the school and the home, but always limited to work with the regular grades.

The Home and School League of Philadelphia has done valuable work in arousing interest in this direction, and now a number of such visitors are at work in the city supported by various private organizations. They are doing the same sort of work as that done by the vis-

itors in New York and Boston, although from the reports it would seem that both in Philadelphia and Boston special attention is given by them to vocational guidance. A particularly valuable piece of work has been done by the home visitor appointed by the Armstrong Association to work among the colored pupils of Philadelphia; the Friend's Preventive Association, the Juvenile Protective Association, and the Children's Aid Societies, also support visitors. These are being used to an increasing degree by the Bureau of Compulsory Education of Philadelphia in carrying on the preventive work connected with that bureau.

In Boston there are now five full-time and seven or eight part-time school visitors. Each visitor is engaged by some private organization, such as the Women's Educational Association, the Home and School Association, a group of settlements, or by some individual. She is attached to a special school or district and does all her work there. This is the arrangement in all three cities. The work has been supervised by a committee of the Women's Educational Association, and this committee represents settlements and other social agencies. Work of this sort, but on a smaller scale, is being done both in Worcester, Mass., and in Rochester, N. Y., the visiting teachers working under the Public Education Association of New York have been increasingly effective in their efforts to solve for the often over-burdened teacher problems connected with individual children.

Efforts have been made from time to time by the supervising force to instruct teachers to visit the homes of the children in their classrooms and ascertain the conditions under which they were living, but with the present large size of classes in most public schools this has been found to be quite impracticable. Besides this, to overcome the difficulties in the way of a child's education much visiting of an expert sort and many efforts for outside co-operation are often necessary, for which the teachers could not possibly find time. Separate visitors are therefore needed. There are so many illustrations of the sort of work they do, that it is hard to select one that is more telling than the rest.

From the report of a Boston visitor we learn of Angelina Conti, who was constantly tardy, frequently absent, and never alert or quick in her recitations. "She seems to lack ambition," says the report, "and must be dropped into a lower grade unless something can be done to brace her up." The visitor is sent to the home. She finds that Angelina is the oldest of nine children and that the family lives in three rooms. The burden of the family seems to rest on Angelina, who must wash the clothes every afternoon when she comes from school, and go for the baby's milk before school in the morning. Angelina is a perfectly compliant, patient little soul. She has a headache most of the time, but expects to do all that her mother asks of her. She hopes that the teacher won't "degrade" her.

The visitor urges Mrs. Conti to send a younger child for milk in the morning so that Angelina can come promptly to school. The headaches are reported to the school nurse, who sends Angelina to the hospital for much needed treatment. The whole situation is explained to the teacher, who gladly promises to send Angelina home promptly in the afternoon so that she may have time for her housework. There is a much better understanding between Angelina and her teacher, her health improves, she comes more regularly and keeps her class. Thus is the first step in preventing dependency taken.

An interesting part of the work of these social service workers has been to bring to bear on the lives of these "difficult children" all the agencies which might be of assistance. This same Boston visitor states in her report that "this new work of visiting the homes of the school children is one of continual co-operation with principals, teachers, truant officers, janitors and the children themselves, also with hospitals, dispensaries, employment agencies, the Associated Charities, or whatever the emergency may demand." Too often this sort of effort is scattered and ineffective because of the lack of connection between agencies. With a visitor working from the school as a starting point and not from any private organization, the connection is quickly made and the influence of each helping agency is strengthened by the added influence of every other. This has proved to be just as true in the case of medical social service, particularly that of public hospitals and institutions, and one might almost prophesy that some day the relief work of philanthropic agencies will come only in response to calls from the social service departments of church, hospital, public institution and school, and that a great clearing house for these agencies, public and private, will be the best way of organizing charity.

Be that as it may, social service is as surely needed in connection with training people's minds as it is with saving their souls and curing their bodies. It is easier to train our vines to grow straight and sure and to cling to the lattices we choose for them, if at the same time the soil is watered and enriched that the roots may be strong, and all things harmful to the plant's health are carefully kept from it. "As the twig is bent the tree's inclined," but the twig must be strong and healthy as well as straight, if the tree is to do its part in forming the forests our country must have if it would be prosperous. Surely anything that will make more effective the mental training and development of our country's future citizens is as fully justified.

THE VISITING TEACHER IN ACTION

MARY FLEXNER

VISITING TEACHER, PUBLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK CITY

WALTER preferred to play ball under the kindly protection of the Queensborough Bridge to attending school where he had no chance to show his ability as a leader. He had successfully evaded all the visits of the truant officer, and when his teacher asked me, a visiting teacher, to try my luck, I wondered what I should find. I called first upon his mother at her place of business and found her in thorough sympathy with the school, but apparently powerless to make her son attend. Walter took advantage of the fact that she left the house before he did, and as they alone comprised the family, he could disobey her and go to school or not as he saw fit. There was no one but himself to report to her in the evening just how he had spent his day.

I chose supper time for my first visit, and found him, as I hoped, at home, a little tired from his day's play and hungry, of course. His mother was there too. She was surprised when I told her that her son had not attended school that day, nor indeed for many days previously. We talked of many things, and just before leaving, I ventured to ask Walter what he wanted to be when he was a man. He was then twelve years old. He did not hesitate an instant. He wanted, he said, to be an architect. And then his mother showed me a little calendar he had painted which adorned the closet door. We struck a bargain. If he went to school regularly, I was to arrange with his teacher to give him a palette and brushes so that he could paint. It was possible to do this as he was in a special class in which the course of study is more easily adapted to the child's needs.

The next morning, when I opened the classroom door, two pairs of smiling eyes greeted me—the teacher's and Walter's. At once the teacher and I planned our campaign. Walter was to learn that at school he could get a chance at leadership too, for could he not play games there? At first, perhaps, they seemed tame compared with those under the bridge, for the classroom or the school-yard, even when given over to ball or bean-bag, does not easily associate itself in the child's mind with scenes of adventure. However, the chance of some time being captain of the team had charms even for him. The proof is to be found in the fact that he attended school regularly, earning, in so doing, his palette and brushes and at the end of the term promotion to a regular class.

The work of the visiting teacher has passed the experimental stage. The position was created to bridge a gap in the existing school machinery. The visiting teacher's province lies outside that of the regular teacher, the attendance officer and the school nurse, though like the attendance officer and the school nurse, she goes into the child's home. To her is assigned the group called the "difficult" children, and it is her aim to discover, if possible, the cause of the difficulty which manifests itself in poor scholarship, annoying conduct, irregular attendance, or the need of or desire for advice on some important phase of life. It is too much to expect the regular teacher, handicapped as she is by her large class, to cope with such situations. Nor is it to be expected that those qualified to act as attendance officer or school nurse, were they not already overburdened, should do the work of the visiting teacher. In her is united the training that makes a teacher and a social service worker, and it is because of this combination that she is able to widen the regular teacher's reach and help her interpret and solve the problems as they present themselves.

From the school she learns that the child is apparently making little effort; that his work is "C" or worse; that he is perpetually making trouble in the class room and is never attentive; that he seems lifeless, unable to keep pace with the class; that he attends so irregularly that it is impossible to teach him anything, or that he has no time to study and the situation at home is such that he must leave school and go to work. With these facts as clues she sets to work; it is impossible to define her methods, for they vary with her tact and resourcefulness and with the specific character of the problem before her. Briefly, they are the methods that spring from a friendly interest, an intimate personal relation.

Between the home and the school the visiting teacher vibrates, carrying to the former the school's picture of the child and returning to the school to reinforce that impression or to shed new light upon the problem. There is no fixed number of times that she is expected to travel this path, as there is no fixed hour of the day for her visits. The urgency and complexity of a situation alone determine her movements. Nor is there any regular routine of action that she follows. Whatever in her judgment seems imperative, she endeavors to effect, using to this end everything that the ingenuity of man has

devised to make smooth the rough places of life.

It is a focussing of interests that she demands. The child is the pivotal point on which she hopes to bring all her knowledge and experience to bear. Sometimes it is the expert teacher's training that she invokes; sometimes the psychologist or the physician, general or special, that she consults; or again it is the social worker to whom she appeals. Before these she lays the facts, the reasons why her services have been sought and from them she asks co-operation. To the adult, she is the visiting teacher; to the child, she is simply the "lady cop."

The results achieved do not always show a complete cure. In some cases there has been a marked improvement in scholarship, conduct or attendance,—at least a good start in the right direction has been made. In other cases the child has been transferred to a different class, regular, special or ungraded, or to a trade school, where his chances at succeeding in making a place for himself are increased. Again, the information the visiting teacher shares with the regular teacher has resulted in a change of attitude toward the child, in an expansion or contraction of the course of study, or in her giving the child extra instruction in study periods or out of school hours. Finally, he has been helped to promotion, even to graduation.

Last year 1,157 cases were handled by the seven visiting teachers maintained in New York by the Public Education Association. The majority of these came directly through the school, but in a few instances the visiting teacher was called in by the child's mother, a neighbor, or the child himself, all of whom, looking to her for help, show not only an appreciation of the fact that something is wrong, but also an understanding of what the visiting teacher is trying to accomplish. Their appeal emphasizes the necessity for just such a connection as she makes. Other cases came through settlements, charity organizations, churches, or the visiting teacher herself, whose attention had been attracted to some child on her rounds through the class-rooms. In every instance, however, before the child technically becomes a case, the principal and teacher are conferred with. His school record must show him to be below standard in either scholarship, conduct or attendance, or in need of such advice or information as will, if followed, enhance his general well being.

Five hundred and five of the children visited were below standard in scholarship. This deficiency might be due to any one of a number of causes directly traceable to "home conditions," such as congested or unsanitary living quarters, child labor, "overburdened childhood," and ignorance of or indifference to the school's claims. Or it might be that some school adjustment was necessary; for example, de-moting the child that is mentally and physically unequal to the grade's requirements; or drawing him out in recitations, should he be nervous or timid; or helping him in the preparation of the studies that trouble him.

Three hundred and thirteen children were below standard in conduct; that is, they were either out of sympathy with the school environment or they were guilty of some offence, such as stealing, lying, cheating, or sexual irregularity.

Four hundred and sixty-five children were irregular in attendance. Since the same child is sometimes below standard in scholarship and irregular in attendance, or in need of advice and information, the groups here mentioned often overlap and the numbers total more than 1,157.

Six hundred and seventy-five needed advice or information. In all of these cases the child needed someone to plead his cause either at home or at school, that he might be the more thoroughly understood and that his special need, whether it be recreational, physical, or vocational, might be satisfied.

The task of the visiting teacher is plain. She must get at the facts. This she does by studying closely the child's environment, realizing that he is the product of varied associations and influences. There are circles within circles—the home, the school, the immediate neighborhood, and what at times seems almost "beyond his ken," the great wide world itself. No analysis of the forces that in their play and interplay tend to shape this young life would be complete that did not include the shifting, kaleidoscopic scenes amid which so often his plastic years are spent; nor would the picture be lifelike did it not show upon its face the changes that are wrought through that remoter contact with men and things.

The action followed depends naturally upon what the investigation reveals. Should the home be at fault, then an effort is made to remove the "trouble maker," and, should this be impossible, then effort is made at least to effect some compromise, the benefit of which the child will reap both in the home and in the school.

Margaret had many times struck a discordant note in the class-room. At home she had always had her own way. Small wonder, then, that she played the prank she did in the assembly. In the midst of the gathering of some five hundred children when the morning exercises were being held, she spoke loud enough to be disturbing, and when reprimanded and told to leave the hall, she walked its full length on her heels, thus creating a greater disturbance and openly defying the principal's authority. She was sent home and the matter was explained to her parents. The child felt that she had been insulted because ordered from the room, and the mother, unfortunately, took her side. At first she could not be made to see that if her child saw fit to leave the hall as she chose, the other 499 might

use their wits to the same end and pandemonium result. Only after repeated interviews with the visiting teacher and after the child had lost fully a month of school did the mother allow her to return.

Sometimes it happens that the child has neither time nor place to study. "The noise, it gets me all mixed up," is her pathetic comment. The neighborhood is scoured till a quiet room is found, either in a settlement, a sisterhood, or a public library, and then the mother's co-operation is enlisted and many times secured when she understands that noise, interruptions and general disorder are not conducive to the formation of good habits of study.

Should it happen that the child's work is seriously impaired because his sleep is interfered with, either because the mother's work is carried late into the night and goes on in the child's so-called bedroom, or because he is allowed to partake too freely of tea and coffee, the injurious effects of this way of living are demonstrated and the family is, in the one case, urged to move to better rooms, and in the other, plead with until milk and cocoa are substituted for tea and coffee. If then, the longed-for change sets in, showing itself in the child's ability to make normal responses at school, word is carried to the home and thereby is strengthened the bond that makes these two centers one in their desire to promote the child's well being.

But there are times when the cause is not so obvious and does not lend itself so easily to a simple solution. It happens often that what to the school appears a lack of co-operation on the part of the home means only that the parents have tried and failed. Again and again the visiting teacher is besought: "Use your influence," "Come and advise us," "Robert" or "Alice," "pays attention to you,"—all of which reduced to its lowest terms means that somewhere there is failure to understand. "It is because we are treated as we are at home that we run the streets," is the way one girl of fourteen sums up the situation.

On the other hand it may happen that the source of the difficulty is to be found in the school itself, in the conditions that surround the child there, which, in the light of the information gathered in the home, expose to view some serious maladjustment. Perhaps it is a case of simple misunderstanding between teacher and pupil, the former holding the latter to a sort of rule-of-thumb scale of measurement when, mentally and physically, the child is incapable of following. Handicapped by nature, perhaps one of a long line similarly affected, is it to be expected that his reactions will be what in age and grade they should be? For such as he the hope lies in a curriculum so elastic that at some point the spark of interest cannot fail to be struck.

In the class room Lillian, a frail girl of thirteen, had apparently made only the impression of being a slow, sleepy, listless child. The first interviews showed her ill at ease. She studied hard every evening, she insisted; but when she was questioned in the class all the carefully memorized facts flew to the winds, she was so afraid. History was her Waterloo. Try as she would, she could not conquer. The outlook was not promising. The visit to the home revealed that she loved to draw. Tony, the black and white spaniel, and Nellie, his fox-terrier companion, had up to that time been her only models. In her leisure moments she sketched them lying before the kitchen stove, or curled up, asleep, under the table.

When her teacher was told how she was found occupying her time at home, her reply was prompt: "Yes, I remember now, she does seem fond of drawing." A conference was aranged with the principal and a way was found of giving Lillian a chance to develop further this gift, her one excellency. Her fifth grade work was so re-arranged as to allow her to take drawing with the seventh grade, where she found greater variety and a teacher eager to let her express herself. At the same time she was introduced to a volunteer worker, a woman to whom history was an unending joy and with her she spent evening after evening making friends with facts, people, and dates that up to that moment had been total strangers to her. Later she was transferred to a trade school in which she was given an opportunity to specialize in designing.

In some pupils what appears as indifference or inattention may in truth be only a temperamental peculiarity which, if individual attention were possible, would in time be modified. The relation of pupil and teacher is at bottom one of sympathetic understanding. This is why sometimes, where one fails, the other succeeds, and herein lies the advantage of having several teachers to a grade. It makes possible a shifting about and increases the child's chances of being understood. The desirability of this cannot be overestimated.

Another way in which the need of unusual children is met is the so-called "rapid progress class," into which are put those children who are capable of making more than two grades in a year. Strange as it may on the surface appear, some of the children entrusted to the charge of the visiting teacher prove in the end to be just this type. For one reason or another, the routine of the regular class does not hold the child's interest, and, as we all know, in such instances energy like that will not remain pent up. It is in its determination to find an outlet that it comes into conflict with established order.

Sometimes it is best to give the child a training wholly different from that offered by the school he is attending. Not all minds respond

alike to the same stimuli. It often seems an utter waste to insist upon children plodding doggedly at subjects which make no appeal to them. Here lies the opportunity for vocational training. More than one case of apathy on the part of a child has been dispelled when a chance was given him to express himself in some sort of manual or industrial activity.

Occasionally it is found that at neither the door of the home nor at that of the school can the whole blame for the child's failure to live up to his best moments be laid. There are times when he is under the kindly influence, if such it be, of neither one nor the other. It is at such times that his energies should be given a chance at wholesome expression, so that they may not be tempted to seek the baser kinds, in which the streets of a large city abound. It is interesting to note how a beneficient "wider view" reacts upon the school and home environment, making of what was once a listless, joyless, or obstinate, untractable, child one that gives out in "measure brimful and overflowing" the happiness that was but his birthright.

The question that naturally suggests itself is What is the result of the action taken? What outcome can be expected from having secured active co-operation in 568 homes; from having changed the class of 92 children, the school of 56, and made other school adjustments for 125; from having called into play 288 outside agencies in the shape of clubs, classes, and excursions and 604 agencies such as hospitals, relief societies, day nurseries, scholarship funds, reformatories, settlements, public libraries, etc., and from having sent 208 children to the country on extended visits?

A statistical reply is not always feasible. Certain stages in the child's school career are marked; certain data about it definite enough; but whether in the final summing up these shall be given precedence over the subtler, more elusive changes that have come about, that is the real question. Just as in the matter of method employed, so in the matter of result achieved, it must be remembered that the numerical reckoning does not tell the whole story.

To the casual observer it might appear that the test to be applied to the visiting teacher's work is embraced in the single word "promotion." The greater the number of promotions, therefore, the greater her measure of success. In a measure this is true and the work stands it. But this is not all. Our object is to find for each child his suitable niche, and if to achieve this means a de-motion instead of a promotion, it must not on that account be reckoned as a failure. To the child it may mean a new birth. In his changed surroundings he may gain self-confidence and no longer be a laggard and a drag upon his class. To his teacher and his classmates little by little he will present a different front. The magic door has been opened. Into what lies beyond he can enter and with the rest can follow, and because of this there springs up between him and them a new relation, one that satisfies his human craving for friendship and sympathy. In which column, the debit or the credit, of our yearly ledger, are such items to be placed?

With final judgments tempered by such considerations, the following possibilities may be offered:

Promoted, including graduates, 568.
Left back, 237.
Graduated, 39.
Transferred to
(a) Trade school, 38.
(b) Other public and parochial schools, 133.
Employment certificate or equivalent, i. e., sixteenth year, 118.
Improvement in
(a) Scholarship, 328[1].
(b) Conduct, 252[1].
(c) Attendance, 310[1].
Left city, 39.
Difficulty adjusted, 531.
Cases in which some change that gives promise of permanency has been effected.
Proved unsuitable or unnecessary, 108.
Cases which, as a result of the initial investigation, are placed in the hands of the school nurse or attendance officer, as well as those which are dropped because the suspicion that inspired the inquiry had proved to be false.

[1]Number based not on total number of cases but on scholarship, conduct and attendance cases, respectively.

WHAT DO YOU CARE?

WILLIAM EDWARD ROSS IN *PEARSON'S*

Out to the mines in the chill of the morn,
Stunted, ill nourished comes the forlorn
Stream of humanity—undersized men,
Slaving and toiling for life blood; but then,
Dressed warm and cosy, with slate, book, and rule,
George and your Nellie have started to school;
They are *your* children, *their* cheeks warm and fair,
While Tony's a hunky, so—What do you care?

Over the bridges, the hills, and the fen,
Streams the procession of undersized men
Climbing the stairs to the waiting machines;
Lowered in cages to death-marked ravines.
Look at their faces; sad, pinched and worn!
Look at their garments; threadbare and torn!
Look at their swagger, their precocious air,
Some mother's babies, but—What do you care?



Courtesy Massachusetts Child Labor Committee.

CHOSE HIS LIFE WORK AT FOURTEEN

Already a child laborer, this chap is typical of the class for whom vocational guidance is being introduced in Boston and elsewhere.

THE VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR IN ACTION

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[The philosophy of vocational guidance has been often written. But it is from the actual cases of boys and girls, influenced to this course of conduct or that, that the general public can best get an intimate notion of how this new function of the schools counts in the life of youth. The stories in the following article represent typical experiences and services of such teacher-counselors as Miss Wentworth, who was formerly vocational counselor in the High School of Practical Arts, and Eleanor M. Colleton, whose work among the Italians and other children of the North End in Boston has had merit of a high order.

The latter part of the article is a digest, telling of past performances and future plans, of a report which the Vocation Bureau will shortly make public, covering its work for the last three years.—Ed.]

IN the morning mail of the Boston Vocation Bureau appeared, not long ago, an interesting letter. It came from a sixteen-year-old boy who had heard of the bureau, but was prevented by his job from coming to it for help. He wrote asking for a special appointment, which was granted.

At the interview following, the boy, Charles Lee, told of his position and of his home conditions. He was an only son, living with a widowed mother in Cambridge, and had been obliged to leave school and go to work, taking whatever place he could find. This was a position as assistant shipper in the sub-basement of a clothing store in Boston. The employer in the beginning had promised him promotion or transfer, but had failed to do anything for so long a time that it became clear nothing would be done as long as the boy was content to remain in the sub-basement at $3.00 a week.

Young Lee was a boy of attractive appearance, earnest manner, and evidently of more than average ability. He seemed well equipped for a business position and desired one with a good line of advancement.

The Vocation Bureau had just completed the investigation of a large and well known dry goods store in the city, and now sent Lee with a letter to its employment manager, who took him into the office at $6.00 a week. The boy has

been followed up by the bureau, and has shown marked business ability in his new position. He is now in line for promotion to an executive position in the firm. The help given him was based upon his home and employment conditions, apparent abilities, and desire to find the right place in a mercantile occupation.

Mary Schenck confided to her teacher that she wanted to take up stenography and typewriting because she "knew a girl who had a good job in that line." A vocational counselor called at her home and talked with her mother. During the visit it developed that Mary's mother and grandmother were both successful dressmakers and that the girl herself had obtained very good marks in her sewing in the grammar school. In fact, she had made the dresses for her two little sisters for the past two years. As a result of this information the counselor talked again with Mary and suggested that she take up sewing in the school. Mary did so, even going out to work in a shop for a while. Then she started in business for herself. Today she is employing two assistants. Thus by a little common sense and thought a girl was prevented from entering the overcrowded field of stenography in which she probably would not have been very successful and started in a line of work for which she possessed natural ability and real love.

What is a vocational counselor? There are over a hundred of them in the public schools of Boston. They are regular teachers, designated by the school principals to advise and co-operate with boys and girls leaving school for work. Two years ago an agreement between the Boston School Committee and the Vocation Bureau called for their appointment and they have been meeting twice a month ever since to discuss the educational opportunities of the city, the vocational problems of the children and to confer with employers and others interested. Let us see just how their influence is made to count in the lives of children.

Vocational guidance in a school involves three definite objects:

> Guiding the child while in the school.
> Guiding the child after leaving school.
> Following up the child, i.e., ascertaining what becomes of him after he goes into work.



Courtesy Massachusetts Child Labor Committee.

THEY NEVER KNEW A VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR

There is a growing belief among those who are exploring the twilight zone between education and industry that what youngsters like these need is not more help in finding jobs but more and better training before they find them.

In the first place the ordinary high or vocational school offers a choice of several lines of work, and it is highly advisable to have the child make a wise choice as to the line he is to pursue. The best way is to have a general course offered at the beginning during the pursuit of which the vocational counselor studies the child and confers with the parents as to the child's natural ability, etc. This combined judgment of counselor and parent is sure to result in a much wiser choice of work in the school than if the matter had been left to the discretion of the child, who is too immature to see the various occupations in their true relationship. Parents and counselor may meet at the school, or the counselor may go to the home. By going into the home discoveries are often made which could not have come from only seeing the child and parent at school.

During the school course it is often advisable to change a pupil from one course to another. For example, Clara Bartlett had been taking the millinery course with the intention of entering the trade on graduation. Owing to her mother's death, she found that she must become her father's housekeeper at the end of the school year. Accordingly, after talking the matter over with the vocational counselor, Clara changed from the millinery to the domestic science course and obtained a very good training in cooking and housewifery. The result was that when her school life was over she was able to enter upon her new work as housekeeper with a marked degree of success.

Sometimes it is necessary for a child to change from one school to another in order that he or she may receive the best training for a particular need. This implies a very close and cordial relationship between the various kinds of vocational schools in the city. Thus a girl who can give only one year to the preparation for a trade should spend that year in a school where she will get intensive work in that trade. If she is not advised, there is danger that she will spend her year in a school which offers a general course in preparation for the trade course, which will then follow in the next two or three years. In other words, it is necessary to take into consideration the girl's outside obligations and adapt her school life to them as closely as possible.

Again, it is the duty of the vocational counselor to see that the graduates of the school are given the most auspicious start on life's journey. This may imply definitely organized placement work or it may mean simply making recommendations. If the work of placement is definitely organized it should be done on a broad social basis, for it may mean finding a position for one girl in a millinery establishment and guiding another into a higher institution of learning.



Courtesy Massachusetts Child Labor Committee.

HE LEAPED BLINDLY

And his only school now is the school of hard knocks, his only teacher a factory boss.

If the work of placement is to be done by the vocational school, great insight into the true ability of the girl under actual business conditions may be obtained by "part time" work. For instance, Susan Williams, who is taking the course in dressmaking, was placed by the school in a near-by establishment where she spent her afternoons and Saturdays. Here she obtained a very definite idea of trade conditions, also earned a little money to help with her expenses and secured for herself by her own desirable personality and excellent workmanship a permanent position on graduation. In the same way Josephine Riley, who was taking a course in designing, was placed by the school in an embroidery shop where she did work in designing on Saturdays during the latter part of her course. She too worked herself into a permanent position for which she had demonstrated her qualifications.

Occasion often arises to provide a girl with an opportunity to earn enough money to keep her in school until graduation. Sometimes the work found is similar to that pursued by the girl in



Courtesy Massachusetts Child Labor Committee

ONE OF THE "BLIND ALLEY" TRADES

This group is declared to be typical of every city and town in Massachusetts.

the school. Often it is not, however, for many times the girl can earn more money in some other kind of work. Frances Newton, who is taking designing, can earn more money by acting as assistant in an office on Saturdays than she possibly could in any designing establishment owing to her present limited knowledge of her trade. Thus she is tided over a financial crisis without being deprived of her school work.

The third line of work for the vocational counselor in a vocational school is that of "following up." This is the only way of ascertaining whether schools are fitting the children for those walks of life for which they are attempting to train them. If the school is doing this satisfactorily *we want* to know it, and if it is not doing it *we ought* to know it. The child may be followed up by a regular system of reporting by mail, by visits to employes and by alumni meetings. Alumni meetings are particularly profitable when turned into experience meetings at which the children tell what they have been doing with especial emphasis on the relation of their training in the school and their work in the world. In this way schools can keep in touch with their graduates and create a spirit of friendly intercourse even after they leave. The best advertisement a school can have is an enthusiastic body of loyal graduates.

The work of the vocational assistant in a vocational or other school is thus one of adjustment; adjusting children to the right course in school; adjusting them to the right course after they leave school; and adjusting the relationship between the school and the home, and that between the school and the business life.

If this work is needed in a vocational school how much more it must be needed in a regular school! For it is an adjustment which tends always toward keeping the children in school, but if they must leave, insists upon seeing that they are at least given a helping hand toward that new life which is so different from school life and so bewildering to the youthful mind.

There is plentiful testimony that fathers and mothers now turn to the Boston schools as never before for advice and help in their perplexities concerning their children's future. It has been most pathetic in the past to see how little parents knew of real industrial conditions, and of

what educational and vocational opportunities existed in Boston, entirely within their reach. Our experience has been that the vast majority of parents have heretofore known nothing about the various high schools and their specialties, except what they have learned through the vocational work of the school itself. The attitude of the parents when visited in the homes, makes it appear only too clear that practically all welcome such guidance and are anxious to avail themselves of it.

These, then, are pictures of the vocational counselor at work. What is the machinery behind her? Every school in the city has at least one teacher who has given her time freely to this service. In some schools committees of teachers have formed voluntarily to take thought over the dropping out of boys and girls, and to organize that assistance which a school can give to parents and children in administering to the life-career motive. The work of the vocational counselors has been a labor of love. Nobody has expected that the occupational talks to which they have listened twice a month would equip them for effective vocational guidance. But no group of persons can listen to intimate discussions of the shoe industry, department stores, machine industries, stenography and typewriting, mechanical and civil engineering, building trades and needle trades—which have been actual subjects in these meetings—without being better fitted than before to advise and guide those who are making hit-or-miss guesses at work in the fond hope that it will pay well and that it is suited to their particular capacities.

The Vocation Bureau, through whose influence the Boston schools were induced to introduce vocational guidance, does not aim at the placing of individual boys and girls in particular jobs. It endeavors to study the causes of the waste which attends the passing of unguided and untrained young people from school to work, and to assist by experiments to prevent this waste. It aims to work out the problem of co-operation between schools and occupations, for the purpose of enabling both to make a more socially profitable use of human talents and opportunities. It publishes studies of vocations from the viewpoint of their educational and other efficiency requirements. It conducts a training course for qualified men and women who desire to prepare themselves for vocational guidance in the public school system, philanthropic institutions, and business establishments. Its interests therefore lie both in the direction of personal service to the individual and of constructive experiment and research in the field of education and employment.

A capable investigator spends his entire time in studying occupations open to boys and young men, what these occupations require, and what they lead to. From three months to a year is devoted to each study. The result of these inquiries is published in tentative pamphlet form. Such pamphlets have already been published on the machinist, banking, the baker, confectionery manufacture, the architect, the landscape architect, the grocer, the department store, and the profession of law.

In each of these studies it is sought to supply parents, teachers and others interested with the material necessary to an intelligent conception of the occupation, its needs, demands, opportunities, relative desirability and its training, requirements and possibilities. It is further sought to analyze the relation of aptitudes, interests and habits to modern industrial demands, and thus to lay an adequate foundation for a system of training that regards social as well as economic needs.

The Vocation Bureau has constantly borne in mind that a sound development of vocational guidance requires that contact with the employments be more than mere onlooking. To leave the employer out of such a plan, to fail to profit by his criticism and point of view, is to omit one of the most important elements in such guidance. The bureau has therefore been in close touch with a large number of industrial and commercial concerns in sympathy with its purposes. Manufacturers have approved its methods, and have even supported its demands for more thorough-going protection and opportunity for the young worker.

To understand better the employer's relation to vocational guidance, the bureau organized last year a conference of employment managers. Men representing a score or more of important manufacturing and business establishments have met regularly for informal discussions. In December an employment managers' association was formed. One of the most important fruits of this close contact is the possibility of formulating plans for organizing the generally chaotic entrance into occupations. It is now planned to undertake some experiments in placement work in co-operation with several social agencies and a group of employers. The bureau believes that the country is ready to undertake through responsible agencies, having in mind primarily the needs of young workers, experiments to point the way to some less wasteful and costly method of bringing together what has been called "the manless job and the jobless man."

Persons of constructive imagination throughout the country, alert to the needs of coming generations of workers, and interested in the reforms which must succeed if our future citizens are to enter into their inheritance, have come to recognize that a new co-ordinating agency is needed—an agency which shall secure team play in home, school and occupation, to

the end that a richer vocational life of all the workers may be realized. It is likely that in the near future there will not only be for the work in the public schools a specially trained vocational counselor, but that there will also be in business and manufacturing establishments a new type of employment manager, especially trained and empowered to develop in the worker not only the efficiency which the employer requires, but also that efficiency which society requires. Through the working together of such employment managers and school counselors, society will gain an important factor in making for its progress.

HOUSEKEEPING CENTERS IN SETTLEMENTS AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MABEL HYDE KITTREDGE

HOME-MAKING has not kept pace with our great industrial advancement. The average home-maker of today is less thoroughly prepared for her business in life than the woman of a generation ago. It would seem that she considers the home-making profession of much less importance than such occupations as curling feathers and making shirtwaists. The latter has a commercial value, the former has not; and we have learned to weigh things by their money value. Then, again, competition has become the one incentive to work. Tie badly the million little knots in the willow plume and the next girl in the line gets the job. Feed the baby with poor milk, let the air in the room become polluted, ignorantly buy and ignorantly cook, and no one takes the work from you. Why worry over the way it is done?



THE HOME OF A GRADUATE

There are many reasons why the woman of a generation or two ago was a better home-maker than the woman of today. The home duties today often are only part of the daily work of a woman's life. The housekeeper today is (in millions of cases) a wage earner as well. She cannot be as single-minded as the old-fashioned mother whose only thought was the home. Schools, newspapers, settlements, the trend of the times, all fill the mind with outside interests. These things are important, but they have a tendency to crowd out domestic responsibilities and make women restless under the homely tasks. Suffrage we will have, and we must interest and educate women until we do have it; but, at the same time, the dishes have to be washed clean, the beds have to be aired and made well, and the babies have to eat nourishing food, or we'll have an anaemic, poor race to govern when we get the suffrage.

Is it the fault of the home-maker of today if weakness instead of strength is the inheritance of her children, and will it be the fault of the home-maker of tomorrow if she bears and rears a weak race? If household administration is to take its place in the front rank with the other professions of the day, educators as well as women must wake up and realize that the whole housekeeping question is dependent upon scientific management, efficiency, skilled labor, and effective tools.

There are those who say that this training should be taught at home, and in many cases our school children, whether foreign or American, do come from homes where the mothers are good housekeepers according to their light; but the last generation cannot teach the coming one everything. As Samuel Merwin says in a recent book, "the accumulated experience of the ages is the grandmothers, and yet she is authority no longer; since her day science has stepped in. To her mind the gulf between herself and her daughter is nothing but the old gulf between age and youth. She is wrong. It is a million miles wide and if the mother keeps to the old way she risks the life of her child."

Again, home-making must be made interesting. The man regards his business as a pleasure. He plays it as he plays a game, and he plays to win. And so housekeeping has become a

"game, not a duty." In a natural, enjoyable way our girls should be taught to play the game of household administration. Home duties are not mere duties any longer; the old way of "doing up the housework" made every act an end in itself. Now every act is simply a means to an end; every move is important,—the way the dishes are washed, the beds made, the cooking done, may win or lose the game. In the child's mind must be a perfect plan; to work out that plan correctly will bring health, order and happiness as the prize.

The world must stop trying to make progress by walking backward. We must make room for a vaster scheme of household economics than the last generation ever dreamed of. The home must be made to catch up with the factory, the store and the office, and we know that in comparison with these industries home-making has lagged behind. Now—suddenly—we realize that feeble-minded children are becoming more numerous, that malnutrition in school children in becoming so great that the highest standard of study is impossible and that street life is taking the place of home life. We wake up and ask what we can do to make the home-maker realize that she is responsible for these things.

But is she?

Educators who admit that life and health are absolutely dependent on the home have failed to find room in the educational scheme to provide this home knowledge. There were in the elementary schools in New York city last year 388,000 girls. Only 43,500 of them were in cooking classes. That means that 344,500 girls in this one year never had a suggestion given them that home-making was a profession worth studying. Only seventh and eighth grade girls are permitted to have cooking lessons, and that means that during the entire grammar school course a few fortunate girls received nine full days of domestic science instruction. I say a few, for out of 560 elementary schools only 170 are equipped for cooking; and for these 170 schools, there are only 135 domestic science teachers—some cooking rooms are closed altogether and others running on half time. A girl is fortunate if she happens not to be in one of the 390 schools where no instruction in domestic science is given, and still more fortunate if she stays in one of the few selected schools until she reaches the seventh grade. There she first learns that home-making is worth studying. But 20,000 left school last year before this grade was reached.

Our public school children may be cash girls, or sales women, or factory hands. These things may or may not be; but one thing is certain, and that is that every girl must live in a home and take her part in home responsibilities.

The New York board of education would be the first to admit that it is the home more than anything else that gives, to children health or feebleness, life or death, happiness or wretchedness and yet they and we calmly let this neglect go on.



A MODEL FLAT

The little children of the neighborhood come in to play before lesson time.

The school lunch committee made an investigation a short time ago to ascertain whether malnutrition was as great an evil as we feared. Two thousand and fifty-one children were thoroughly examined. Half of these from an Irish neighborhood, half from an Italian. They were selected at random from the four lower grades. Two hundred and eighty-three or 13 per cent were found to be suffering from pronounced malnutrition. Their homes were visited. With the exception of eighteen tea and coffee was a part of the daily diet. Sixty families had no prepared luncheon or dinner at home. One hundred and fifty-seven were supplying the wrong or insufficient food and it was found to be more ignorance than poverty that was the cause of this condition.

If we take 13 per cent of 388,000 children we have 29,846 poorly nourished girls who are not even taught that the heavy, dull, sick feeling is due to the wrong kind of food. How can we place other knowledge ahead of this? When we watch this large, half fed army of children marching on to take up a woman's battle with life it does seem as if we had been asleep to our responsibilities.

We must establish an adequate twentieth century theory of household economics and then we must put this within the reach of every girl in our public schools.

My desk is covered always with pamphlets entitled The Profession of Home-making, Food Values, Freehand Cooking on Scientific Principles, and so on, but does this knowledge reach the people? Does it reach the 388,000 school



A COOKING LESSON

girls? Recently I heard an hour's talk by a member of the Board of Health on how we ought to know good milk from bad, how careful we should be about canned vegetables, and the horrors of buying tainted meat; but when I asked how the common people could know these facts I could get no satisfaction other than that the way to know whether the milk was good or not was to examine the barns where the cows were milked or have the milk tested; but the people I know are ignorant as to how to wash milk bottles, or why it is wrong to leave the milk uncovered, or why the nipple from the milk bottle can't be played with, fall on the floor and then be used. This representative from the Board of Health told startling facts about candies and ice cream, sold on push carts, but the audience at this lecture were land owners along the Hudson River, and I doubt if one of them had ever seen an East Side push cart, and I know that not one was ever tempted to buy. Why can't these facts reach the thousands of children who do buy dyed ice cream and varnished candy, and whose fathers sell these very things?

We not only have to establish an up-to-date, scientific way to live, but we cannot do this without the help of the tenement house woman. We contribute the ideals, the theories and the science; she must contribute experience. We are up in the air with our castles, she is down in the thick of the fight where the smallness of the tenement room presses upon her, where every day she faces the high price of food and an insufficient income, where a gentle love for her children is constantly at war with a nervous irritability, the product of disorder, noise and confusion.

Do you think this woman does not want a real home? Look at the energy and thought she puts into furnishing her house, the scrimping that preceded the buying of the ugly red carpet and the plush chairs. There were hours of work given to hemming and hanging the ruffles over every door, around every shelf and even around the bath tub. Look at the tarletan festooned around the chandelier and over the pictures; see the dozens of calendars collected and pinned on the wall. Isn't this a reaching out with all the power that is in a woman to express to her family and her neighbors what, in her ignorance, she believes to be a home? We need the energy and the courage and the experience of these tenement housekeepers, but we must add education; and do we?

Take the daily life of any one of our thousands of little school girls and see how much chance she has to know the science of home-making or even to acquire respect for housework. She is born with the controlling desire to copy. She sees high-heeled shoes on another's foot; she longs for and saves until she gets shoes like them. Her tight skirt, her big hat, her very walk, are seen first and admired somewhere else, and so the home, whether it is perfect or imperfect, and the school, and the teacher, and what the teacher stands for, make the same vivid pictures in her mind; and some day she is going to grow up and copy as nearly as she can.

This little girl wakes in the morning in one of our crowded tenement houses, wakes to the vivid blue walls, to rooms filled with feather beds which have been thrown all over the floor the night before for the family and the possible boarders to occupy. The dusty carpets, stuffed furniture, long lace curtains and draped mantle meet her eye, and in this home of unrest there is always the crying baby, the naturally cross father and the demand (so well known to every little girl) to hurry up and go to the store and buy breakfast. Poor little tenement girl, she does not even know that in well-managed homes breakfast is bought the day before. She may learn to respect the energy in her home, but she will never forget the disorder, the picture of congestion and confusion and of overwrought, tired nerves that has been stamped forever upon her mind. And no right idea of home is given her to correct this wrong impression.

Everyone knows the way work is done in our tenement homes; how the beds are so large that it is impossible to move them out in the small rooms and make them properly, and how the bed clothes are pushed across, often with a broom handle kept for the purpose; how often the small income makes it necessary to rent out the beds in the day time to night workers, so they are always occupied and never aired. And every one knows how all these things make a girl lose respect for her home, then for her family and, finally, for herself; and how the street seems a peaceful place in comparison.

Ideals of right home-making should in the school correct the home mistakes, but as it is now, not until she reaches the seventh grade does this little tenement girl get her first idea that making a home is a part of education. After she leaves home in the morning she gets only a picture of a schoolroom with forty or fifty desks; of a teacher who in no way is associated in her mind with any house, who, as I heard Mrs. Kelley say not long ago, often brings her lunch in a music roll so that no one will suspect that it is food.

The windows in the schoolroom are washed after school hours (and at that only once or twice a year) by the janitor, the floors are swept by men, swept badly, and always after school. And if this pupil happens to be one of the twenty thousand who leave school each year before reaching the seventh grade, she goes into business not knowing that there is such a thing as scientific knowledge regarding food and air and sun and cleanliness.

And yet this girl is going to marry, bear children and rear them, and you and I are going to hold her responsible if those children are not good citizens. Surely this is not a fair placing of responsibility.

Eleven years ago I started the first housekeeping center in New York. These centers are ordinary tenement flats which find their motive power and are successful by means of the universal love in every little girl to play at keeping house, and the universal desire in every one to copy that which is just above her.

A girl wants her kitchen messes, her dishes, her make-believe baby and her tiny bed or broom just as every boy wants his bat and ball. A housekeeping center takes these natural desires and cultivates them. It is furnished as a home should be furnished, and such questions are answered there as: What shall be done with the floors to insure health and save labor; what with the walls? What curtains are the best to admit light, give beauty to the room and wash easily? What proportion of the sum laid aside for furnishing should go into the buying of pots and pans, what part into mattresses, and is there any reason to spend money for ruffles? What are the proper and necessary tools to work with?

In the housekeeping center the neighbors and the scientifically trained teacher work out these problems together. The teacher's training in chemistry has taught her that a certain quality of water and a certain kind of soap are necessary for perfect laundry work. The tenement house woman adds what she has learned from bitter experience; that it is hard to heat enough of any kind of water on the stove with coal at ten cents a pail and the stove crowded with pots and pans.

Regular lessons are given in these housekeeping centers morning, afternoon and evening,



A LESSON IN BED-MAKING

and as the flat is like the home from which the pupils come (only perfected) its lesson is not dissociated with the daily home duties but is performed under home conditions and, therefore, easy of imitation. Do the pupils want this instruction? The answer is that every class is full and there is a waiting list, and every girl pays for the lessons.

I find it often difficult in selling luncheons in the public schools to persuade the children to give up three cents for a full meal, and yet the children under fourteen in the housekeeping centers are ready always to pay three cents a lesson, and the working girls five cents. And what do they pay for? To learn to clean the sink so that the pipes will not get clogged, to learn to cook substitutes for meat (for meat is too high for many of them), to scrub closets and floors, to make and clean beds. Only last week a class of working girls came to one of the centers and asked for a bedbug lesson. "The people above us are moving out," they said, "and we want to prevent the bugs getting into our house." A bedbug lesson is not a lecture, it means to roll up one's sleeves, put on a big apron, get on your knees and scrub, this after working hard all day in a factory or shop. The desire for this knowledge must be very real to make a girl willing to do this extra labor, and to pay for the privilege of doing it out of her scanty wages.

In a housekeeping center it is easy and natural to borrow a baby from the neighbor across the hall when the lesson is "how to bathe and dress a baby." There is nothing embarrassing about being the patient when the lesson is "how to give a bath in bed and how to change the sheets without disturbing the patient." Then there are the dinner classes where the pupils make out the menu, do the marketing and cook the meal, and there are lessons in food values.

What I feel that we need today is a house-



A KITCHEN-CLEANING LESSON

keeping center in every settlement, so that every girl who is a part of the settlement will feel it almost compulsory upon her to take the course before she marries, and if she is enjoying the intellectual life of the settlement, or the play side, or the social side, she must be learning the home-making side too. We must make our settlement girl feel that the home-making training is more important than mere recreation. The public school will follow the settlement and then, not for one-ninth of our girls will home-making instruction be given, but for every one.

Then there will be in every school the cooking-room, with its individual equipment (necessary, but nothing in it to suggest the kitchen at home). Next to this will be the model flat or center, this to resemble the homes from which the children come, but furnished on scientific lines. For eight years every school girl will see this home, this home made right, and she will work in it. It will be no smattering of cooking at the end of the school course,—but in the beginning, when the love of playing house is strong, then the training will begin. Even in the lowest school grade a child could dust her desk with a damp duster and be told why it should be damp; she could wash her own cup, if milk is served; learn to handle dishes carefully; and train the eye to see things straight and the hand to steadiness.

From these small tasks, the children would graduate to larger duties in the housekeeping center; making beds and washing many dishes. From dusting one desk, the pupil would soon be able to give the flat a thorough cleaning. We find in our center that the love of playing house disappears if it is not cultivated, and the girl of fourteen never drops entirely the wrong way of doing housework, which she need never have acquired if the domestic science teacher could begin her training early enough.

Scientific management means more than "having system." You may be ever so systematic in the way you do things, but if you happen to be doing them the wrong way, you are doing the way that is unnecessarily expensive in time, energy, money, comfort and beauty.

I believe that the labor in the kitchen will become more and more professionalized. It is too serious a work to be handled by unskilled hands, and we must lose the nervous, irritable, overtired slave of housework and make woman more of a child-trainer and cheerful home-maker. She must guide her home with the quiet and skill and delight with which the engineer drives his engine or the chauffeur his car. This, some day, will be brought about by centralizing the work and by an army of trained workers who will expeditiously and noiselessly do a large part of what each woman is now trying to do herself. But that day can come only when women through universal home-making education push forward and demand this better management of the home.

We must have restlessness and dissatisfaction first. This comes from a realization of the right way and a disgust with the wrong way, and then will come the push from the home-maker herself, not from a few outside reformers. The tenement house occupant now is too ready to accept the fallen plaster, the dish-water that leaks through from the flat above and the dirty and dark halls. Her own senses are dull and she does not see or think about these things, and the tenement house reformer sometimes feels his work has been accomplished by a few bath tubs and a little more light, and then wonders at the indifference with which these gifts are received and blames the abuse of them. Train a girl to know a home of order from one of unrest. Teach a woman to be miserable at the thought of a close room or an unaired bed for her baby, and the social worker can go off and do something else. The power of action is where it ought to be, in the awakened tenement house mother. She will not be content to crowd her family into dark rooms; she will work until she gets space enough and light enough for her children. She will be driven to action because she knows the value of what she has to fight for. When the suffrage comes to women, how naturally then these intelligent, orderly home-makers will take their part in municipal housecleaning!

Let us not be satisfied to force through bills at Albany that improve our tenements; at the same time the tenement girl must be receiving her scientific home training, so that she too, can take her part in this great home-making profession.

May 3, 1913.

A YIDDISH POET

MARY BROWN SUMNER

Whither, whither, pretty child? The world is not yet open. Oh, see how quiet is all around! 'Tis before daybreak, the streets are mute, whither, whither, do you hurry? 'Tis now good to sleep, and do you see, the flowers are still dreaming; every bird's nest is still silent? Whither pray are you driven now? Whither do you hurry, tell me, and what to do?

To earn a living.

Whither, whither, pretty child walking so late at night? Alone through the darkness and cold? And everything is at rest, the world is silent. Whither does the wind carry you? You will yet lose your way. Scarcely has day smiled on you, how can the night help you? For it is mute and deaf and blind. Whither, whither, with easy mind?

To earn a living.[1]

THUS, ten years before vice commissions began to probe into the connection between white slavery and low pay, wrote Morris Rosenfeld, the Yiddish poet. In March the fiftieth anniversary of his birth was celebrated in Carnegie Hall by a great gathering of the Jewish East Side, under the auspices of the Jewish *Daily Forwards,* to which he is a contributor.

Morris Rosenfeld, as a boy a fisherman on the shores of a Polish lake, early an emigrant from home, and until his health broke down a few years ago a worker in the sweatshops of London and New York, expresses in verse the cry of suffering from persecuted and broken Jew and from exploited and broken worker.

He is no pitiful East Sider struggling for expression, "found" by a Harvard scholar. He is a poet offering no halting rhymes for which apologies are necessary. Yiddish literature has many poets of real genius, but the major part of Rosenfeld's verse alone, in his Songs from the Ghetto, has been presented to us in English prose, in the translation of Leo Wiener, instructor in Slavonic literature in Harvard.

Through the medium of a language in which, in the expression of Mr. Wiener, German, Polish, Russian and English—the tongues of all countries through which the Jew has passed—contend with Hebrew for the possession of each word, Rosenfeld expresses his meaning with the note of inevitableness and the adaptation of form to thought that is seen only in the work of a great poet.

His poems are cries of pain out of his own life interpreted in terms of the life of his class. He is always lyric, he is always personal, but



MORRIS ROSENFELD

From an etching by Herman Struck

he is never egotistical. The story runs that at his machine in the midday hour he would write a lyric of the workshop instead of eating his meager lunch. The song to the working-girl prostitute is one of these workshop poems which like a flash reveal working and living conditions such as in less revealing form have been put before us by investigators.

The twelve-hour day may be said to be the subject of My Boy. The tailor's baby was always asleep when his father got home from work:

MY BOY

I have a little boy, a fine little fellow is he! When I see him it appears to me the whole world is mine.

Only rarely, rarely I see him, my pretty little son, when he is awake; I find him always asleep, I see him only at night.

My work drives me out early and brings me home late; oh, my own flesh is a stranger to me; oh, strange to me the glances of my child!

I come home in anguish and shrouded in darkness—my pale wife tells how nicely the child plays.

* * *

I stand by the cradle.

I stand in pain and anguish and bitterness, and I think: "When you awake some day, my child, you will find me no more."

Seven-day labor is the burden of the song Despair:

[1]Most of the quotations here given are taken from Songs from the Ghetto. By Morris Rosenfeld. Translated into prose by Leo Wiener. Copeland & Day, Boston. 1898. Price $1.00.

DESPAIR

Is it not allowed to rest even one day in the week and to be at least one day free from the angry growl of the boss, his gloomy mien, his terrible looks; to forget the shop and the cries of the foreman; to forget slavery, to forget woe? You wish to forget yourself and be rested? Never mind, you will soon go to your rest!

Soon the trees and flowers will have withered; the last bird is already ending his song; soon there will be cemeteries all around! Oh, how I should like to smell a flower and feel, before the grass is dead, the breath of zephyr in the green fields! You wish to be in the fields where it is airy and green? Never mind you will be carried there soon enough!

The brook is silvery and glistens beautifully; the waves are covered with a heavenly grace. Oh, how good it is to bathe there! How I should enjoy leaping into it! My body is weakened from the dreadful work,—how they both would refresh me! Oh, you wish to make your ablution in the brooks? Be not frightened, you will soon receive your ablution!

The sweatshop is dark and smoky and small. How can my white blouse be clean there? In the dirty shop cleanliness is unknown to me. How a pure white shirt adorns a man! How proper for a noble body it is, in order to be free to work humanely and be clean withal! You wish now to dress yourself in white? They will dress you, and dress you quickly enough!

The woods are breezy, in the woods it is cool. How good to dream there quietly! The little birds sing pleasantly; but in the shop there is noise, and the air is suffocating! Oh, you wish to be cool?

Of what avail is a forest to you? It will not be long before you will be cold.

'Tis good to have a dear companion. In adversity he gives hope, in misery—courage. A dear companion sweetens your being, and he gives you a zest for life. And I am orphaned alone like a stone, there are no companions, I am all by myself—you will soon have companions without end: they swarm already and are waiting for you!

The Pale Operator gives a hint of the ravages of tuberculosis in the garment trade:

THE PALE OPERATOR

I see there a pale operator all absorbed in his work. Ever since I remember him, he has been sewing and using up his strength.

Months fly, and years pass away, and the pale faced one still bends over his work and struggles with the unfeeling machine.

I stand and look at his face; his face is besmutted and covered with sweat. I feel that it is not bodily strength that works in him but the incitement of the spirit.

And the tears fall in succession from day break until fall of night and water the clothes and enter into the seams.

Pray how long will the weak one drive the bloody wheel? Who can tell his end? Who knows the terrible secret?

Hard, very hard to answer that! But one thing is certain: when the work will have killed him another will be sitting in his place and sewing.

A desire for life—if it is a feast, he would sit at it; if it is a dream he would have it a beautiful one—a love of the outdoor country life which he knew as a boy and which he believed all should enjoy, mingled with a sense of impotence and despair, varying with outbursts of wailing and outbursts of hate, these things characterize the poetry of Morris Rosenfeld. For all his power to vizualize and voice the world about him, he is never constructive, never militant, and seldom even virile.[1] In few poems does he express any hope for the future. In a mood of despair he writes the beautiful workshop poem:

[1] Rosenfeld's poetry in this respect is the antithesis of that of Arturo Giovannitti. See THE SURVEY of November 2, 1912.

A TEAR ON THE IRON

I groan and cough and press, and think
My eye grows damp, a tear falls; the iron is hot,
My little tear it seethes and seethes and will not dry up.

I feel no strength, it is all used up; the iron falls from my hand, and yet the tear, the silent tear, the tear boils more and more.

My head whirls, my heart breaks. I ask in woe: "Oh, tell me, my friend in adversity and pain, O tear, why not dry up in seething."

"Are you perhaps a messenger and announce that other tears are coming? I should like to know it; say, when will the great woe be ended?"

I should have asked more of the turbulent tear; but suddenly there began to flow more tears, tears without measure, and I at once understood that the river of tears is very deep.

In a mood of mingled longing and hate, he writes the Flowers of Autumn, whose splendor is only for the well-to-do—

Therefore I do not care if I see you dying now.

There is more virility, though nothing really purposeful in the Garden of the Dead, where the dead worker rises up to claim the flowers on the rich man's grave:

Not only the flowers are mine, nay, even the boards of the coffin are mine!

And not only the boards of the coffin—you shrouds, you, too, are mine! He has it all through my work, my poor work—oh, all and all is mine!

Then the dead one passed away in the air with cries: "You will pay for it yet! And he clenched his fist and threatened the world."

The poet's love for nature, the human longing of the worker imprisoned in the city for the country, which he has known but which is now beyond his reach, is expressed in the nightingale's challenge to the laborer:

"Summer is here, summer is here! I shall not sing to you eternally, for finally my hour too will strike—a dark crow wil occupy my branch, the holy song will cease. How long must I sing to you from the tree of the golden dream of freedom and love? Rise and let me not urge you any longer! The heaven will not remain eternally blue! Summer is here, summer is here! Now one can pass a merry time, for just like you who are fading at your machine, everything will in the end wither and be carried away."

The Nightingale illustrates, as Professor Wiener points out, the poet's command over poetic form as well as poetic thought. Even in the English prose translation we can feel the repetition of notes, the intricate weaving of melody in the bird's song.

Another poem which is an example of the same power of combining matter and manner is that drama of the garment worker's life, The Sweatshop, which deserves to be quoted in full:

THE SWEAT SHOP

The machines in the shop roar so wildly that often I forget in the roar that I am; I am lost in the terrible tumult, my ego disappears, I am a machine. I work and work and work without end. I am busy and busy and busy at all time. For what and for when? I know not, I ask not! How should a machine ever come to think?

There are no feelings, no thoughts, no reason; the bitter bloody work kills the noblest, the most beautiful and best, the richest, the deepest, the highest, which life possesses. The seconds, minutes and hours fly; the nights like the days pass as swiftly as sails; I drive the machine just as if I wished to catch them; I chase without avail, I chase without end.

The clock in the workshop does not rest; it keeps on pointing and ticking and waking in succession. A man once told me the meaning of its pointing and waking—that there was a reason in it; as if through a dream I remember it all; the clock awakens life and sense in me, and something else—I forget what; ask me not. I know not, I know not, I am a machine!

And at times, when I hear the clock, I understand quite differently its pointing, its language; it seems to me as if the unrest[1] egged me on that I should work more, more, much more. In its sound I hear only the angry words of the boss; in the two hands I see his gloomy look. The clock, I shudder—it seems to me it drives me and calls me machine, and cries out to me "sew"!

Only when the wild tumult subsides, and the master is away for the midday hour, day begins to dawn in my head, and a pain passes through my heart; I feel my wound, and bitter tears and boiling tears wet my meager meal, my bread: it chokes me, I can eat no more, I cannot! O, horrible toil! O, bitter necessity.

The shop at the midday hour appears to me like a bloody battlefield where all are at rest; about me I see lying the dead, and the blood that has been spilled cries from the earth. A minute later—the tocsin is sounded, the dead arise, the battle is renewed. The corpses fight for strangers, for strangers, and they battle and fall and disappear into night.

I look at the battlefield in bitter anger, in terror, with a feeling of revenge, with a hellish pain. The clock now I hear it aright, it is calling: "An end to slavery, an end shall it be"! It vivifies my reason, my feelings and shows how the hours fly; miserable I shall be as long as I am silent, lost, as long as I remain what I am.

The man that sleeps in me begins to waken—the slave that wakens in me is put to sleep. Now the right hour has come, an end to misery, an end let it be! But suddenly—the whistle, the boss, an alarm! I lose my reason, forget where I am; there is a tumult, the battle. Oh, my ego is lost! I know not, I care not, I am a machine!

The prose translation reproduces the thought alone; the Yiddish original reproduces also the loud insistent stitching of the machines, and the persistent nagging of the hateful clock. The machine beats out these lines:

Ich arbeit, un' arbeit, un' arbeit ohn' Cheschben.
Es schafft sich, un schafft sich, un schafft sich ohn' Zahl.[2]

To what he feels to be the hopeless tragedy of the worker is added in Rosenfeld's verse the hopeless tragedy of the Jew—the wanderer who has lost the power to laugh. In Sephira[3] as well as in other poems, he brings out the fact that the Jew has set his Passover and the period of mourning following it, in the happiest time of the year. This poem, which has been really adequately translated into verse by Alice Stone Blackwell, is one of his saddest and most beautiful:

SEPHIRA

Methinks I fain would call upon my lyre
To laugh a little, but in vain the call!
For to begin with, 'tis Sephira now.
Tell me, besides, can a Jew laugh at all.

Oh, God, you laugh? A wail is in the laugh!
Brothers, what is there of reality
In a Jew's pleasures? Is his laughter real?
'Tis but the mingling of a sob and sigh.

No savor now has Jewish life, no grace
Has Jewish joy! Above, in heaven's deep
The silvery clouds are floating; and the woods
Are full of life, but we sit down and weep.

Spicy the forest is, the garden green;
How fresh and cool spring's breezes blowing by!

But what concern is that of yours, O Jew?
'Tis now Sephira; you are mute and sigh.

The lovely summer, comfort of men's lives,
Passes in sobbing and in sighs away.
What hopes unto the Hebrew can it give?
To him what comfort summer or the May?

A mendicant who has no place to rest
With whom all men make sport—each day, each week, each hour,
Oh, is it meet for him to think of joys,
Of gardens with their balm, of tree or flower?

And if the Jew at times break forth in song,
Does his song seem to breathe of mirth to you?
I, in his music hear but "Roam and Roam!"
In every note I recognize the Jew.

If one who is well versed in music's art
Should chance to listen to a Jewish song,
His eyes against his will would gush with tears,
Each note would shake him with emotion strong.

The ram's-horn call to penitence and grief,
Oh, that is now the Hebrew's favorite strain—
A strain that makes but feelings for the tomb,
A strain to break a heart of steel with pain.

The song of the Atonement, and the Dirge
For the great temple and the Suppliant's Psalm;
These are his sweetest music, since his joy
Was shattered in his holy land of balm.

Since his foe broke the sweetest instruments
Of music in his Temple, ever dear,
Only the plaintive ram's-horn to the Jew
Is left, on which he sobs but once a year.

Of drums and cymbals, organs, harps and lyres,
Flutes and guitars, with all their dulcet strains,
The gloomy ram's-horn, withered, sad and dry,
Is all that now to the poor Jew remains.

Whate'er he sing, however he may laugh
However gay he seeks to make the strain,
There suddenly awakens in his song
The suppliant's psalm that rends the heart with pain.

Me thinks I fain would call upon my lyre
To laugh a little, but in vain the call!
For to begin with, 'tis Sephira now,
Tell me, besides, can a Jew laugh at all?

For the Rosenfeld of the Songs from the Ghetto, the present is terrible and the future hopeless; there is always an aching desire for beauty and happiness, but to him beauty and happiness themselves wait upon toil and suffering and death—the nightingale groans "upon the great cemetery of the world."

But Songs from the Ghetto was written some fifteen years ago. Some of his later poetry is lighter—some hope and the joy of living appear to have crept into it. Of these, a hitherto unpublished poem in English called "If," has but a gentle melancholy:

IF

If hope would fly and sorrow stay,
If stars were dark and days were gray,
If love would vanish like a breath,
What would be life? What would be death?

If songs would die out in the nests,
And pleasure in the human breasts,
If flowers were to lose their hue,—
Oh! What would be I, What would be you?

Stealings is full of personal joy:

STEALINGS

I steal a smile from thy fair face
And hide it deep within my heart;

I steal a shadow of thy grace
And hide it deep within my soul;

I steal a ray from thy bright eyes
And hide it deep within my mind;

I steal the echo of thy sighs
And weave them softly in my dreams;

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[1] Pendulum.

[2] I work and work and work—without end; I am busy and busy and busy at all times.

[3] The Counting—the forty-nine days of the Feast of the Seven Weeks.

A word from thy sweet lips I steal
And hide it deep within my thoughts;

I steal the rapture of thy thrill
And drown it deep within my blood;

And from these thefts, these sacred stealings
Are born the bright flames of my love,

And the fountain of all sweet feelings,
And the stream of my life's joy.

But even if he can for a time forget the toil and trouble of the world in a personal joy, his first love is with the workers and with them he asks to have his Resting Place—

Seek me not 'mid blooming meadows,
Not there my spirit you can trace,
Where workers toil like spectral shadows,
'Tis there you'll find my resting place.

Seek me not where birds are singing,
Not there my spirit you can trace;
A slave am I—where chains are ringing,
'Tis there you'll find my resting place.

Seek me not 'mid fountains dashing,
Not there my spirit you can trace,
Where tears are falling, teeth are gnashing,
'Tis there you'll find my resting place.

And lov'st thou me with love's true passion,
Thy steps unto my spirit trace,
Bring joy with thee; in love's true fashion,
Make sweet to me my resting place.





NEW BOTTLES FOR NEW WINE

THE WORK OF ABASTENIA ST. LEGER EBERLE

CHRISTINA MERRIMAN

THE recent International Exhibition of Art in New York was, from one angle, at least, a protest against certain set standards of art generally accepted today as inevitably right because they have "always been." Some of the by-products of that stimulating movement toward freedom have been variously characterized as "courageous" "self-expressive" and "insolent." Certainly much of it was a serious effort toward individual expression—a revolt against academic rules—partaking in some instances of a defiance which was a law unto itself, a frank disregard of what impression the mystified public carried away.

Such, however, was not the attitude or feeling of at least one exhibitor whose work aroused much interest and comment, and who was one of the first artists of standing to reflect in her work the spirit of awakened social consciousness so apparent today. Abastenia St. Leger Eberle showed two groups, the more striking of which was The White Slave, reproduced on the cover of this issue of THE SURVEY. They are the work of a sculptor who has strongly defined views as to the part the artist should play in the common life.

"The artist should be *the* 'socialist,'" says Miss Eberle. "He has no right to work as an individualist without responsibility to others. He is the specialized eye of society, just as the artisan is the hand, and the thinker the brain. More than almost any other one sort of work is art dependent on society for inspiration, material, life itself; and in that same measure does it owe society a debt. The artist must see for the people—reveal them to themselves and to each other."

This is a far cry from "art for art's sake."

That it is the viewpoint of an artist of high standing is attested by the early and generous recognition accorded Miss Eberle's work from conservative and radical alike.

Most of her training was received from George Gray Barnard, with whom she studied for three years. In 1904, she was awarded a bronze medal at the St. Louis Exposition; the Girl on Roller Skate was purchased by the Metropolitan Museum in 1907; the Windy Doorstep was awarded the Helen Foster Barnett prize at the exhibit of the New York Academy in 1910; her figure of the veiled Salome was bought by an Italian Art Society in Venice; and she is one of the ten women who belong to the National Sculpture Society.

Miss Eberle is best known, perhaps, for her dancing figures, and her depiction of the every-day picturesque life on the lower East Side in New York, where she lived for years. Her people live for us, and speak for themselves,—from the placid, necessitous hunt of the Rag Picker to the tremulous wistfulness of the loving Little Mother; from the tender feeling of The Bath Hour to the intense, joyous absorption of the Rag-time dancer and the exultant balance of that flying little figure on the Roller Skate—and please notice that, characteristically, there



THE WINDY DOORSTEP

is only one—borrowed, no doubt for a precious three-minute "coast."

The qualities which art critics first look for—the sure touch and line of her modelling, the fine composition and massing—are especially apparent in The Windy Doorstep, in which Miss Eberle touches the high-water mark of her more objective figures.

Here it will be more interesting to note the steps by which social values have crept into her work.

First of all, her deep and instinctive love for children, and her appreciation of human values, led her to select types that until recently have been almost entirely disregarded.

To this keen observer and lover of human nature, the many years of contact with this vivid, arduous East Side life—reinforced and interpreted by constant reading and thinking—brought an ever-increasing sense of social interrelation and interdependence. Jane Addams' books have, more than anything else, she says, helped to clarify and mould her vision of the constructive part the sculptor may play in social readjustment.

This growth of social consciousness has been reflected in her work.

Just as The Windy Doorstep, with its fine feel-



THE LITTLE MOTHER



THE RAG PICKER

ing for the dignity of every-day homely tasks, outranks the Roller Skater which, she says, was done in a purely objective spirit, so the White Slave records a forward step which is a difference of kind even more than degree.

Here she has turned from her more objective work to the graphic interpretation of a social menace; and it is here, perhaps, that she finds herself with surest touch. Her conception of white slavery is as searching in its indictment, as ruthless, cruel and scourging as the fact itself. One visitor who saw those haunting figures at the International Exhibition said afterward:

"I was passing through that room of the exhibit when suddenly I faced it—I could not go on. I had vaguely realized that this horrible thing was in the world, but it had never touched *me*. I sat there for perhaps an hour, thinking—and thinking—"

This woman was one who has led what is called a "sheltered" existence, whose instinct would be to turn from any discussion or writing on this subject. It is this thought-compelling quality in such work which links it as a social force with, say, the dispassionate but terrible report of the Chicago Vice Commission, or with Elizabeth Robins' My Little Sister.

It is interesting to know that Miss Eberle worked out the composition for the White Slave four years ago; but the actual work of modelling was done in the four weeks' interval between the time she was invited to send some of her work to last winter's International Art Exhibition and its opening. Until then, she had felt that the time had perhaps not come when such a group would be received except as an unwelcome effort toward sensationalism. It is the first of several such interpretative subjects which she has in mind, and which, if worked out in an equally sincere spirit, should be big in social significance.

But after all is said, Miss Eberle consistently holds with the many who believe that the first function of art is not didactic. Much of her work besides that shown here is conceived in a spirit of sheer joy in beauty of form and line, and one may go far to find a more exquisitely modelled figure than that of the utterly submissive, despairful child-victim of the white slaver. To use her own words:

"It is the beauty that is in the world *today* that appeals to me—not what may have existed centuries ago in Greece. Though I love that, too, I will not shut my eyes to the present and continue to echo the past. No matter how ugly the present might be, I would rather live in it.



THE BATH HOUR

After all, ugliness, as well as beauty is in the eyes of the beholder,—and the present *isn't* ugly at all, but full of a wonderful interest, as a few of us are beginning to find out. We are trying to find new bottles for new wine—Greek vases are about worn out."

And so we may, as she asks, leave her work to make its own eloquent plea for what Emerson calls "the eternal picture that nature paints in the street, with moving men and children, beggars and fine ladies, . . . capped and based by heaven, earth and sea."

"MY LITTLE SISTER"

HARRIET BURTON LAIDLAW

[*Mrs. Laidlaw is chairman of Manhattan Borough of the Woman Suffrage Party. Her special interest in the subject of this review is due, among other things, to her friendship with Rose Livingston, the rescue worker in Chinatown whose unique experience gives her understanding sympathy with unfortunate girls, and who has suffered persecution, unchecked by the police, on account of her revelations in regard to the white slave trade.*—Ed.]

IN My Little Sister[1] Elizabeth Robins has let us hear a great cry out of the depths—an actual human cry.

True, many snug, comfortable people, shaken for a moment out of their apathy, dismiss it all carelessly, even contemptuously. Many who are gripped to the heart as they read brush away the tears with a sign of relief and say, "Well, it's only a story." But what a "story!"

It is told in a tense, staccato style which hurries the reader on—on even through the idealistic descriptions of the English country and the stretching moor, across which, in its little garden planted by loving hands, stands the "dear

[1]My Little Sister. By Elizabeth Robins. Dodd, Mead and Co. 344 pp. Price $1.25. By mail of THE SURVEY $1.37.

home" of the officer's gentle widow and her two daughters, the Elder Sister in whose words the story is told and whose name is never mentioned, and the Little Sister, Bettina, all golden and bright, a creature so touchingly exquisite, so like a flower.

Through the sweet, lightly sketched scenes of the childhood, girlhood and dawning womanhood of these two fair young creatures there is woven a dark thread of fear, dread, tragedy. Some experience of brutality this dainty, tenderly devoted mother has had, an experience which is never more than darkly hinted at. She forgets the terror of it only in those happy memories that cluster about her lover-husband. His body was brought home to her from a fatal tiger hunt. Her only consolation in his loss, she tells the Elder Sister, was that she knew that there are worse dangers than those of the jungle! She had the joy of knowing that he died while all was "bright and untarnished."

The narrative hastens on, always with a hovering sense of doom. The innocent, tender love stories of the sisters develop. They are but seventeen and nineteen, but they are women. It is impossible to do justice to the telling of this story, so we will pass to the main event, the invitation of the London aunt, the failing health and fortune of the mother, which nerves her to accept an offer that will separate her from her children, and the almost happy bustle of preparation for the first visit from home, and for that wonder of wonders—a London season! The sinister part played by Madame Aurore, the little London dressmaker who, while working for them in their country home lays the plans that are to decoy them to their ruin in London, is worked out with sure, rapid touch. Then comes the arrival in London, the meeting of the girls by the pseudo "aunt," who has been dressed for the part by the aid of a photograph sent on to the procurers by Madame Aurore. Then follows the terrible scene in the house with the barred windows and the strange overwhelming scent, the escape of the Elder Sister, the heart-breaking search for the younger—the madness, the despair! One of the most pathetic things in the book is the heart-broken young lover who traces Bettina from London to "their house in Paris"—thence from one place to another "always too late." The merciful death of the mother, and the fixed conviction, the subliminal inspiration, that comes toward the end to the tortured brain of the elder sister that Bettina has found her release in death, alleviate and spiritualize the misery of it all.

Now as to the truth of this tremendous story. I suppose that having put the very soul of truth and reality into the narrative itself, having written it from the very depths of her own pitying heart, the author has not reckoned with the callous incredulity which the book often meets, or she might well have added an introductory note in regard to the actual facts in this case from real life. The story, she told me subsequent to its publication, was absolutely true, but much softened at many points. In the true story, for instance, the mother is not dead, but is in a state of dementia on the continent, whither the family have moved, being unable to endure England and its memories.

Moreover, although Miss Robins' experience in working for women and the woman's cause in England had brought to her knowledge many life histories more unspeakable than this, after she had finished this book she said to herself, "Now here is a story that I know to be absolutely true, but how valuable is it to give to the world an individual instance of this kind; how far can it be generalized?" To test this she went, with that sincerity of spirit that characterizes all she does, to a noted police justice in London and laid the story before him, asking him what he would do if a person came to him with such a story. He answered sadly, with no show of being at all roused by anything unusual, that he would begin to take evidence immediately and see what he could do about it. He added that the story was really a commonplace.

Such is the reticence of the English press, and such is the stern family pride concerning the "blot on the scutcheon," and all those traditions which grow out of the double moral standard whereby the escapade of the son of the house can even be repeated lightly while the slightest shadow on the name of the daughter is an unspeakable disgrace, that no one knows how many tragedies of this kind are hidden from sight in the records of numerous respectable families.

To satisfy herself more completely that the story was susceptible of extensive application, Miss Robins took it to several London police inspectors. No one for a moment stopped to doubt or question the facts. The most horrible stories that the human mind can conceive are old stories to them. When the Home Secretary was asked a question on this subject in the House of Commons only a few weeks ago, he answered that in London city alone, to his knowledge, there had been reported fifty-three girls lost and never heard of within a few months. Such facts as this explain the tragic intensity with which the book is written.

Danger! Danger! Danger! That is the dominant note that sounds throughout the narrative. How pathetically the mother's poignant fears contrast with her ineffectiveness. Ever this haunting danger, whether mother and daughters are walking in the sunset, or planting in the garden, or sitting by the hearth. What a wonderful picture Miss Robins gives of the mother's desperate dependence on the four walls

of her home—"Soon home, now, little girl, soon safe in our dear home." The danger signal of the night-bird's note is introduced with inimitable art—a subtle suggestion, even in those early days, of the gray hawk whose shadow hovers over bright young lives.

The unutterable sadness of it all and the stern warning to mothers that children's homes are not just in four walls, but are in towns and cities and nations! How utterly ineffectual seem an individual mother's effort for the safety of her child. How evident is it that a mother's care must have back of it power—power in council and legislative hall. How strongly the lack of social sympathy is brought out; the mother's indifference to the great crying needs of the world. This mother's "place was the home," and to what did all her negative efforts avail in shutting the danger away from her cherished daughters, in a nation, in a world, which holds a traffic system of such Machiavellian adroitness, a system which can afford, so great are its profits, to reach into the inner recesses of a home, to work with endless patience and resourcefulness and which can enlist on its side such power that even the London police, perhaps the least corrupt in the world, can answer evasively to the frantic cry, "Do you know such a house?"—"We have a great many on the list, but not many such as you describe;" and follow this statement with the maddening inactivity which Miss Robins describes with vivid accuracy.

Her book is a terrific arraignment of the conditions which make such a tragedy possible. Respectability and indifference are personified scathingly in the monumental aunt, deaf to the world voices of agony. All society is arraigned as the Elder Sister storms at her aunt, "sitting massive, calm, with a power of inert resistance." Her bewildered answer to the mad cry for help, —"It isn't possible, this is England,"—sounds strangely natural to us. It is the burden of so many recent New York editorials, "such things don't happen"!—and that in our land where the record of the Chicago Immigration League tells of 1,700 girls between the railroad terminals of New York and Chicago alone, reported lost in one year. Thus wails the Elder Sister,—"So old and unbelieving, I felt she had looked on unmoved at evil since the world began. . . . She rose, O! but slowly;—slow, stiff and ponderous. I felt in her all the heaviness of acquiesence since time began."

Thus is the unbelievable apathy of society pictured! Thus Miss Robins touches lightly, pitifully on the problem of a girl's handicap in the lack of preparation for life. What a picture she gives of the sheltered girl—"Such a little thing, my not knowing how to telephone, yet it might cost my mother her life." Again this motive is sounded when the daughter is begging her mother for knowledge about her experiences, and the great gray danger—"It is not the kind of thing you need ever know," answers the mother with fatuous finality.

Nor does she make our heart bleed for girlhood alone, but for manhood, as that blood-curdling conversation, unparalleled in literature, is gasped out between the Man and the Elder Sister as they crouch in the shadow in that ghastly room in what he himself tells her is "one of the most terrible houses in Europe." Here we see manhood disfigured, draggled beyond recognition, sitting in the dust and ashes of a charnel house. How sodden the words fall from his lips as depraved and perverted manhood defends itself. "This is a commonplace in the world, in every capital of every nation on earth. Bishops, old ladies, imagine you could alter these things." "Human nature—human nature," muses the Elder Sister, "like the tolling of a muffled bell." Thus are the wickedest, most deadly of the world's platitudes on this subject uttered in this glaring scene of abnormality, so that automatically they are given the lie.

The unbelieving will say, "But how is it possible that we do not hear oftener of such cases?" Two elements especially conspire to suppress such knowledge, both based on a false attitude towards women. First the double standard of morals which holds men's purity so much lower than woman's; second, the unjust attitude towards women reflected in the press which is more likely to seize upon a disappearance story in such a way as to make it reflect upon the girls' character rather than to acknowledge it a possible case of abduction or white slavery.

As I write, Miss Robins sends me letters which she has recently received from people interested in her book. One speaking of the "awful traffic that is going on" tells how two girls, daughters of a clergyman, have disappeared on their journey home from school and have never been heard of since.

A letter from Miss Robins herself adds the following to her remarks on her book. "Of all the official people I consulted, not one of these experts doubted my story, *and all had known similar cases.* We do not need to be told that the people to whom these things happen, if they are refined and sensitive, are not eager to make known their ruin. The natural impulse is to cover the horror from every eye, even to deny it."

"If you will consult the findings of your own commissions you will see that in America 'no girl of any class is safe.'"

I myself know at first hand an appalling number of cases—wives, women of standing, college girls on journeys, young girls on their way to boarding school, and working girls trapped and sold. In Rose Livingston's mail in the last few weeks have come heartrending letters from parents for help in finding their lost daughters. A

letter I read yesterday from a doctor's wife in Indiana was so terrible in the lingering pathos with which the mother dwelt on the beauty and sweetness of this lost daughter that I handed it back without reading to the end.

In connection with Miss Robins' letter, I offer the following quotation from a paper by Stanley Finch of the Federal Department of Justice where he speaks of the operation of the Federal White Slave Traffic Act. "The number of complaints and prosecutions is rapidly increasing. . . . Such crimes are more numerous than was first believed possible. . . . It has become evident that thousands of people[1] in practically all parts of the country were violating the law. . . . [We found] girls were being transported in such interstate and foreign commerce solely for the purpose of prostitution and were being treated as mere articles of merchandise for the profit of those who handled them and who were willing for the profit involved to sacrifice both the bodies and the souls of their victims. . . . As we extend this work [of federal prosecution] throughout the country the awful interstate trade in women and girls for immoral purposes which for years has been going on almost without let or hindrance, has now become a very dangerous occupation. . . . The practices of people engaged in the white slave traffic involves in a considerable number of cases the actual physical detention of women and girls against their will in this vilest form of involuntary servitude."

Would that there were space to reinforce these remarks by New York newspaper headlines dealing with such cases for the month of March 15 to April 15.

How many fathers and mothers, brothers and sisters, friends and lovers throughout this country, have lived through the agony endured by the Elder Sister and the lover in Miss Robins' book? That which had been their greatest care and burden, the frail health of Bettina, becomes the Elder Sister's one comfort and hope. How many a bereft father and mother today not only cling in anguish to that hope, but desperately refuse to believe but that their girl is dead! And with reliable students estimating the life of the white slave in this country at five years, we know that many a flower-like highly organized Little Sister has met mercifully her release in a few weeks—a few months.

To those who know how considerable a factor in the whole problem of the white slave traffic is the girl who is taken, not the girl who goes, the girl who is under compulsion, not the girl who stays, this book is a great contribution. The Survey printed some time since a poster that has been used in this country from ocean to ocean: "Danger! Mothers, beware! 60,000 innocent girls wanted to take the place of 60,000 white slaves who will die this year in the United States." If My Little Sister will only make the truth of this warning more real, more individual more poignant, then, in the pain-soothing words that close this book, "She will not have suffered in vain, and others will thank her too."

Such a book is not merely a literary production, an exquisite work of art; it is a high, sincere human service. From a literary point of view it is a great book. One is reminded of the Aeschylean definition of tragedy: "That which purifies the heart through pity and terror." But this book not only reaches great tragic and dramatic heights, but its subtle art is such that it blends with the tragedy in an almost eerie way a lyric chord which echoes throughout, an unbroken strain of hope and pity, of the essential dignity and sanity and rightness of life.

[1] Of 478 defendants, fifty-three women are involved or implicated. Of those, eighteen are not found guilty, are dismissed, or cases are pending.

MOTHERHOOD

Isabel Kimball Whiting

I see them come crowding, crowding,
Children of want and pain,
Dark sorrow their eyes enshrouding
Where joy's touch should have lain.

They stand in silence beseeching,
Gaunt faces lifted up
And wan little hands outreaching
For Love's forbidden cup.

Their hearts are restless with yearning,
The hearts of my own are stilled,
Their lips are parched and burning
The cups of my own are filled!

I cry in love unsatisfied
For these without the fold,
My mother's arms are open wide
These weary ones to hold.

What though my arms are open wide,
Only mine own lie near.
Without still stand those long denied,
Compassed in want and fear.

Bowed with the crown of Motherhood,
I seek that Shepherd of old;
"How can mine own receive the good
With some left out of the fold?"

IN THE HANDS OF THE POLICE

A PLEA FOR A NEW LEGISLATURE TO MAKE AND ENFORCE LAWS AGAINST VICE

A. LEO WEIL

[Mr. Weil, one of the best known attorneys of western Pennsylvania, is known outside of his profession as the militant president of the Pittsburgh Voters' League, the organization which exposed the graft scandals of three years ago, sent councilmen and bankers to jail and brought new and invigorating spirit into Pittsburgh municipal life. Last Year the Voters' League successfully brought charges against the head of the Department of Public Safety, and provoked a situation which led to the creation of the Pittsburgh Morals Commission, a semi-official body without governmental authority, and the cleaning-up of the big numbered district.

It is on the basis of this experience that Mr. Weil reaches the conclusions here set forth. He was a witness before the Wagner commission which has recommended legislation now pending in New York (with every prospect of passage) that will create a separate public welfare department, largely divorce it from the city administration and entrust its commissioners, appointed by the mayor, with powers with respect to vice somewhat similar to those held by the Board of Health with respect to sanitary conditions.—Ed.]

THE police, a body of men selected primarily to preserve order, protect life, prevent crime, apprehend the criminal, and perform other administrative duties—men perhaps wholly unfitted as a body for anything else—have been expected to solve, by legislation, problems which have confounded the wisest from the time whereof the memory of man runneth not to the contrary.

That the police have failed could not be otherwise.

That they have aggravated the evil was to be expected.

That ultimately legislation must be placed in competent, qualified hands, must be apparent.

That it will require the greatest minds, the best thought, the highest statesmanship, and almost a divine perception, to apprehend and deal with those complex, involved, intricate questions having to do with the passions of men and the strongest laws of nature, urging defiance of human laws, seems to be axiomatic.

Nevertheless, on the subject of vice as generally understood in our cities, the police are expected not only to administer the laws, but to make them; not only to enforce enactments, but to frame them. And herein lies, in my judgment, the root of the evil in present-day conditions which has brought our police into disrepute.

All countries, from the most despotic to the most liberal, from the most conservative to the most radical, have left this question of the social evil to the police, and have not dared, through their legislative bodies, to thoroughly consider and pass laws to eradicate it. Such meager legislation as has been passed has been ignored in the congested centers of population, and generally such legislation has not been supported by the public sentiment of those communities. Legislation has been generally of a merely prohibitive character, ignoring existing conditions, together with the army of human beings living upon vice, for whom some provision must be made.

Even if the legislatures could be induced to take up this question and pass general laws, it would necessarily follow that such laws in their generality must look to the future, rather than to the present, and existing conditions would have to be left to some other authority.

In every large city there are thousands engaged in prostitution. They can neither be exterminated by the fiat of law nor reformed by the passage of proclamations. Public morals, like private morals, can be improved only gradually. It is not so much the theoretical question of to be or not to be, but the practical situation summed up in such phrases as: It is—it will for a time remain. The future—what is it to be?

Would it not be wise to ask the legislature to pass a law requiring every city to appoint a body of men to draft, and from time to time revise, a code of laws to regulate, suppress, exterminate, and generally to deal with, this problem of prostitution? To it must be given authority. It must be vested with legislative power. It should have its own employes—call it a morals police force, if you will—to carry into effect the rules, regulations and laws passed by this commission. That men could be obtained to act upon such a commission, public-spirited, representative students of social questions, I fully believe. No one would accept a place on such a board who was not interested in the welfare of his community. The responsibilities would be fearful; the criticism would be severe. No one without a blameless life would dare to act. Whether or not ultimately the regular police force could be used by such a commission would be a question of policy. At any rate, for the present, I believe it would be unwise.

Such a commission would collect data of in-

estimable value, data that was reliable, and of which there is now none worth while. Such a commission would doubtless make mistake after mistake, perhaps would depart from all its preconceived notions at the start. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that step by step it would gradually and slowly work out a solution. Looking the country over, we see that voluntary organizations have accomplished temporary good, but their effort has never been persistent, continuous, permanent, authoritative, legal.

The adoption of the plan suggested would take out of the hands of those wholly unfitted for so great an undertaking this momentous question, and place it in the hands of others who we would have the right to assume would ultimately be found to deal with it, so far as human intelligence, study, observation and experiment can enable and qualify men to deal with it.

Another and a greatly to be desired result would also be accomplished. It would remove from the police that which today contaminates the organization, so that in every city they have been brought under a suspicion unfortunately too frequently deserved, an opprobrium too justly applied.

The casting of this burden upon the police, more than any other cause, sows the seed of corruption, furnishes the opportunity for profit, brings into alliance the law officers and the lawbreakers, disgraces the police force, and keeps off of it many men who would otherwise be glad to serve their communities in a position that should command the respect and consideration of the people.

This police burden has in turn been the biggest rock upon which self-government has capsized in our American cities.

THE BELGIAN STRIKE

[*The mass strike of the Belgian workers was carried to an issue last week. The motion of the Liberal member which brought the strike to a close, while it does not specifically grant the reform asked for by the Socialists, is considered such a lien on government action as to amount to a victory for them. These interpretations of the larger significance of the strike from different angles were, of course, written while the struggle was going on.*

Mr. Walling, who is a member of the radical wing of the Socialist party, is a student of international Socialism, his most recent book being The Larger Aspects of Socialism. He was in Russia during the Revolution, and knew intimately the details of the great Russian general strike of 1905.—Ed.]

I.

GRAHAM TAYLOR

THE nation-wide strike for manhood suffrage in Belgium which paralyzed the industries and almost suspended the normal life of the people was foreshadowed in a spectacular demonstration in Brussels two years ago.

On August 15, 1911, the streets of that gay, medieval capital witnessed scenes which every American who looked on knew were making history. Over 60,000 men, from larger and smaller places throughout Belgium, took a day off without wages and paid their way to the capital of their country, in order to voice their protest against the unjust inequalities of the suffrage. The show of force by the extraordinary police and military precautions betrayed the furtive apprehension of both the municipal and national governments as to what might happen. With no sign of timidity or intimation of being overawed, this vast industrial army marched ten abreast for hours—silent, grim, determined, united, unarmed—between long files of armed soldiery which lined the curbs, and past stronger detachments of all arms of the service massed at strategic centers.

The great procession assembled at the Socialist headquarters, a large and impressive building bearing the significant name *Maison de Peuple*, the House of the People. The permanent background of the stage in the assembly hall of that building is a colossal head of Jesus of Nazareth, the reverent work of a Belgian Socialist. This House of the People is the most practical expression, or perhaps demonstration, of the co-operative commonwealth in miniature, which is to be found anywhere in the world. Starting with a sack of potatoes and a bag of flour, these wage-workers in ten years erected a building costing $250,000. Of this sum, which was loaned by the national bank, they had then paid $100,000 and had assets worth three times as much as the balance due on the mortgage, which they continue to reduce by annual payments.

In this four-story semi-circular building, at one of the principal business centers, ample accomodations are provided for a great variety of practical agencies. A café, which paid a profit of $2,400 in three months, shares the front of the ground floor with a large co-operative department store, where dry goods, house furnishings, clothing, meats, groceries, butter and milk, hats, hosiery and shoes are sold. A bakery, with a capacity of 125,000 loaves of bread a week;

a coal depot, with twenty-nine delivery carts; a laundry, and a clothing manufactory are among the business enterprises conducted here.

The 19,000 co-operating families receive as their share of the profits 12 per cent of the money they pay for bread, 6 per cent of what their groceries cost them and 5 per cent of the purchase price of their clothing. Among the protective features are an employment bureau for men and women, a pharmacy and a corps of thirteen physicians rendering free service to all members of one year's standing, and a sick benefit society with 8,000 members. Singing and ethical classes are maintained for children and a well-trained orchestra and choral club for adults. Small halls adequately provide for the meetings of the trade sections, and a great auditorium, seating 2,436 persons, rallies the festival gatherings and supplies room for political mass meetings.

From this national center the procession of mid August took up its line of march, carrying banners which took the keynote of their inscriptions from the following figures emblazoned everywhere:

> 993,070 have 1 vote;
> 395,866 have 2 votes;
> 704,549 voters, having two, three or four votes, cast 1,717,871 votes, a majority of 88,523 over those having one vote;
> One man one vote!

In Belgium a man over twenty-five years of age gets an extra vote if he owns property. He is granted another vote if he has a university diploma. He casts a fourth vote if he is over thirty-five years of age, is the father of a family and pays taxes on more than a certain amount of property. The majority of the industrial population thus have only one vote, while the rural, well-to-do and richer people outvote each wage-earner by two, three or even four votes. The rural population thus controls the city industrial population and the church is charged by the Socialists with controlling the rural vote.

Against this rule of the minority, this great demonstration of 1911 was a protest. But to the onlooker from abroad it then seemed to be a patriotic proclamation of Belgium's one great hope of national evolution without revolution. The primary cause of the movement which has culminated in the present national strike was the defeat of the liberal and Socialist coalition in parliament by a combination of the government and clerical forces in the elections of 1912. The Socialist congress summoned to meet the issue brought to a crisis by that event decided upon a general strike as a last resort if all other means of obtaining manhood suffrage failed. But before resorting to that measure a general suffrage bill was introduced into parliament by the Socialists and supported by the liberals. As serious consideration of it was refused by the clerical and government authorities, a general strike was voted on April 14.

Whatever the full effect of this national political strike may be, those who are the keenest observers concede that the making of history is in the movement of Belgian labor for one-man one-vote suffrage.

Certain it is that a movement of the people capable of maintaining and increasing for so many years a labor vote in parliament until it numbers more than one-third of the total must be reckoned with. If now the tolerance of this Belgian Socialist Party toward those who honestly oppose its principles and methods, at this supreme crisis in its history and the national development, grows with its strength and equals its determination, it will improve the greatest opportunity the Socialist cause has ever had in the sphere of practical politics to demonstrate and promote its co-operative commonwealth.

II.
WILLIAM ENGLISH WALLING

IF THE Belgian strike is a world-event of the first magnitude for the general public, it has a still greater significance for the world's ten or twenty million Socialists. The two wings of the Socialist movement are equally interested; the reformers and conciliators, because the strike aims at a purely political reform, and involves co-operation with a part of the capitalists, both in order to win success now and in order to get immediate use out of the suffrage after it is won; the revolutionists and advocates of class struggle because the strike forces a large loss on many unwilling employers and gives training for later and more aggressive strikes for the purpose of raising wages, cutting down profits, and paving the way to social revolution.

These essential facts are being widely understood. Take, for example, the following editorial paragraphs from the influential and progressive, but by no means radical, *Chicago Tribune*:

> "For years the thinkers of the movement in Europe were building up theories about the 'political mass strike.' These theories have now been put into practice in Belgium with remarkable precision.
>
> "The strike in Belgium is not a precipitated strike. For months the Socialists of that country have been making prepara-

tions for it. They have been collecting money, storing provisions, and, what is even more important, educating the workingmen to their theories, training them to respond to the strike call like drilled soldiers. It is not an emotional, not an impulsive strike, therefore, but a coolly thought out, shrewdly calculated battle. . . .

"As a result of this careful planning and training by the leaders 400,000 workingmen responded to Socialist colors with the precision of a trained army. The strike is both a battle and military review. The Socialists now have a clear and adequate view of their strength and numbers. The issue involved in this strike, which is uniform as opposed to plural voting, may be lost. The strike may even be called off by the Socialists themselves after a week or so if the government does not yield by that time. But the advantages which Socialism has gained by this census of its army is incalculable. It knows how much of the Belgian public is behind it and to what extent. This time the general strike is used to combat a single abuse of the government. In the future the same working masses may be directed against the present régime as a whole. It is a strike now. It may be a civil war or revolution the next time."

But while the capitalistic *Tribune* is so sympathetic and optimistic, the leading labor union paper of this country, the *United Mine Workers' Journal* has been highly sceptical and pessimistic:

"The strikers say they are ready and have the means to hold out six weeks.

"What if the other class should elect to hold out for twelve weeks; that is, if the strike should become a 'lock-out?'

"There is no doubt but that the class against whom they are striking, the propertied class, who hold the unfair political advantage over them, could store more per member than the workers.

"We wish our brothers every success. Hope they will obtain what is undoubtedly theirs by right. But, in our opinion, unless the strike results in a test of force instead of passive endurance (and this same is more than probable) the workers' needs will drive them back to their tasks before those who have been enriched by their labor will consent to give up the political advantages on which their economic advantages are based."

Why this remarkable reversal of the opinions that might have been expected? Why have some of the richest Liberals in Belgium supported the strike?

The Belgians are striking for a right the French obtained in 1876—equal suffrage. Yet who are the chief beneficiaries of the political democracy of France? The condition of the laborers is about the same as in Belgium. The only difference is that in France the industrial and urban capitalists now hold the balance of power between the laborers on the one hand and the reactionary agrarians, landlords and employing peasants on the other; while in Belgium the latter classes, which control the Catholic Party, have a Parliamentary majority over the laborers and urban middle classes combined. The Belgium Liberals then have had everything to win by a strike, which aims at establishing the French situation in that country. As for the Socialists, equal suffrage would undoubtedly have the effect of driving the Liberals and Catholics together into the same government, as in Germany, thus making the Socialists *the* opposition party. It would also result ultimately in whatever social and labor reforms the Liberals might feel it to their interest to grant. But this is all.

This is why thoughtful Socialists the world over, including several of the Belgian leaders (Vandervelde, Huysmans, De Brouckère and Bertrand) have been so dubious about the strike. They have seen that the burden of the contest will fall about equally on employers and employes. But the Liberal employers are playing for a splendid stake—Belgium; while the Socialists are playing only for such incidental and secondary benefits as will accrue to them from Liberal control of the country. Naturally they have had far more dread of the costs and risks which the strike involves.

But whether the strike was to be lost or won it has been clear that it would interest the world's millions of Socialists more deeply than ever in the possibilities and the limitations of the general strike.

All Socialists favor the political general strike, most Socialists favor the general strike against war—including the conservatives like Keir Hardie and Jean Jaurès. The moderate Swedes had an economic general strike a few years ago and this form is favored also by the majority of French and Italian labor unionists. And now the British unionists are voting on the question whether they will all quit work each day after eight hours—which would mean a general lockout, or practically a general strike.

Whether the Belgians win or lose will not affect the momentum of the movement. If they win, general strikes for a few years will take a predominantly political character, and we shall see the general political strike resumed in Hungary within a few months and doubtless declared in Prussia before many years. If they lose these British, French and Italian movements toward economic general strikes will have the field.

The historian of the future when writing of our generation will have to give a central position—perhaps *the* central position—to the general strike.

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THE SURVEY

Volume XXX, No. 6 May 10, 1913

JOHNSTOWN LESSON FORGOTTEN

After 24 years, Ohio River towns narrowly escape the fate of Johnstown.

Southern Schoolmen and the Circle of Life

Farmers, business men, teachers, doctors and plain citizens—in all 2,300 people—met to discuss problems common to them all.

Sociology's Welcome in the New South

Signs that a spirit of "constructive criticism" is awake in the South were present on every side at the meeting of the Southern Sociological Congress.

Compensation Laws in Twenty States

The 1913 legislative session has so far raised the number of state compensation acts to almost a score.

"Boxing" the Cost of Living

A dozen aspects of this problem were considered at the Philadelphia meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

This Issue Ten Cents Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

THE PITH OF IT

OHIO had a narrow escape from reservoir dam failures during the recent floods. Morris Knowles of the Pittsburgh Flood Commission points out that with only two or three exceptions, despite the lessons of Johnstown and Austin, we have failed to apply the knowledge we have of the way to prevent similar disasters. P. 218.

ACCORDING to latest reports compensation laws have now been passed in almost twenty states and are on the eve of passing in five more. P. 212.

SOCIOLOGY received so hearty a welcome in Atlanta at the Second Southern Sociological Congress that attendants from the North who had heard that "when sociology came south it met a cold reception" were surprised. They saw signs of a spirit of "constructive criticism" in the South on every side. P. 212.

OVER 2,000 men and women at Richmond met together recently to tell what they themselves out of their experience had gathered of the ways to make life in rural districts better. Pp. 213, 215.

AT the First National Conference on Marketing and Farm Credits, co-operation was the key-word emphasized by the speakers for all efforts to improve agricultural conditions. P. 214.

THROUGH the efforts of Governor Hatfield, the West Virginia coal strike has come to an end. The Kanawha Valley men secure the right to organize a nine-hour day, semi-monthly pay days, a check-weighman and payment by the short ton.

THE Shoppers' Puzzle in St. Louis has been partially solved. P. 226.

DESPITE the centering of attention at Washington on the tariff those familiar with the legislative processes of Congress believe that social legislation will not be as completely overlooked at this session as some fear. P. 207.

NEW York and Boston settlement workers exchange experiences. P. 208.

"BOXING" the cost of living is what was attempted in the discussion at the seventeenth annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. P. 209.

MOTHERS' pensions are now in operation in Pennsylvania. Governor Tener has signed an act under which an appointive commission of five to seven women in each county availing itself of the provisions of the law may investigate and recommend payments to any deserted mother or widow who is unable to maintain her children at home.

THE SURVEY

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THE COMMON WELFARE

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RELIEF is in sight from the overcrowding at the Bedford Reformatory for Girls in New York where the lavatories have been pressed into service as sleeping rooms. In the closing days of the session the legislature voted to give Bedford approximately $500,000, the sum asked, for new cottages and other buildings.

THE District of Columbia Court of Appeals has sustained the judgment of the District Supreme Court in the American Federation of Labor contempt case, but it reduced the sentences to fines of $500 each against Frank Morrison and John Mitchell and a jail sentence of thirty days against Samuel Gompers.

AFTER being held up for several weeks by southern Senators who thought that the Bureau of Labor had been unfair to the South, the United States Senate has confirmed the appointment of Charles P. Neill as commissioner of labor.

THE COMMON WELFARE

SOCIAL LEGISLATION AT THE PRESENT SESSION OF CONGRESS

In spite of the fact that the opening week of Congress saw the introduction of the Kern compensation bill for employes of the federal government suffering injuries or occupational diseases, the La Follette-Peters eight-hour bill for women in the District of Columbia, a bill prohibiting the shipment of goods manufactured in plants where women are employed more than eight hours a day, a minimum wage bill presented by Senator Chilton of West Virginia, and several other measures which fall under the head of social legislation, the impression seems to prevail that Congress will devote its chief energies to the consideration of the banking and revenue statutes. In his personally delivered message to Congress President Wilson said:

"It is best, indeed, it is necessary, to begin with the tariff. I will urge nothing upon you now at the opening of your session which can obscure that first object or divert our energies from that clearly defined duty. At a later time I may take the liberty of calling your attention to reforms which should press close upon the heels of the tariff changes, if not accompany them, of which the chief is the reform of our banking and currency laws; but just now I refrain."

From these sentences, as well as from remarks made by the President to callers, it is inferred that the possibility of taking up anything like the program submitted to Mr. Wilson by the forty-five men and women interested in social legislation is remote indeed. Those familiar with the legislative processes of Congress point out, however, that after the tariff bill or bills leave the House and while they are being debated in the Senate, there may be an opportunity for the discussion of other matters.

It is of interest to note that the House leaders decided to defer the appointment of the majority of the standing committees till the tariff bills shall be out of the way. Only the Committee on Ways and Means, the Committee on Rules, the Committee on Accounts and the Committee on Mileage were selected early in the session.

The Senate, however, fixed the membership of its standing committees some time before the extra session began. With the change in political control, there has been, of course, a thorough overhauling not only in chairmanship but also in memberships. Today the two committees in the upper chamber which will have much to do with social legislation, that on the District of Columbia and that on Education and Labor, are as follows:

> Committee on District of Columbia: Messrs. Smith of Maryland (chairman), Pomerene of Ohio, Smith of Arizona, Kern of Indiana, Hollis of New Hampshire, James of Kentucky, Saulsbury of Delaware, Martin of Virginia, Dillingham of Vermont, Jones of Washington, Works of California, Kenyon of Iowa, Fall of New Mexico and Lippitt of Rhode Island.
>
> Committee on Education and Labor: Messrs. Smith of Georgia (chairman), Shively of Indiana, Swanson of Virginia, Martine of New Jersey, Johnson of Maine, Shields of Tennessee, Borah of Idaho, Penrose of Pennsylvania, Page of Vermont, McLean of Connecticut and Kenyon of Iowa.

Among the bills relating to the regulation of labor that have been introduced into Congress at the present session is that by Senator John Sharp Williams of Mississippi, aiming to safeguard the children of the District of Columbia from employments that are dangerous or that are conducted under unsanitary conditions. The measure provides that children under sixteen years of age shall not work in factories, on railroads or on boats. The bill divides occupations into classes, and puts children into groups from the age of twelve to twenty-one, enumerating the prohibited occupations, but permitting exceptions under certain conditions. Discretion is vested in the District health officer to pass upon other employment for children not already forbidden by the proposed law.

The convict-made goods bill, substantially in its original form, has been introduced into the Senate by Senator Thomas of Colorado. This measure, it will be remembered, passed the House at the last session, but was not reported out of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary. As Senator Thomas pointed out in a statement, "I propose that prison products shall be divested of their interstate character, leaving them subject everywhere to the laws of the states. Many states have prohibited the sale of such goods. The principle of my measure is the same as that employed in the Webb-Kenyon liquor law."

While the principle involved in the Thomas

bill is now on the federal statute books, thus affording a valuable precedent for additional legislation, it is not generally believed that the Senate will take up this measure at least till later on in the session. The new Senate Committee on the Judiciary is as follows:

Culberson of Illinois (chairman); Overman of North Carolina, Chilton of West Virginia, O'Gorman of New York, Fletcher of Florida, Reed of Missouri, Ashurst of Arizona, Shields of Tennessee, Walsh of Montana, Bacon of Virginia, Clark of Wyoming, Nelson of Minnesota, Dillingham of Vermont, Sutherland of Utah, Brandegee of Connecticut, Borah of Idaho, Cummins of Iowa and Root of New York.

Senator Kenyon of Iowa has introduced a bill making it obligatory that all railway employes shall have twenty-four hours consecutively off duty in every period of 168 hours. It is stated that the belief that the existing law, intended to protect railway employes and limit their hours of labor, is being violated because of the impracticability of its strict enforcement prompted Senator Kenyon to draw up this bill.

NEW YORK-BOSTON EXCHANGE OF SETTLEMENT EXPERIENCES

The inter-city settlement conference held the past month in Boston, though not the first of such conferences, was unique in that it brought together settlement residents so widely separated as the New York Association of Neighborhood Workers and the Boston Social Union.

The first meeting dealt with the problem of securing and training workers. Eva W. White, headworker of the Elizabeth Peabody House and lecturer in the Boston School for Social Workers, spoke of the need of such training as schools of philanthropy and settlements themselves can give. Richard H. Edwards of the Inter-Collegiate Young Men's Christian Association explained the movement for community service by college men. Settlement Scholarships and School and College Chapters for Settlement Work was the subject of a paper by Geraldine Gordon of Denison House.

John L. Elliott of New York contributed the suggestion that young college men and women contemplating social work as a profession might do a half year's field work in the settlement at the end of the sophomore and senior years in lieu of academic courses.

Mrs. Max Morgenthau of the Henry Street Settlement told how that settlement trained its volunteer workers in clerical work, in regularity in attendance and in actual personal acquaintance with their tenement community. This training has created in that settlement a group of volunteers, who are becoming experts in their work and one of whom has developed a series of pageant plays. The mistress of the wardrobe in these pageants is an authority on costume, and has studied the technical processes of dyeing fabrics in order to obtain the best possible results.

The subject of an evening meeting was Standards and Stipends for Work and Workers, and was under the leadership of Lilian D. Wald, president of the National Federation of Settlements. Miss Wald held that there should be flexibility in methods of work and a true equality between the administrative officers of the settlement and the specialists who give so much distinction to its work. She spoke of a university teacher who came back to the settlement to "recapture the freedom of her method." M. deG. Trenholm, to whom very much of the success of the conference was due, urged strongly the necessity of proper compensation for settlement service, if standards are to be maintained.

The Sunday afternoon meeting was devoted to the subject of federation in relation to standards of work. Henry Moskowitz of Madison House asked that the settlements keep in mind their primary duty of furnishing opportunity for the manifestation of local social spirit. He showed that in an increasing number of neighborhoods the neighbors are forming federations of their own, made up of representatives of the various local societies. While this sort of community organization is sometimes sporadic or indefinite the settlements should be willing to support it both with money and workers. He warned the neighborhood worker never to forget that the primary duty of the settlement is to build up neighborhood life. He must, therefore, not permit what sometimes seems the larger aspects or implications of neighborhood life to sap his work at the roots.

Philip Davis of the Civic Service House suggested directions in which federated action among settlements might be directed. He showed that, outside of such oversight as the licensing of minors engaged in the street trades involved, the great mass of the minors of the community and the street merchants themselves are free to run into danger without possibility of interference or guarding from the outside. Immigrants are another class who will in the future be more and more in need of constructive human service, especially at the point of entrance on citizenship. The city, either through its officers or by delegating the work to others, should surround the gift of citizenship with appropriate safeguards and should make the process itself educational. The minimum wage is now becoming a significant problem all over the country and Mr. Davis believed that settlement workers should take their place among the pioneers in endeavoring to push its benefits.

Elizabeth Williams, of the College Settlement, New York, spoke of the enthusiasm of the pio-

neers and outlined some of the means of making the settlement ideal today as great a challenge to young men and women of capacity as it was to these early leaders.

Albert J. Kennedy of South End House discussed the question of federations of settlements in relation to the problem of club and class work. The chief task of the settlement is in his opinion to bring about the democratic organization of local communities in order that the people themselves may in time assume the task of local organization. The chief function of club work as such must be that of building up standards toward this end. The fear of rigidity which has oppressed certain critics of federation is, he believed, unfounded and there are, he held, great possibilities for settlement federations in enlarging and bringing to a high standard certain forms of craft work, dramatics, pageants and large recreational events.

At the evening meeting Jane E. Robbins spoke in behalf of definite work in training young Italian Americans as social workers who would contribute their enthusiasm for and knowledge of their own people definitely to the task of social re-construction and Americanization.

Vida D. Scudder believed settlement work should be made more fundamentally democratic and should give itself more definitely to the task of fostering and championing working class movements as such. The great danger of the settlement, she held, is that it will become one of the regular philanthropies rather than an advance station, as it were, in the progressive democratization of the national life. Settlement residents should be free at times of crisis to drop detail work for the larger task of assisting in the great forward movement of the people themselves.

George Hodges, dean of the Episcopal Theological School, believed that the church also should work along the lines suggested by Miss Scudder. He believed, however, the best achievement could be secured only on the high levels of personality.

John L. Elliott of the Hudson Guild held that it should more and more be the final effort of the settlement to bring the mothers and fathers into the streets, into the schools and into the dance halls that they may come to understand the conditions under which their children live, and contribute of their own experience and power in reorganizing communal life.

The meeting on Monday morning was opened by Abraham Rosenberg, the president of the Cloak and Suit Makers' Union, who spoke of the work of the various settlement leaders in securing the New York protocol. He admitted a growing recognition on the part of labor leaders of the factor of public good will and service.

Mary P. Follett of the Roxbury League urged the continued necessity for social workers in the civic centre, and Gaylord S. White suggested the need of such influence in enlarging the scope and horizon of church work. Robert A. Woods summed up the more telling lines of interest opened up in the meeting. He urged that the significance of the settlement for the future, as for the past, lay not in any specific type of service or reform—valuable as nearly all such effort is—but in the development of social self sufficiency among the people from neighborhood to neighborhood throughout the country.

The use which the younger element made of a question box as the meeting ended led to the motion that at future conferences the junior speakers should have the floor for at least one session.

"BOXING" THE COST OF LIVING

The cost of living was the very live subject taken up by the seventeenth annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science held in Philadelphia in April. With the exception of the tariff, which was omitted for lack of time, the session may be said to have covered the whole field.

The first paper in the session on Family Standards was by Prof. Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania. His analysis of changes in woman's dress is worth quoting:

> "In the early history of America, the dress, the habits, the morality, the relations between men and women could be predicted with certainty. This uniformity has been broken up by recent industrial changes through which the working population has been transferred from the farm to shops and factories. City life makes new demands and excites new wants.
>
> "A new woman is appearing who differs in many ways from her predecessor. She is stronger, more healthy, more ambitious and with moral qualities that match the new vigor. With greater physical vigor and more ambition, women love activity and cut out the contrasts in color and design in which the primitive woman indulged. The man-made woman dresses to emphasize her sex; the self-conscious woman subordinates her clothing to the needs of her own personality and her activity.
>
> "The active, healthy woman creates a spiritual impress by simplifying her dress and thus enhancing her facial beauty. Her less advanced sister clings to the older dress forms, through which a lower appeal is made. Out of the struggle is coming a new womanhood with higher morality and more beauty. Dressing is thus more than an economy; it is the essence of moral progress."

Martha Bensley Bruère of New York city, author of Increasing Home Efficiency, main-

tained that twelve hundred dollars a year was the lowest standard for decent family living. This twelve hundred dollars she found from her study of family budgets to be distributed as follows:

> "Food, $447.15, on the basis of 35 cents per day for an adult male and a sliding scale for others in the family; shelter, $144; clothes, $100, based on New York prices "where clothing is cheaper than any other place in the country," she said; operation of household, including light, heat, etc., $150; advancement, meaning education, recreation, charities, church, savings, etc., $312; incidentals, $46, a total of $1,199.15."

ELEMENTS ENTERING INTO COST OF FOOD

Edith E. Smith, president of the Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association, asserted that the fallacy that lessened production is the chief cause of high prices has been exploded and there is ample food produced if waste were eliminated. Said she:

> "While city people are complaining of the prices paid the farmer, it is an absolute fact that the farmer has a hard time to make a living profit on his business. The farmer has to face the combined problems of production and distribution and he runs the gamut of both. If any manufacturer were compelled to face the difficulties of the farmer . . . attempted it on so small a margin of profit, he would quickly go to the wall."

Mrs. Smith showed that it costs a Pennsylvania or New York farmer about 50 per cent more to raise a hog or a steer than it costs the Iowa farmer and that the latter can ship his cattle to the New York market and sell them cheaper than the Pennsylvania farmer.

Mrs. Frank A. Pattison of Colonia, N. J., who was for some time in charge of the experiment station maintained by the New Jersey women's clubs, spoke on Scientific Management in Home-Making. She showed how, by the introduction of mechanical devices, such as patent dish-washing machines or vacuum cleaners, it might be possible to minimize household drudgery without employing a servant and without using paper dishes or bare floors.

Everett P. Wheeler of the New York bar laid the high cost of living to increases in rent, due to governmental requirements and increased taxation; increases in the cost of food because of governmental inspection and regulations; legislation shortening the hours of work and increasing wages; the syndicalist movement and other influences that add to cost of production.

An interesting comment on the general discussion was made by Christine M. Frederick, national secretary of the Associated Clubs of Domestic Science, and consulting household editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal,* who pointed out that the whims of women were in no small way responsible for the high cost of living.

H. B. Fullerton, of Medford, L. I., director of agricultural development for the Long Island Railroad, was the first speaker at the afternoon session on Public Control. He told of the development of the "Long Island Home Hamper," which is a system of delivering, direct from producer to consumer, standard hampers containing food products at an established price.

Mrs. Elmer Black, member of the advisory board of the New York Terminal Market Commission, discussed Communal Benefits from the Municipal Terminal Market.

Dr. Mary E. Pennington, chief of the Food Research Laboratory of Philadelphia, showed in a masterly fashion the contribution made by cold storage warehouses by providing mechanical means of food preservation and thus equalizing supply and demand regardless of seasons. Dr. Pennington pointed out that chickens kept for twenty-four hours under average ice-box conditions of the private family, changed more chemically than those kept for months in cold storage warehouses.

Clyde L. King, instructor in political science, University of Pennsylvania, urged municipal control of wholesale terminal markets to reduce cost of distribution. Said he:

> "This plan of placing terminal wholesale facilities under municipal control and operation will unquestionably make for the elimination of certain of the middlemen, will make for the payment of higher prices, because of the large number of buyers present, and will give to retailers a greater choice of goods.
>
> "The situation as to the retailers of food products in the city can well be illustrated by the situation in Philadelphia. There are at the present time in this city about 490 chain stores, 700 members of the Retail Grocers' Associations and 4169 independent grocers. In addition there are 258 delicatessen stores, 200 butchers, handling some groceries, and 1923 variety stores.
>
> "This makes 1190 chain stores as compared with 6550 independent stores. It is clear that the maximum point to which prices can be boosted by the retailers is that fixed by a subsistence wage on the part of these small independent stores."

Irving Fisher of Yale University, in his opening remarks at the evening meeting, emphasized the growing belief that the real significance of the increased cost of living was to be found in changing the value of money.

The most striking address of the evening was

an appeal by Frances Perkins, executive secretary of the Committee on Safety of the City of New York, for the living wage.

"HIRING A SHEET FROM A MISSUS"

In a recent strike Miss Perkins found that many of the girls in factories lived away from home, many coming from rural districts, and that most of them lived by "hiring a sheet from a missus." That means that two or three of the girls slept in one bed, with a cup of coffee thrown in with the "hiring" in the morning. Many of these girls had coffee and rolls for breakfast, lunch and dinner, with an occasional extravagance, such as a fifteen-cent dinner. Their wages ran from $4 to $5 a week. Other girls, according to Miss Perkins, buy bread and bananas for meals, the bananas being great fillers.

Another speaker on this subject was Paul U. Kellogg, editor of THE SURVEY, who talked on the Wage Scale and Immigration. He outlined the proposal of transferring the economic regulation of immigration from the seaboard to the centers of congested industry by applying the minimum wage to unnaturalized citizens after the manner of child labor legislation. It would go far, he argued, toward bringing the common labor market to normal.

Margaret F. Byington, associate director of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, pointed out at the session on Waste and Extravagance, that scientific ratios of nourishment, while probably accurate quantitatively, in the number of calories to be supplied to the different age groups, might justly be criticised on the side of cost, as various elements tend to make assimilative power different in different cases. The sedentary worker cannot, for instance, digest the heavy, cheap food of the manual worker, and the infant's modified milk makes its food not cheaper, as scientific ratios would make it, but dearer than the older child's.

Charlotte Perkins Gilman, author of The Home: Its Work and Influence, in a paper on Waste of Private Housekeeping, stated that:

> "Industrial progress follows lines of specialization, organization and interchange. Domestic service is unspecialized, unorganized and self-supplied. For all men and women to perform their own house-service separately would be the lowest line of industrial efficiency; for each man to require one whole woman, with more if he can afford it; to perform his house-service is next to the lowest.
>
> "The waste of labor involved is over 40 per cent of the world's full output; fifty women doing work for fifty men, which could be done by ten women if specialized, organized and interchanging their products. The 'waste of plant,' the kitchen space, cooking apparatus, dishes and utensils, fuel, with breakage, etc., is at least 90 per cent. The waste in purchasing is the difference between the cost of a steady supply at wholesale and the entire expense of all retail service and delivery equal to at least 60 per cent. The waste in efficiency is the difference between highly specialized professional work, and the grade of labor possible to the lowest average—practically all women, under conditions of overwork, if it is done by the housewife, or, of eternal apprenticeship, if done by servants."

Mrs. Julian Heath, founder and president of the National Housewives League, explained the work of the league. H. W. Hess of the University of Pennsylvania raised active discussion by his paper on Advertising: Waste or Necessity, Which? He claimed that advertising was a necessity and socially advantageous. Samuel H. Barker, financial editor of the *Philadelphia North American*, discussed the effects of false capitalization.

At the session on the Minimum Wage, Henry R. Seager, professor of political economy, Columbia University, pointed out the social factors involved in the introduction of a minimum wage, showing that we must be prepared for the elimination from industry of certain groups now employed and their maintenance in some fashion. The minimum wage to Professor Seager is only part of a general scheme including social insurance.

H. La Rue Brown and Mathew B. Hammond discussed the minimum wage from the experience of Massachusetts, of Australia and New Zealand. Scott Nearing, instructor in economics, University of Pennsylvania, discussed the existing wage scale and pointed out that to a large extent the wages paid in the United States are not up to the necessary minimum.

The first address at the closing session on How Can the Cost of Living be Reduced? given by Dr. Shaw, editor of the *Review of Reviews*, traced the development of the co-operative movement in this country and abroad and indicated the role that productive co-operation might well play in the development of our industrial institutions. He maintained that poverty is decreasing, while wants increase.

Martha Van Rensselaer, chief of the Department of Home Economics of Cornell University, who told wittily of the difficulty of securing women's interest in household affairs, they frequently failing to recognize as do their husbands their own importance in our economic institutions.

The last paper was by Amos R. E. Pinchot, a lawyer of New York, who pointed out the re-

lationship which exists between overcapitalization and the cost of living and the necessity for regulating monopolies.

COMPENSATION LAWS IN TWENTY STATES

The 1913 legislative session has so far raised the number of state compensation acts in the United States to almost a score. West Virginia was the first this year to pass such a law, which was signed by the governor on Washington's Birthday, though it will not go into effect until October. It creates a pseudo-elective insurance fund contributed by employers and employes, to be administered by a Public Service Commission created at the same time, all administrative expenses to be met by the state and not out of the fund. The commission shall each year determine the premium rates of the twenty-three classifications into which the law divides the industries of the state. Election to pay to the fund, on the part of employer and employe—10 per cent only is to be paid by the latter—does away with the right to go to law.

Medical benefit under the law shall not exceed $150, and funeral expenses shall not exceed $75. The money benefits, which do not begin till one week has elapsed, are 50 per cent of wages or wage loss for disability. In case of death the benefits in some cases are 50 per cent of wages and in others a sum of $20 a month for one dependent and $5 additional for each additional dependent with a maximum of $35 is reached. Non-resident aliens are in express terms included as beneficiaries.

In Oregon a law establishing a state accident insurance fund was passed shortly after that of West Virginia. This is to be administered by a commission of three whose salaries are to be paid out of the fund. The fund is made up of contributions by employers and employes—in hazardous occupations the former furnish twice as much as the latter in amount—to which the state adds an initial contribution of $50,000 and one seventh of the total amount each year thereafter.

This act like that of West Virginia is pseudo-elective, election being presumed on both sides in default of written rejection. In case of accidents due to failure to provide proper safeguards, however, this election can be waived and the workman can then sue under a liability law with the customary defenses removed. Benefits which begin immediately are more generous than under the West Virginia law. In case of death one surviving dependent is to receive $30 a month, with $6 for each additional dependent up to $50; parents of a minor workman to receive $25 a month until he would have reached his majority.

Payments for total disability are much the same as to dependents on decease. Partial temporary disability is to be compensated for a limited period with "that proportion of the payments provided for total disability which his earning power at any kind of work bears to that existing at the time of the occurrence of the injury." Lump sum payments may be made to beneficiaries out of the state, a provision which must include non-resident aliens.

The Oregon law provides funeral expenses not to exceed $100 and contains a clause, such as was defeated in the Washington law on which it was modelled, giving the commission authority to provide first aid to workmen entitled to benefits under the act, together with medical and surgical expenses up to the sum of $250.

In March a further step in compensation legislation was taken by the Ohio legislature when it established, in place of its elective law, a compulsory state insurance fund contributed by employers in all industries. Comment on this act by the state actuary will be published later. According to latest reports laws were on the eve of passing in Arkansas, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska and Texas.

In New York a compensation bill was passed at the close of the session. It is pseudo-elective in form and provides benefits of 50 per cent of the employe's wages up to $10 a week.

SOCIOLOGY'S WELCOME IN THE NEW SOUTHLAND

Genuine enthusiasm and interest on the part of nearly a thousand social workers, who gathered in Atlanta from April 25-29 to attend the sessions of the Second Southern Sociological Congress, tended to disprove the statement of a speaker at the opening session that "when sociology came south it met with a cold reception." At Atlanta sociology received a hearty welcome. Signs that a spirit of "constructive criticism" is awake in the South were present on every side, in the newspaper, the pulpit and in conversation.

Though the South is still a section and in some respects probably wishes to remain one, still, in the words of Acting President A. J. McKelway: "Broadly speaking, all our problems are American problems. There is no peculiarly southern problem of poverty, illiteracy or crime; our problems of the city, of rural life and child welfare are the same throughout the nation."

The spirit of introspection was apparent on the floor of the different conferences. The boastful paragon of knowledge was lacking. The frank admission of all was: "We want to know." Dr. John E. White, of Atlanta, expressed this when he declared: "We have come at last to the conclusion that to rid ourselves of criticism, we must first criticise ourselves. We here propose constructive criticism at the hands of southern men."

But the southerners at the conference were will-

ing to receive the message of those from the North who went to counsel and advise. Both Owen R. Lovejoy and Walter Rauschenbush declared, in essence, "The North is farther along in industry and consequently has more of the evils incident thereto than the South—evils which the South is sure to suffer unless it is more wise than we. We come south, not to criticise, but to warn —confessing our own failures and urging upon you the exercise of wisdom and common sense." These men, together with such speakers as Francis H. McLean, Charles S. MacFarland, Hastings H. Hart, Alexander Johnson, Clifford G. Roe, John Ihlder, Mornay Williams, as well as Miss Lathrop, were listened to with a true regard which made itself apparent later. "I confess with shame that we have no adequate laws in the state of Tennessee," said one member, "and that is the reason I am here—to learn as much as possible even at the risk of making myself obnoxious with questions." The statement expressed the attitude of a large number of the delegates.

A striking feature of the departmental conferences of the congress was the series of thirty-five recommendations or principles adopted at the conference on the church and social service. Several of the more important recommendations follow:

1. We would recommend a more aggressive policy on the educational side of civic matters. Such questions as sanitation, the milk supply, meat inspection, social hygiene and other important matters can be taught with tremendous effectiveness by the use of the moving picture machine.

2. We would recommend that each church make a social survey, getting complete possession in systematic form of the various needs of the community in which they work and listing possible types of social effort.

3. We would recommend that each church elect a social service committee for the whole congregation and a social service assistant superintendent for the Sunday school, whose business it shall be to direct the expressive activities of the whole body.

4. We recommend the unification of our church forces upon one concerted effort at evangelizing the down-and-outs in a thoroughly equipped union mission.

5. Unify the charity forces of the city. Let the churches do their miscellaneous charity work through the regular organized charity forces of the city.

6. We would urge the cities to organize their churches into federations to meet at regular intervals for the discussion of social problems and plans.

7. Encourage wider use of church buildings.

8. We would urge the exchange of delegates by ministerial bodies with the labor unions, and the observance of Labor Sunday in all the churches.

9. We should be glad to see all of our cities have a woman's boarding home, where, under safe conditions, the working girl who comes to town may be supported and directed at small cost while she learns her new trade.

10. We would recommend a down-town social center for men, with Christian influences.

11. Help in the fight against preventable disease, and for the art of living intelligently.

12. Let the country churches make wider use of their buildings, providing circulating libraries. Let them help provide better highways, better schools, better comforts and conveniences for the home, better culture forces in general and better living conditions on the whole.

The remaining twenty-three recommendations are practically elaborations of the ones given above, and all touch upon the same phases of work that are outlined above.

RURAL EDUCATION IN THE NEW SOUTH

The Conference for Education in the South, meeting in Richmond April 15-18, brought together more than 2300 men and women. Farmers and business men, college presidents and country school teachers, men interested in local credit associations, men bent upon improving tax systems, and ministers of churches—all met together to tell what they themselves out of their experience had gathered of the ways to make life better.

The coming ambassador to the Court of St. James, a southern man, and a freckled, sunburned Virginia boy stood in the great auditorium at Richmond before thousands. Walter Page, the ambassador, introduced Frank Brockman, the boy, who told slowly and carefully how he had raised 167 bushels of shelled corn on one acre of Virginia land, how he had made $175 upon that acre thereby breaking the corn growing record of a state. He had listeners who understood and appreciated. In front of the boy sat southern farmers, teachers, demonstration leaders and superintendents of schools. Behind him, upon the platform sat the men who have made possible his work and the success of thousands like him in southern states. The men on the platform, like the boy, told their story simply and slowly to the men on the floor.

The immediate aim of the conference, as its name implies, was to stimulate progress in the South, but the speakers were not drawn from the South only. From New York and Ohio, Minnesota and Canada, men had come to bring their expert knowledge of improved farming, of co-operative agencies for buying and selling, and

of more efficient schools. The men and women whose names were on the program talked not theories but facts which they themselves knew and had demonstrated and about the value of which they were intensely enthusiastic.

One humorous illustration of this came one morning during a session on co-operation. A. V. Nelson, a Swede from Minnesota, was telling of the farmers' co-operative enterprise in his home town. As he proceeded, with enthusiastic impetuousness, faltering now and then in his use of English and then plunging on again, someone in the audience called out "Take your time!" Someone else at the same time asked him a question. "But dey von't let me take any time," he exclaimed ruefully, looking at the chairman who stood firm for the time limits of his program—"but I tell you vat I do! I stay here till tomorrow morning if you want to ask questions—I did not come here yust to talk, but to get you to go home and do somethings too!"

A third fact about the conference was the great emphasis it laid upon the present opportunities for life in the country. The long program contained only incidental references here and there to city conditions. No addresses in the whole conference were listened to with more attention than the earnest account by Frank Brockman of the way he raised his prize-winning crop of corn and the stories by two girls of how they won their prizes for growing and canning tomatoes. Their enthusiasm gave an added human interest to all the other discussions in the conference of how the work on the farm can be made more profitable and attractive.

Men and women from the rural schools gave actual instances in which the schools are being conducted to fit boys and girls for intelligent citizenship in their own country communities; school superintendents told of the new emphasis which is being laid on the proper training of teachers for the rural work; physicians detailed the activities of boards of health and of the Rockefeller Commission in fighting typhoid, the hookworm and other diseases. Still others told of the ways in which, by labor saving devices and by the promotion of a closer social life, the drudgery for women in the country homes can be alleviated. Business men from the cities told how chambers of commerce, railroads and other organizations centering in the city could help to stimulate the prosperity of the country. Throughout the conference the chief emphasis was not so much upon benefits for individuals, but upon the chance for individuals to work together for the benefit of whole communities.

What may be called the religious spirit of the gathering was not confined to this general ideal of co-operation. There were well-attended and enthusiastic conferences on the opportunities of the country church. Without dissent it was assumed that the church is concerned with every agency which makes for the finer development of country life—with better schools, better system of land ownership, better health, better recreation, a closer knit and happier society. It was recognized that the country minister, as a natural leader in his community, has an almost unequalled chance to promote co-operation for community good. He must be, as one speaker put it, "a man of piety walking with God, a man of humanity walking with men."

During the conference there was an exhibit in the old high school building. Here the kind of progress in rural education which the speakers in the conference had talked about was visualized by pictures and charts and whole rooms full of the work turned out in the manual training and domestic science classes.

EDITORIAL GRIST

MARKETING AND FARM CREDITS

HERMAN N. MORSE

Though little that was new on the subjects under discussion was brought forward, the First National Conference on Marketing and Farm Credits, through the papers presented and the official resolutions adopted, called attention to certain highly important facts. The conference agreed that a number of conditions detrimental both to the farmers and the general public are prevalent, and that certain constructive remedial policies are necessary. One proposition to which there was general agreement was that the margin between the price which the producer receives for his product and that which the consumer pays for it is too great. The farmer rereceives too little and the consumer pays too much. The market for farm products is too unstable and the fluctuations and variations in price are too great and too uncertain. Competition has failed adequately to control and regulate prices.

The present marketing facilities, it was stated, are utterly inadequate to bring the supply and the demand together. Quantities of farm produce rot in the fields because they cannot be gotten to those markets in which there is an active demand for them. This is partly because of the lack of properly distributed shipping facilities; partly because the producers are not sufficiently in touch with the markets; partly because storage firms, commission men's associations, etc. interfere with the normal operation of the markets; and partly because certain kinds of products are not provided to the mass of consumers at prices which they can afford to pay, though that price would give the producer an ample profit if exorbitant middleman's profits were eliminated.

B. F. Yoakum estimated that every year fruit and vegetables worth $35,000,000 rot on the ground from the lack of shipping and storage facilities and of knowledge of receptive markets. The annual loss from corn stalks, rice, flax and other grain straw which is now burned he estimated at $250,000,000. The additional amount which the farmers could receive for their products, if by co-operation they knew when and where to sell their products, he placed at $1,500,000,000 per year, making a total loss of $1,785,000,000. In the judgment of the conference this was not an over-statement of the facts.

The delegates to the conference also agreed that the average farmer has a total income disproportionate to his importance in the national economy. W. J. Spillman, chief of the Bureau of Farm Management of the federal Department of Agriculture, estimated that the average farm income in this country is about $655 a year; of this amount about $1 a day is the entire return for labor. This labor income, he asserted, holds throughout the states. After computing the interest on his investment, the farmer averages $1 for every day he works. In states such as Illinois, he said, where the investment is greater, the farm family has a larger sum to use without impairing the capital than in a state like New York. The difference, however, is in the interest on invested capital not in labor income.

Even in sections where the farmers generally are satisfied with the return which they get for their labor, they are unable to get products to the consumers at a reasonable price. This works a great and unnecessary hardship upon the poor.

Farmers generally, and especially small farmers, it was agreed, are at present unable to secure for sufficient time and at a reasonable rate, the capital with which to purchase land or proper equipment and materials for the most effective and economical operation of farm property. In this connection the European methods of rural credit were discussed at some length.

In considering the remedies for these conditions, certain general principles, it was decided, should control whatever policies were advocated.

It was urged that farm products ought to be generally standardized as commercial products are. There should also be organization among farmers for the raising of particular standardized products in different communities or in different parts of the same community to which they are especially adapted. Scientific farming and soil conservation were assumed.

The key-word emphasized by the speakers for all efforts to improve agricultural conditions was co-operation. This co-operation, they declared, must have the dual purpose of giving the producer a fair and consistent profit and of giving products to the consumer at the lowest possible price. The producer and the consumer must be taken into complete partnership. Combination must never be on the principle of the industrial combinations or trusts. This will require some little revision of our present anti-trust laws to permit combinations except "in so far as they are detrimental to the interests of the people."

Finally, the conference in its formal resolutions advocated the following constructive measures:

(a) The passage by Congress of a currency system which will permit farmers to obtain currency on their land in much the same manner that national bankers obtain currency by depositing bonds as security.

(b) Taking government crop reporting out of the hands of "stock gamblers" and making it a public matter.

(c) The rapid development of the government Bureau of Markets about to be established.

(d) The organized co-operation, both of consumers and producers, under proper supervision, to promote effective distribution, economical marketing, and to reduce expenses between producer and consumer.

(e) Organized co-operation properly supervised to secure more advantageous systems of rural credit.

(f) The extension and improvement of the parcel's post as a potent factor in reducing the cost and facilitating the distribution of the products of the farm to the ultimate consumers.

SOUTHERN SCHOOLMEN AND THE CIRCLE OF LIFE

WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER

You can't be wise on an empty stomach. You can't fill that stomach until you are wise. Nor can you be educated or fed until you are good, happy, clean—nor good, happy or clean until you are educated and fed. In the individual, then, life is a complete circle, every part of which is integral. In the whole group of individuals, there is the same circle, no part of which is complete in itself, or even significant unless considered merely as a segment.

This fundamental fact, so obvious, yet so seldom fully recognized, gave form and force to the Conference on Education in the South, recently held in Richmond. Farmers, business men, country preachers, officials, writers, editors, physicians, plain citizens, and school teachers—some 2,300—met together to discuss the problems which are common to them all. Wonder of wonders, the "conference" was a real conference; spell binding addresses were conspicuous by their absence. To a remarkable extent, the program

consisted of concise and vigorous statements of actual accomplishments and constructive pleas for needed accomplishments. At one meeting Virginia Pearl Moore of Tennessee would tell how a mountain girl had made at the cost of a dollar or so a home canner with which she had won a prize—and rebuilt a whole community; at another E. M. Tousley of Minnesota would tell how the farmers' corporation at Dassel in his state had procured for the consumer his share of the price of his crops—and rounded out and made full the life of the neighborhood.

These men and women who met at Richmond had their faces set toward the village and the open country. They realized that American life was becoming a pyramid set wrong end up. To turn the pyramid over, so that at the bottom supporting the whole structure will be a satisfied and satisfying country life, was the large task to which these southerners gave vigorous attention. The conference took note of the fact that the "great American contortion" of the fed trying to support the feeder cannot be perpetuated. It realized, too, that the general assumption that all country people are or are to become men is wholly wrong; that it is many generations past the time when in an organized and comprehensive way, educational and social agencies should have begun to help the farmer's wife and daughter so that they could help themselves. To be sure, wife and daughter will not have their due until the farmer is economically efficient, but what are the chances that he will increase his yield if he has to eat poorly cooked food, to say nothing of putting up with a nagging wife and a discontented daughter?

As the most tangible and immediate method of making the farmer more efficient economically, the conference emphasized better business methods. Here again Dr. Albert P. Bourland, executive secretary, showed discernment, in that he related the subject of agricultural co-operation and better farm credits to the other topics discussed—school, church, home and business in the large. The conference had the right to preach co-operation for it was practicing it!

All the discussions were illuminated by honesty—the recognition of problems and the characterization of evils by their right names. Indeed, this meeting made the few visitors from north of Mason and Dixon's line again wish that in their sections of the country there were the same hearty frankness joined to tact.

Since this conference discussed the whole of the circle of life, what right had it to be called a conference for *education?*

In the South, the machinery for social amelioration is to a large extent educational. Whether it be the hook worm in South Carolina or bad housing in Texas that is attacked, efforts to make the South a better place in which to live emanate to a suprising degree from state departments of education, agricultural colleges, state universities, sectarian colleges, secondary schools, and—praise be!—one-room rural schools. Whether or not these institutions have the help of individuals, they do their work in the name of all of the people.

LESSONS FROM OHIO RESERVOIRS

MORRIS KNOWLES
Pittsburgh Flood Commission

Early reports of the recent Ohio floods gave many the impression that the disasters were due to the failure of reservoirs; and as these reports were not generally corrected later, this impression no doubt remains in the minds of some. An investigation made during the week following the disasters showed this to be incorrect; but the escape was so narrow in some instances that the lesson of reservoirs of this sort is driven home almost as strongly as if they had failed and caused an enormous destruction of life and property.

Most of the reservoirs in the flooded districts belonged to the Ohio state canal system and were constructed to supply water for the canals in the dry seasons. In addition, the Columbus water supply storage dam on the Scioto river, was reported to have failed, causing a panic in Columbus. A number of power dams in various parts of the state were also the subjects of similar rumors. But these reports were either entirely without foundation, as in the case of the Columbus dam, or else the dams were relatively unimportant, so that this article may well be confined to the canal reservoirs.

The Ohio canal system, built in the second quarter of the last century, consists of two main divisions—the Ohio Canal, or eastern route, connecting Lake Erie and the Ohio river by way of the Cuyahoga, Tuscarawas, Muskingum, Licking and Scioto river valleys; and the Miami and Erie Canal, or western route, connecting Lake Erie and the Ohio river by way of the Maumee, Auglaize, and Miami river valleys. In addition, the Muskingum river was slackwatered below Zanesville. Numerous lateral, feeder and tributary canals completed a system which had cost approximately $16,000,000 and which comprised in 1850 over 1,000 miles of canals, more than 300 lift locks and half a dozen reservoirs.

In the case of each of the main canal routes, water was lacking on the summit level during the dry season, and the reservoirs were constructed to supplement the normal flow at such times. The Portage Lakes, just south of Akron, were dammed about 1840, to supply the summit of the eastern route; Loramie and Lewistown Reservoirs about 1850-60, for the western route; and the Licking Reservoir, or Buckeye Lake, about 1832, for the Licking summit. In addition, Grand Reservoir, the largest in the state, was



LOOKING DOWN THE EAST RESERVOIR CREVASSE
In the wreckage are the remains of a saloon and of a concrete bridge.

built about 1841, to supply the northern slope of the Miami and Erie Canal.

During the middle of the last century, just prior to the Civil War, these canals were very active, and brought in a gross revenue, during some years, of over $500,000. In 1851 the gross earnings were over $799,000, and the net earnings almost $470,000. But later, the decline came, as it did on all of the old canals. As the canal section and lock dimensions were outgrown by the demands of modern traffic, a gradual abandonment of navigation followed, until now, for many years, there has been no canal freight traffic at all. Some of the branch and feeder canals have been officially abandoned, and either left to deteriorate without attention, or else filled up. Several of the reservoirs were dedicated by the legislature, by several acts passed since 1894, to use as public parks and pleasure resorts, with the provision, however, that they must be maintained for canal purposes.

For the past few years, therefore, the only revenues from the canals have been from the leasing of lands for oil well drilling and from the sale of water or water power to private or municipal water works and industrial plants. An annual appropriation has been made, in addition, to assist in meeting the expense of maintenance. There has, therefore, been no great stimulus to comprehensive and thorough work, and probably a great deal of the maintenance has been of a perfunctory character. The canals and reservoirs are in charge of a Board of Public Works of three members, but neither this nor any other state body or official appears to have had the specific duty of investigating these reservoirs from the sole point of view of public safety.

The Portage Lakes, about six miles south of Akron, were provided with no spillway whatever. The only way water could be discharged from them was through a thirty-six inch pipe. At the beginning of the rain-storm, the level in the reservoirs was within about one foot of the top of the embankment. In was not surprising, therefore, that the lakes filled up, overflowed the low embankment and washed out a crevasse about twenty-five feet deep and nearly 200 feet wide. The water overflowed a considerable area of low farm lands.

At the Lewistown Reservoir, which covers 6,000 acres, about a quarter of a mile of the west embankment was overflowed continuously for a day and a half. Waves dashed over the top of the south bank for several days. Both banks were almost despaired of, and a large force of men, including cottagers and citizens from neighboring towns, worked hard, placing logs and sand bags, to save them. In this they were successful, but a large area south of the reservoir was overflowed.

The Loramie Reservoir of 1,830 acres was already filled to above the spillway level when the rain started, and the water reached a maximum elevation of about four feet above the 200 foot spillway. Two small crevasses about twenty and twenty-five feet wide respectively and five or six feet deep, were washed out at a low portion of the embankment.

The Grand Reservoir is one of the largest artificial bodies of water in the world and covers about 13,400 acres. The water rose to about two feet above the ninety-five foot spillway. The water did not come near overtopping the banks, but heavy waves were driven against and over them, eroding them seriously at some points, and softening and furrowing their backs at others.



REPAIRED BREAK IN LORAMIE RESERVOIR EMBANKMENT.
When the break occurred the water was about four feet over the spillway.

A large force of volunteers worked with the laborers, filling and placing bags of sand, while a company of state militia patrolled the banks. No breaks occurred at any point, but the situation was critical for two or three days.

These situations teach a lesson that ought never to need repetition. Reservoir failures did not contribute measurably to the flood damage in Ohio. The trouble was caused by excessive and extensive rains.

But even if the reservoirs did not fail with disastrous results, the margin was a narrow one and the lesson is equally plain. It has long been an engineering principle that an earth embankment must not be overtopped. Twenty-four years ago, the Johnstown disaster, due to insufficient spillway capacity, impressed this upon the whole world. And it is an interesting parallel, that this was caused by an old reservoir originally built by the state for canal purposes, and later abandoned and used for pleasure purposes. Yet in Ohio there were four earth embankment reservoirs, one of which had no spillway and a far from sufficient discharge pipe; two of which filled up so that the banks were overflowed; and one which did not overflow, but which filled up sufficiently so that waves were driven over the embankments. Nor was the rainfall one beyond the range of probability. The March storm probably broke all records for combined intensity, duration and extent. But for small drainage areas such as these (52 to 114 square miles) the rainfall was not unprecedented. At least two storms have occurred in Ohio during the past forty years in which the rainfall in forty-eight hours was greater than that recorded in any forty-eight hours of the late storm, at any station, excepting Piqua, which is below the reservoirs in question. And in at least one storm in the same period, the rainfall for twenty-four hours was within .06 inch of the highest twenty-four hour rainfall of last month.

The faults in these reservoirs, then, were not due to a lack of knowledge as to what to expect, but only to failure to apply knowledge already gained. In this case, of course, state ownership put an extra responsibility on Ohio to see that its property was not a menace to its citizens. But, in any case, the state is the only institution which can see that such structures are provided with the necessary facilities to make them safe. Johnstown ought to have taught the necessity of examining reservoirs and dams, and of enforcing suitable standards of design and construction. Yet if we examine the statute books of Ohio we find no legislative provision of this kind whatever. Nor is there any provision for the study, mapping and gauging of the water resources. This is a necessary preliminary to a full understanding of the possible menace from uncontrolled waste.

With only two or three exceptions, conditions are precisely the same throughout the country. Even in Pennsylvania, which has probably suffered more grievously from dam failures than any other state, there is as yet no public knowledge of the design and condition of all dams, and no authority in any official or body to correct a dangerous condition.

Must we wait for another Johnstown or an Austin to change these things? Or will we learn from what might well have occurred in Ohio, and make a repetition of such disasters impossible? The lesson is plain. Will we profit by it?

BOOKS

MODERN PHILANTHROPY

By WILLIAM H. ALLEN. Dodd, Mead & Co. 437 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.64.

During 1910 and 1911, the years immediately succeeding the death of her husband, Mrs. E. H. Harriman received many thousands of appeals from as many individuals, charities, churches or other enterprises, most of whom either felt that they had some claim upon her generosity or hoped that their individual desires or necessities were particularly worthy of support. These appeals, to the number of 6,000, Mrs. Harriman turned over to the New York Bureau of Municipal Research for analysis and study. They came from all corners of the globe. The plans and remedies proposed ranged from a sage's advice to a cheap cure-all emanating from a freakish brain.

Using the results of this study as a text, the author has written this volume, a part of which is a discourse on the relation of philanthropy to the functions of government. Another part is more like a manual on will making and successful appealing for private funds. The final section is an argument in favor of a national clearing house for appeals and charitable causes.

The details with which the analysis and classification of the 6,000 appeals is presented are so elaborate that they become tiresome and confusing. Besides, many of them are so exceptional that while they might be texts for discussions in social ethics, few general conclusions of value can be reached from them.

The discussion of will making has greater value for our various communities, and is receiving increasing attention among lawyers, social workers and civic reformers. The author proposes that lawyers recognize this value and equip themselves as experts or consultants for those who in increasing number wish to leave of their resources a contribution toward the betterment of social and civic conditions. He calls attention to the fact that the terms of a will are generally an expression of a previous generation's interest and that it is altogether too commonly true at the present time that the will maker's thought is not kept abreast with the development of the community and the needs of the times. For instance, the important work in scientific research of the present day is not provided for to any large extent by bequests but is largely financed by gifts from the living.

The continuous education of prospective givers is urged so that their bequests may express a vital interest of the donor's present instead of his past. The tendency of men to make their wills in middle life will, however, always prove to be an obstacle to this desired result, and hence the terms of a will must be made as general as a careful description of the donor's interest allows it to be, rather than so restricted that its usefulness will soon be so lessened that the state must set a limit to the life of the bequest.

The list of nation-wide needs that the book presents is certainly a formidable one. Many of them require a paragraph while others ought to have a whole chapter if not a whole volume to elucidate them and show their value to the skeptical reader or legislator. In the shape in which they are presented they bewilder all except the expert social scientist or social reformer. That the needs have diverse values is easily seen by examining two in the list of 4 per cent to 6 per cent investments, combining public service and private profits. Here we find the enigmatic suggestion that we discover the "application of the Child's Restaurant idea to boarding houses" placed side by side with the need of a "model factory system that would net capital 4 per cent or 5 per cent and let the earnings above that limit go to make high wages, shorter hours and lower prices." Many utopias are contained in these lists. The enumeration is impressive and suggestive but not convincing.

The author's tendency to question every social fact, every community habit and every form of benevolence is found throughout the volume. This undoubtedly arouses thought. It is nowhere better exemplified than in the following statement: "It is doubtful whether the philosophy of giving formulated by Mr. Carnegie or Mr. Rockefeller rings truer than does that of begging letters. After all, philosophy is not much more than straight seeing, and a person in trouble, needing help, can see almost as much and as far as a person wanting to get rid of money. Neither a multi-millionaire nor a professor of ethics could surpass the good wife whose husband is harassed to pay $200 debts." These half truths challenge one to find the whole truth, but they do not much enlighten him who is seeking to find a safe social policy.

Mr. Allen's mind is fertile. He has the unusual gift of throwing out sheaves of questions for arousing one's interest, and for this purpose the volume in question is particularly noteworthy.

C. C. CARSTENS.

VOCATIONS FOR GIRLS

By MARY A. LASELLE and KATHERINE WILEY. Introduction by Meyer Bloomfield. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 139 pp. Price $.85; by mail of THE SURVEY $.92.

This little volume is designed to be of service in assisting wage-earning girls to a wise and intelligent choice of a vocation and may be used as a reference or text book in the elementary grades, as well as furnish "advisory material" for those girls who continue in school after fourteen years of age.

The chief value of this book has been pointed out by Mr. Bloomfield; namely, that it is written

by teachers who perhaps thus unconsciously express the prevailing discontent of the teacher alert to modern demands on education, and the reaching out of the hitherto secluded educator into the realities with which the child, unequipped, constantly struggles.

The material is attractively arranged, presented in a breezy, readable form, tinged with the spirit of sentiment, calculated to excite and hold the interest of the girl reader. It cannot fail to make the careless, irresponsible girl more thoughtful, to untangle many perplexities for the troubled girl and to arouse ambition for personal efficiency in all girls who read it. The emphasis for gaining success is laid almost entirely upon personal efficiency. While the necessity cannot be made too clear to the girl—who is inclined to look upon her wage-earning life less as a profession than the boy—the book is disappointing in its almost total lack of recognition of the many failures in industry to meet the reasonable claims of efficiency. The absence of such information is prone to tempt the girl into industry sooner than there is financial need for her service, and does not protect her incentive or optimism, which protection is hoped for by the concealment of these facts. It is this feature which is too often damaging to the beneficial effect of many vocational bulletins published without an intimate and accurate knowledge of the trades discussed.

This setting forth of disadvantages as well as advantages has been most excellently done in another recent Boston publication, Survey of Occupations Open to the Girl of Fourteen to Sixteen Years, by Harriet Hazen Dodge. This pamphlet presents both sides of the question in a most helpful, concise and scientific form. The knowledge of the "disadvantages" is needful to the educator with whom will lie the decision as to the kind of trade or industry with which education can assist and co-operate in moulding the life of the child.

Vocations for Girls will be of assistance to the elementary teacher in providing an opportunity for intelligent contact with the girl worker, and suggestive material for further investigation as to the educative motive in trades and the benefit of the "occupative motive" in the girl pupil.

Little or no new information is given the sociological worker concerning specific lines of work for girls, or concerning her education for wage earning and home making.

The note of unquestioned recognition of the permanency of the girl's wage-earning life which pervades every page of the book, is most welcome and all too urgently needed—both by girl and employer. But above all else, let me repeat that the book deserves a pioneer place in vocational literature, as one of the outward proofs of that which has long been felt,—that the destiny of the wage-earning child can be safely trusted to the keen interest, stimulating sympathy and sound judgment of his or her main dependence—the most potent of our social forces—the public school teacher.

MARY EDITH CAMPBELL.

GENETICS: AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF HEREDITY

By HERBERT EUGENE WALTER. 272 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.65.

Everyone interested in the modern problems of eugenics and the care of defectives will find much of value in this book. The author says: "An attempt has been made to summarize for the intelligent but uninitiated reader some of the more recent phases of the questions of heredity which are at present agitating the biological world."

The book is an excellent statement of the present most generally accepted theory of heredity, with only as much reference to other theories as will enable the reader to see how modern theories have grown out of the old ones.

Much of the book is extremely interesting to anyone with the least beginning of a scientific mind. The incidents with regard to the various experiments by biologists are illuminating.

The author is fair and guarded in his statements on questions which are in dispute. Although there can be no doubt as to his own beliefs in such matters, for example, as the inheritance of acquired characters, yet he gives both sides of the question fairly. Some of the instances of experiments read like a romance. The story of Lamarck's Evening Primrose as studied by De Vries is fascinating.

Of course, to the socially minded person, the most interesting part of the book is that which deals with its application to man, and the chapter on human conservation which takes up such topics as how mankind may be improved, control of immigration, discriminating marriage laws, educated sentiment, segregation of defectives, etc., is compelling and well worth study.

The text is illustrated by a large number of diagrams some of which, although simple to the student of biology, will require considerable study by the ordinary reader. On the whole, the book is a valuable contribution to our literature on heredity and will be of great service to those who, while unable to study eugenics exhaustively, still feel that they must know the general theories on the subject.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

MARRIAGE AND THE SEX PROBLEM

By DR. F. W. FOERSTER. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 225 pp. Price $1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.44.

This is a translation of a work entitled *Sexualethik und Sexualpadagogik* by Dr. F. W. Foerster of Zürich, Switzerland. The translator supplies a brief statement of Foerster's personal development and his final adoption of a positive ethical and religious philosophy akin to the new idealism of Prof. Rudolph Eucken. The book devotes considerable space to the theories of Ellen Key, Freud and Forel. On its positive side it advocates undeviating adherence to the traditional point of view in matters of sex and marriage. A somewhat pedantic touch results from the translator's use of "ethic" in preference to the more familiar "ethics" as an equivalent for the German *Ethik*.

KATHARINE ANTHONY.

BEDROCK

By Annie L. Diggs. The Social Center Publishing Co., Detroit. 70 pp. Price $.25; by mail of The Survey $.30.

Although, like Hayne's famous speech on Foote's resolution, this book shoots a passing reference at almost every topic of public affairs, it is in essence an argument for establishing an employment bureau in connection with every educational institution in the United States. The reasoning of the treatise, like its rhetoric, is thoroughly ill-digested. While the author has imagination enough to see the perfect beauty of a social adjustment which would provide a suitable occupation for every educated person, and an educated person for every occupation, she apparently relies on the sentimentality and good-heartedness of mankind to bring this about.

Her program for starting an employment bureau is to get a handful of men and women into a parlor and start one. The task of launching raw youngsters on their life-work is to be done at first by volunteers "whose imaginations are quickened by a longing to serve humanity." The author is evidently unacquainted with the history of vocational guidance in Boston, which has emphasized above all else the need of full and scientific information about industry and individual aptitudes before placement is sparingly attempted. She says not a word about the age at which children are to be steered into jobs, and is apparently unfamiliar with recent investigations in New York, Cincinnati and Philadelphia, which have made it alarmingly probable that there are no positions in cities into which it is wise or safe to place children. She seems to accept as good, without discrimination, any and all attempts at vocational training, at the same time not realizing that such training should precede organized placement.

In a word, the book embodies nearly all of the fallacies and half-truths which make so difficult the progress of wise educational readjustment in this country at the present time. Mrs. Diggs describes herself as the chairman of the Department of Employment Bureaus of the National Social Center Association. It is to be hoped that if that organization ever addresses itself to active propaganda, it will not adopt Mrs. Diggs' views on finding work for children.

Winthrop D. Lane.

CATCH-MY-PAL

By Rev. R. J. Patterson, LL.B. Geo. H. Doran Co. 192 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of The Survey $1.07.

The author, a Presbyterian minister, in the north of Ireland, catches enthusiasm from a Catholic priest, and a temperance movement of great significance results, enrolling 130,000 men in a year's time, chiefly by the work of ex-drinkers for their former "pals." The book is a glowingly Irish account of what has been a unique illustration of the power of sheer brotherhood, applied after the method of the Gospels and in the unconventional spirit of the Good Samaritan. The material given here is to be classed for significance in interpreting religious experience with two recent publications—Varieties of Religious Experience and Twice-Born Men.

Perhaps the core of the book is the conclusion phrased in words previously and independently used by Professor Horne: "Sometimes conviction leads to action. . . . Sometimes action leads to conviction." The experience of the mystic seems incalculable; the religion of the Gospels and of this book reveal a constant, lawful and infinite power, a source of true miracle, latent until men take its challenge and by a brotherly act of will allow it to work its wonders through them. "All our attempts to save a man," says Mr. Patterson, "should be made at the point where he understands. . . . [Jesus] began at the blind man's eyes, at the lame man's feet, at the deaf man's ears, at the dumb man's tongue." This movement has given also another proof of the pressing necessity of social centers for men, equally attractive and unconventional as the saloon, and the author has interesting things to say about "Temperance saloons," public opinion, and legislation.

J. F. Bushnell.

THE LIFE OF ELLEN H. RICHARDS

By Caroline L. Hunt. Whitcomb & Barrows, Boston. 328 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.66.

CAROLA WOERISHOFFER, HER LIFE AND WORK

Bryn Mawr College, Class of 1907. 137 pp.

"The large, outgiving life" is a graphic phrase used by the biographer of Ellen H. Richards in introducing the story of her sixty-eight well-spent years. Mrs. Richards was a woman in whose nature the quality of acquisitiveness seems almost to have been omitted. She gave boundlessly of herself to individuals and to the common welfare. Her thoughtfulness for friends and associates and her notable public services were intrinsic forms of self-expression. Apparently, she was incapable of a perfunctory act. Her letters to friends, the gift for the coming baby, the "treat" for the girl student away from home for the first time, the pot of flowers sent to a new neighbor, her letters to "correspondence" students, her analysis of the water supply of the state of Massachusetts, her leadership in the home economics movement—all these things, from the least to the most important, were but the sincere expressions of her outpouring spirit.

Her impulse for service was re-enforced by a remarkable talent for administration. It was this which made possible the extraordinary generosity of her life. It was scientifically managed from the start. At the height of her career, as Miss Hunt remarks, Mrs. Richards was doing the work of ten people. Even as a little girl, Ellen Swallow had shown her capacity to carry on a triple career by helping her mother at home and her father in the "general store," besides doing the lessons proper for a little girl. Later she combined teaching with housekeeping and storekeeping and helped to earn the money with which she went to college. During the greater part of her two years at Vassar, she supported herself by tutoring. From this time on, as student in the Boston Institute of Technology and subsequently as instructor, Mrs. Richards was

steadily increasing the range of her energies and activities. The history of her life is the history of the inauguration of many social and scientific movements.

As a leader, she united to a marked degree the qualities of pioneer and conservator. To have been the first woman to enter the Institute of Technology and to have opened the way for other women was for her a life-long satisfaction. She was never weary in fighting the battle for the higher education of women. But she had also a strong instinct for sustaining the victory so hardly won. This is illustrated by a reproachful letter which she wrote to a woman friend, a college professor, who had fainted. "Take beef three times a day for a fortnight to tone yourself up," she wrote, "and don't do it again. It is fully as important to keep in physical condition as to have a mental grasp. Nowadays the last card they can trump up against us is that we are not physically equal to what we try to do. The more prominent we are the more closely they watch us. Just now, too, when so much is in the air against woman's education."

The volume is issued as a memorial and was prepared with the co-operation of Professor Richards and a committee of Mrs. Richards' friends representing her various interests.

At the age of twenty-five, Ellen Swallow was just pulling herself free from the narrow life of a New England village and starting off to Vassar College. At the same age, Carola Woerishoffer, thanks to a more favorable environment and a more enlightened generation, had finished her college course and entered upon a well-established career of social service. When her gallant and useful life came to a tragical end in an automobile accident at this same age, she had already accomplished much that was worth recording.

A picture of her life and personality is given in a small memorial volume, which consists chiefly of a series of addresses made by personal friends at a meeting held in Greenwich House shortly after her death. In the descriptions of her friends, the girl's devotion to athletics, her spirit of comradeship, her strong-willed nature, her democratic instincts, her German fondness for thoroughness and hatred of dilletanteism, and her sense of social responsibility as the possessor of wealth are the qualities which are made to stand out as most representative of her.

The spirit in which her social work was done was thus described by one of the speakers: "She and another young woman, Elizabeth Butler, who also did immeasurably hard things and who also left us forever this summer—they undertook so simply the things that to us of my generation seemed a moral adventure, a wonderful undertaking,—these young women took them in such a matter-of-fact way. It did not seem to Carola an adventure to go into laundries any more than it did to Elizabeth Butler to go into the depths of blackest Pittsburgh. The things were there, and we had to know about them, and it was all matter-of-fact, just as it would have been for an able-bodied man to go and look at things and come back and tell the world what it bitterly needs to know about them. It was all matter-of-fact for them, and I believe they are forerunners of new generations of women who will insist in their youth on knowing life as it is, on facing the world clear-eyed and changing these things which we of my generation, in our youth, shirked and preferred not to know."

KATHARINE ANTHONY.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN APRIL

A BUNCH OF LITTLE THIEVES. By David S. Greenberg. The Shakespeare Press. 336 pp. Price $1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.46.

THE TRUTH ABOUT SOCIALISM. By Allan L. Benson. B. W. Huebsch. 188 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

SYNDICALISM, INDUSTRIAL UNIONISM AND SOCIALISM. By John Spargo. B. W. Huebsch. 243 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

THE DISCOVERY OF THE FUTURE. By H. G. Wells. B. W. Huebsch. 61 pp. Price $.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $.65.

THE EIGHTEENTH BRUMAIRE OF LOUIS BONAPARTE. By Karl Marx. Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 160 pp. Price by mail of THE SURVEY $.50 (cloth), $.25 (paper).

SABOTAGE. By Emile Pouget. Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 108 pp. Price by mail of THE SURVEY $.50 (cloth), $.25 (paper).

WAY STATIONS. By Elizabeth Robins. Dodd, Mead & Co. 371 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.64.

THE WOMAN WITH EMPTY HANDS—WHO IS SHE? Dodd, Mead & Co. 76 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.56.

DIVORCING LADY NICOTINE. By Henry Beach Needham. Forbes & Co. 70 pp. Price $.35; by mail of THE SURVEY $.39.

THE MAN AND THE WOMAN. By Arthur L. Salmon. Forbes & Co. 145 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.81.

WOMEN AS WORLD BUILDERS. By Floyd Dell. Forbes & Co. 104 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.80.

THE HAPPY FAMILY. By Frank Swinnerton. Geo. H. Doran Co. 308 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.36.

IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE EVIDENCE. By Oliver Onions. Geo. H. Doran Co. 284 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

GOLD, PRICES AND WAGES. By John A. Hobson. Geo. H. Doran Co. 178 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.32.

FURTHER REMINISCENCES. By Henry Mayers Hyndman. The Macmillan Co. 545 pp. Price $5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $5.20.

THE BRITANNICA YEAR BOOK, 1913. Edited by Hugh Chisholm, M. A., Oxon. Encyclopedia Brittannica Co. 1226 pp. Price $2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.40.

THE PHILIPPINE PROBLEM. By Frederick Chamberlain. Little, Brown & Co. 240 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

WHEN TO SEND FOR THE DOCTOR. By F. E. Lippert, M.D., and A. Holmes, Ph.D. J. B. Lippincott Co. 265 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.34.

PRIMER OF PHYSIOLOGY. By John W. Ritchie. World Book Co. 250 pp. Price $.80; by mail of THE SURVEY $.88.

FIELDS, FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS. By P. A. Kropotkin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 477 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.82.

THE AMERICAN SPIRIT. By Oscar S. Strauss. The Century Co. 379 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.15.

THE CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION IN FLORIDA. By William Watson Davis, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 769 pp. Price $4.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $4.23.

THE LARGER ASPECTS OF SOCIALISM. By William English Walling. The Macmillan Co. 406 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.63.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL VALUE OF CHRISTIANITY. By George Chatterton-Hill, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co. 285 pp. Price $2.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.88.

CHRISTIAN UNITY AT WORK. Edited by Charles S. MacFarland. Federal Council of Churches in America. 291 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.15. A copy of the Business Proceedings of the Council is sent, free of charge, with the book.

THE MODERN TREATMENT OF MENTAL DISEASES. Volume I. Edited by William A. White, M.D. Lea and Febiger. 867 pp. Price $6.00; prepaid of THE SURVEY $6.35.

TREND

LEADERS IN THE MONTH'S MAGAZINES

THE CASE OF LAURA SYLVIA. By Mary Vida Clark. *Outlook.* This is the almost unbelievable story of the finding and rehabilitation of a little savage child found living with savage people in the midst of a prosperous farming community in the Hudson River Valley. Miss Clark tells the story from her long experience in placing out work of the State Charities Aid Association of New York. It is not an unusual one, and her comment suggests the possibilities of neglected and degenerate families in the cabin homes of the New England and the southern mountains.

TIGER. By Witter Bynner, and STATE REGULATION OF VICE AND ITS MEANING. By Anna Garlin Spencer. Both in the *Forum.* The first is a one act play dealing with prostitution. A father, a patron, finds his daughter a prisoner in a house of ill fame. "Painful and terrible" says the editorial introduction, "as this may seem to some readers it merely focuses, in dramatic form, the abominable realities to which 'civilized' people have so long shut their eye publicly and pharisaically; but to which, in tens of thousands of cases, they have given vicious private and personal encouragement."

Mrs. Spencer's article is a careful historical study of state efforts to deal with vice by regulation instead of abolition and to protect monogamy by putting vice on a legal footing.

WHAT WE ARE TRYING TO DO. *World's Work.* Thirty-five teachers in the Washington Irving High School tell how they are trying in this model New York school to "improve the human machine," to "form character" and to "perfect womanhood."

THE COMING CITY. By John S. Gregory, and MY WORK FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN. By Blanche VanLeuvan Browne. Both in the *World's Work.* In the latter article a cripple woman tells with magnetic simplicity, how, beginning only seven years ago with $6 in her pocket, she has succeeded in building up a hospital-school for cripples in Detroit.

The Coming City tells of the remarkable work of another single individual, John Nolen, who has made more than twenty American municipalities more convenient and more beautiful. It is the record of "a rapidly growing national movement to correct the evils of careless growth and to insure that the cities of the future shall be definitely planned to serve and please their citizens."

"CONSERVATION AS PRACTISED." By Gifford Pinchot. *Pearson's.* The origin and purport of this important article is thus told by the editor: It is written in answer to the article on conservation by Edward H. Thomas, which was published in the January issue of this magazine. Mr. Thomas's article submitted that conservation in principle was all right but that conservation in practice was nowhere near the principle; that conservation as practised aids monopoly instead of hindering it; and that the West, where conservation is being practised, is getting sick of it.

Mr. Pinchot holds that conservation as practised is for the greatest good of the greatest number. He asked for space in which to correct what he held was a wrong impression on the minds of the magazine's readers. He answers Mr. Thomas, point by point.

THE COST OF MODERN SENTIMENT. By Agnes Repplier. *Atlantic.* This writer on matters of culture and art for leisurely readers, a vigorous defender of child labor on the stage on the ground of its artistic value, has had it borne in upon her that human interests are today arousing more and more public interest and emotion. Three of these absorbing human issues are the progress of women, the condition of labor and the social evil. Miss Repplier counsels against the misdirecting of sentiment through incomplete knowledge.

THE recall last month of a San Francisco municipal court judge, for setting so low a bail on a man charged with rape as to make it possible for him to escape trial by skipping bail, gives special interest to a recent article in *The Sunset Magazine* by Miriam Michelson. This is an analysis of the dawning sense of responsibility of the women of a suffrage state toward the social evil:

> Now this threatened recall of a police judge is undertaken, I should say, not because the women believe this particular judge to be unique in flagrant adherence to a police court system of leniency in sex-crimes; not because they think him the worst of his type that San Francisco has known; but because they consider him a type and because they consider the police court system one that must be changed. This recall presents something definite, something to do, which feminine hands have been aching for.

Miss Michelson continues:

> You may talk to women of the futility of figuring social sex sins, but they seem to be congenitally incapable of believing you. I heard a man talk to an audience in behalf of this measure, and when he touched upon that old, old text—*it always has been; it always will be*—there came a curious resemblance in every woman's face within my vision; for every face had hardened, stiffened, was marked with the family likeness of rebellion. The lecturer was addressing himself to deaf ears, to eyes determined not to see.
>
> And this is at once the weakness and the strength of the new element in elections. Those who have watched the ardor of the most eager and high-minded reformers burn out in commissions, in barren resolutions and recommendations, see in the average woman's limitations that power, that one-idead incapacity to look philosophically on both sides of a question which marks Those Who Can Change Things. You may object that such qualities produce a Carrie Nation. They do, but they also make a Joan of Arc, a Harriet Beecher Stowe. . . .
>
> Her recently awakened realization of equality, the new broom that her conscience is, revolts at a policy that establishes a municipal clinic for women prostitutes, yet by a curious, cowardly subterfuge, overlooks the male's share in infection; as though the plague created and disseminated in common could have but one source! And in addition to all this, she is learning that when she is ready at last to attack the vested, organized, recognized institution of prostitution, the first result of her activities will mean greater misery and perhaps speedier death for the woman who is already at the lowest point of the social scale. . . .
>
> But over against this set this fact: There are seven hundred women in San Francisco whose one aim in civic life is to found a State Training School for girls gone wrong

who would go right. This association has a representative in Sacramento whose sole business it is to further a bill for the establishment of a helping station for girls on the way to usefulness and moral health, modeled upon similar establishments in other states. Here is work, backed by thirty thousand club women of the state, proceeding definitely, practically to a solution of one of the most appalling obstacles to the crusade against vice.

This work of restoring the prostitute to decency and happiness is the side of woman's work in the field of vice least developed; it is, however, a side which is most essential. Says Miss Michelson:

> But the time has not yet come when woman will face her individual share of atonement for a social sin in which she has acquiesced. Ultimately, with universal suffrage, the wheel of time must place at the door of the protected women responsibility for the prostitute. As yet she can not see herself, in her own home, taking up the broken lives, diseased bodies, debased minds and deadened souls—the by-product of that which men tell her has always been and always must be.

* * *

THE following passages are from Cardinal O'Connell's pastoral letter on the labor problem:

The Problem

The social problem of the relations between employers and employed seems to be the one most fraught with danger to our peaceful living.

The Workman's Rights

The right of a man to provide for his family is a natural one. The living wage which he has a right to demand is the one which will maintain his family in decent and frugal comfort.

He may combine with others to enforce this right and form a union with his fellow-workers to exert the adequate moral power to maintain it or better his condition within the limit of justice.

The worker in the last resort has the right to refuse to work, that is, to strike, and to induce by peaceful and lawful measures others to strike with him.

Principles Governing Employers

Capital has a right to a just share of the profits, but only to a just share. Employers should treat those who work under them with humanity and justice; they should be solicitous for the healthful conditions of the place where workmen daily toil; they should use all reasonable means to promote the material and moral well-being of their employes.

Warning for Rich

Men with money should be careful to regard it as a means to do good rather than an end. There is no double moral standard, no loophole of escape from the sanctions which the moral law of Christ imposes. Men of wealth should not buy that which is not sellable according to Christian ethics.

Warning for Workmen

Workers are just as much bound by the Christian law as their employers. There is a disposition to regard work as an intolerable burden to be gotten rid of as quickly as possible and with as little effort as possible. This is contrary to Christian teaching.

This natural discontent is fomented and intensified by the noisy agitators of Socialism, the enemies of God and man, who would overturn the foundations upon which human society is built, and exile God from His universe.

This singular set of men who seek to conceal the malice of their real principles, but who cannot, are a brood of disturbers. Their doctrines are an abomination striking at the foundations of family life and religion. There is not, and cannot be, a Catholic Socialist. Certain misguided Christians may call themselves Socialists, but, objectively, a Catholic Socialist is an utter impossibility.

Another source of unrest among working people, and one against which they should be warned, is the desire to give themselves over too much to the pleasures of life.

* * *

SOME of the tricks of the trade are described in the personal experiences of a saleswoman who writes in a recent number of the *Outlook* on the wastes of retailing. A serious element of waste arises she maintains from downright dishonesty practised in unnamed establishments:

> The management cheats the public through the employes, and logically the employes turn about and cheat the management, and in either event the public pays the bills. . . . A cheese is cut into pieces weighing about a pound each, and all are sold within an hour under four different names and at four different prices. Canned peas which cost ninety cents a dozen are sold at nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fifteen cents a can—all the same grade. The jobber was willing to put different labels on the same goods because he had an order for two carloads.
>
> "Don't want that pie; want your money back?" said Willie. "How much was it? Seven cents? I thought so. What do you expect? The higher-priced ones were beside it. If you want good stuff, why don't you pay for it?"
>
> Later I asked Willie what the difference was between the seven and the twelve-cent prune pie, and he told me that the stones were taken out of the twelve and put into the seven-cent lot. I counted the stones or pits in the pie that the angry woman returned. There were forty-three.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE WEST VIRGINIA COAL STRIKE

To the Editor:

I read with much interest the article by Mr. West in the April 5 number of The Survey and and I must raise by voice in protest against taking Mr. West too seriously. I have lived with the miners of West Virginia for the past four years and have made a pretty thorough study of the entire situation.

It is perhaps hardly to be expected that a newspaper reporter visiting the field during the struggle would get an unbiased view of the situation.

No one who is conversant with the situation would deny that there are two sides to the fight and that both have made their mistakes. The question of union or non-union has little to do with it. The worst living and working conditions are to be found in some of the union settlements along the Kanawha river; perhaps there are some equally bad ones in non-union fields. The best working and living conditions of West Virginia are found in non-union fields. Yet, I do not wish to be understood as arguing against unions, as I do not believe that the union question has much bearing on the real conditions.

It is simply the character of the operators and the men themselves that determines the conditions of any mining settlement. There is much misunderstanding and mis-information among the men themselves.

Mr. West mentions the company stores as being a source of contention. Now, it is true that in some of the stores some articles are priced too high, but, on the other hand, men are often misinformed as to prices in other places. To illustrate, in the early days of the strike a miner on Cabin Creek told me he was paying $1.20 per bushel for potatoes at the company store that could be bought in Charleston for $.60. The next day I was in Charleston and meeting a farmer on the street, selling his own product, I learned that the price was $.30 per peck. My miner friend therefore had jumped at a conclusion that the facts would not justify, and yet that same man could, by this mis-information, stir up much dissatisfaction.

When I lived in Charleston, I used frequently to buy meat at the company store and take it home, a distance of thirty miles, because I could buy it from three to five cents per pound cheaper than in Charleston. On the other hand, I saw in two different stores in another district, bedsteads marked $7. the exact counterpart of which I have bought myself in Charleston for $4.50. Such a profit as this certainly is not justifiable. Taken all in all, the prices on necessities do not vary to any great extent between the company and the independent stores when one considers the additional cost of transportation.

Nothing is more dangerous than truth and error mixed. Mr. West says the operators have a larger number of men than they can make use of at each operation and that the reason of this is that they may have their houses filled. The real fact is that nearly every operation must have from 20 to 30 per cent more men than are needed in order to run the mine to the full capacity, as about that proportion will lay off work each day. I have tried to find the reason for this and have been told repeatedly by the miners themselves that since they could earn enough money in four or five days to support themselves for a week they could see no reason why they should work every day.

The "guard system" is certainly not an ideal one. Neither are all of the men serving as guards ideal citizens. They certainly have been guilty of many of the abuses which might be expected from so much authority with so little responsibility to the state. But there must be some method of policing the mining districts. Thus far the state and county have failed to provide police facilities, and an "absentee" police system would make crime easy to commit in such a country. Thus far, there has been no improvement suggested by those who are leading this insurrection.

In regard to the housing, if Mr. West or any one else could build one of the four room cottages at a labor expense of $40., or even twice that, he would be in great demand as a contractor for house building. Moreover, any operator would be glad to get his houses built at a net expense of twice the figures given by Mr. West. One needs only to visit the houses vacated by miners to convince himself that the 10 per cent income on the actual investment will hardly pay for repairs. The average miner is not at all careful as to where he collects his kindling wood. I have seen many houses with from one to four doors and perhaps a quarter of the ceiling missing, having been used for this domestic purpose.

One real difficulty with the miners is a lack of constructive leadership. When they are taught such anarchistic ideas as that voiced by Mr. Houston at the investigation of the commission, it is no wonder that such men, under the leadership of individuals, whose past history will hardly bear the light of day, band themselves together for desperate purposes. Mr. Houston stated that the miner should be paid every cent that the coal brings in the market, except what the railroad gets for transportation, and there are many mine workers who actually believe this.

My sympathy is with the miner whose work is dangerous and who should have every consideration consistent with good order and business conditions. There is no calling which requires so little investment on the part of the worker that brings such returns in money. Any miner in the Cabin Creek or Paint Creek field who is willing to work steadily can earn anywhere from $3 to $6 per day and many earn more than this clear. The real difficulty with these men is that they need education and training as to how to care for their money after it has been earned. It is true that there are many days when the mines cannot run owing to breakdowns or lack of sufficient cars in which to load the coal. This latter reason is especially frequent in some sections.

I have hardly touched the subject but I do

hope this matter will be thoroughly investigated and I personally believe no person is more anxious for a federal investigation than the operator himself, although Mr. West says the operators oppose such an investigation.

IRA D. SHAW.

[Industrial Department, the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association.]
Pittsburgh.

TO THE EDITOR:

I went to the strike district unprejudiced. My instructions were to tell the truth about the situation. I did so to the best of my abiliy. I believe I was fair. In my article in THE SURVEY I simply told what I saw in the mines. I believe such conditions as exist there are brutalizing in the extreme. I believe they are responsible for much of the lawlessness that exists throughout West Virginia.

In regard to the cost of the houses, I was told in the mines by a well informed man that the labor cost on a certain set of the cottages erected some years before had been $40 each. That is not at all unreasonable. Two carpenters at $2.50 a day each could build one of them in eight days. As I happen to be somewhat familiar with building operations I am confident that my figures are not out of the way, especially when you consider that the land on which the buildings stand cost little or nothing. The expense for lumber was only the cost of sawing the timber already at hand, plus the cost of window frames and doors, bricks for the chimneys, composition roofing and the little hardware required.

It is true that some of the things sold in the company stores are sold at prices no higher than those which prevail in Charleston. Some of the prices may even be lower. That is really not the point. It is the fact that men are compelled, by one means or another, to deal at the company stores. That has always been a grievance among miners. I reported the Frostburg strike in the George's Creek region of Maryland twenty years ago for the *Baltimore Sun*. While the conditions there were ideal as compared with those now existing in the Kanawha valley, the company store was one of the greatest grievances of the men.

I stand by what I have said about the crowding of the mines and the mine guard system. I know the miners are not all they should be, but they are not to be measured by the standards among men whose opportunities have been greater. Theirs is a skilled occupation and a dangerous one. Yet they have few if any of the advantages of the men of other skilled occupations and live under conditions that are oppressive and brutalizing. The stock argument that they can earn anywhere from $3 to $6 a day if they work steadily is idle. No set of men who could earn from $18 to $36 a week would live under such conditions as prevail in the mines. Mr. Shaw says there is no calling which requires so little investment on the part of the worker that has such returns in money. That is a very broad statement. Investment in what, in tools or in time spent in learning the trade? How about the bricklayer, the Belgian block paver, the stone-mason, the plasterer or any one of a dozen trades that might be mentioned?

As for the desire of the operators for an investigation. I stated that the operators opposed such an investigation. Mr. Shaw has his *belief* that the operators would welcome one. I have the statement of the representative of the operators that they would oppose any investigation, state or federal, because of "its unsettling effect on the men." And the letter of the operators opposing an investigation on the part of the state, proposed by the then Governor Classcock, and refusing to become a party to it, is on file among the records in the capitol of West Virginia.

My statements were conservative and most of them even at this late date are susceptible of proof by any commission of investigation. Finally it is up to the SURVEY readers whether they take the article seriously or not. If the criticisms of Mr. Shaw are the most serious that can be brought against my article, I do not fear that my reputation for accuracy will be greatly damaged.

HAROLD E. WEST.

[Staff of the *Baltimore Sun*.]
Baltimore.

THE SHOPPERS' PUZZLE

TO THE EDITOR:

The excuses of the St. Louis firms quoted by the Consumers' League of that city are all too familiar to those who have been interested in the Saturday half-holiday elsewhere. There is always one department at least under the roof of every reluctant merchant which positively cannot be closed on Saturday afternoon and evenings for the two summer months, either because of the heavy trade on that day, or because competitors among the single-line stores keep open. Then there is the alleged hardship to working people in that their only shopping time would be taken away.

The one thing which is not heard from such employers in discussing the question is that Saturday is the day when clerks most need a respite, especially in cities where it is not only the weariest day, but the longest.

Has it occurred to the St. Louis League that the day of heaviest trade bears some relation to advertising? Their reactionary firm probably makes an advertising feature of Saturday bargain sales. This firm ought to realize that in cities where the Saturday half-holiday is most general and successful the Saturday trade has not been lost but has been readjusted by a shift of bargain-sales to other days.

The argument based on the working-men's need has a semblance of truth and might have more if the early closing were for more than the eight or nine Saturdays of July and August. Most working-men can arrange to do necessary shopping at some other time for those few weeks. Many of them in trades which have the eight hour day have the hour from five to six, in addition to the noon-hour daily—and in

the case of family-buying there is the wife who is the natural shopper. When the matter came up in Syracuse labor leaders assured the Consumers' League that the argument had no real basis.

Let us hope that the Consumers' League of St. Louis may be able to convince its reactionary firm that the approval and consequent patronage of the public the year round is worth as much as its trade in men's furnishings on Saturday afternoons of July and August.

EMILY LOVETT EATON.

[President Consumers' League of Syracuse.]

Syracuse, N. Y.

TO THE EDITOR:

It has always been a puzzle to me why the weekly half holiday, so strongly advocated for store and factory workers, should be Saturday rather than a mid-week afternoon and why all the stores in any city should close on the same afternoon.

Half the number closed on Wednesday, the others closed on Thursday afternoons would necessitate a change in pay day, possibly in positions where members of the same family work in different stores. Open stores on Saturday afternoon ought to be a help to the class of people who never have anything ahead, to keep the Sunday ordinances.

S. P. QUIGLEY.

Ovid Center, N. Y.

TO THE EDITOR:

THE SURVEY of March 29 printed a letter from me telling of a problem with regard to Saturday afternoon summer closing. A St. Louis department store (one of a chain of stores established in various cities under one firm) kept open all last summer on Saturday afternoons. The president of the corporation told representatives of the Consumers' League that the stockholders would never consent to Saturday closing because a great bulk of business was done in the men's furnishing department at this time, the only time men have for shopping.

A few weeks ago the Consumers' League laid their problem before the Central Council of Social Agencies. The trades unions sent the firm word of their objection to the custom of remaining open Saturday afternoons during the summer months. The Retailers' Association added their protest.

A committee from the Central Council called on the corporation president. He gave this committee the same negative answer that the Consumers' League Committee had received. But the dismissal was not final. Soon he sent for the Central Council Committee to return. He gave them the news that the store would close Saturday afternoons during the summer months, as is the custom of all other large St. Louis department stores. He said that the firm had always done all in its power for its employes and, as it was agreed that keeping open Saturday afternoons was not consistent with the best welfare of the employes, the store would close at that time. Of course the contention that closing Saturday afternoons would deprive men of their shopping time and would only increase night shopping remains unanswered.

At any rate, the fear that other department stores might follow the example set by this particular one is banished.

ALTHEA SOMERVILLE GROSSMAN.

St. Louis.

SEX HYGIENE LECTURES

TO THE EDITOR:

In the health section of your issue for April 19, the writer saw your article on Courses on Sex Hygiene. Considering the fact that these lectures were given expressly for social workers, it was surprising to learn that only the first few were well attended. If there is any subject demanding the attention of social workers, it surely is this most important one.

About eighteen months ago a young woman, a member of the Factory Committee of the Wolf Company's plant, incidentally mentioned the interest taken in a series of lectures on this subject given to members of a girls' club in one of the main social houses on the East Side. The question of giving these lectures was immediately taken up with the management, with the result that four series of four lectures each were given to about 175 employes. This was the first time that many of these workers had the opportunity of learning, in a dignified and instructive manner, the interesting story of reproduction.

The lectures were given by Nellie M. Smith whose book containing these talks, The Three Gifts of Life[1] has recently been published, and many of those who attended the lectures purchased copies of this volume with the intention of giving them to their mothers or younger sisters to read.

These same lecturers are now being given by a large industrial corporation in this city which is always ready to investigate thoroughly, any work that makes for the betterment of the life of its workers. Furthermore, the question of giving these lectures to six other manufacturing establishments is now being seriously considered.

It might be well to mention that these lectures were merely announced to the workers and in no case was attendance compulsory. They were given without charge during regular working hours.

Our workers have surely benefited by the knowledge gained through this course and the writer trusts that many other manufacturing concerns will give this matter serious thought. It is an established fact that the worker cannot get full production from any power machine unless the human machinery is properly cared for, and but few persons thoroughly understand how to best care for themselves.

W. IRVING WOLF.

New York City.

[1]The Three Gifts of Life. By Nellie M. Smith. Dodd, Mead & Co. 138 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.56.

SEGREGATING VICE

To the Editor:

It is not a little curious that in all the agitation on the vice question no one has suggested what has always seemed to me the evident solution of the whole matter. Without a second thought, if there were no men there would be no prostitutes; the men are the sole and only source of the whole evil. I am aware that segregation has its drawbacks. It does stimulate clandestine prostitution. It has the fault of legalizing a shameful business. Also under our present conditions it supplies an opportunity for graft. But overruling all these disadvantages is the fact that it facilitates the catching of the men. This is impossible in hotels and apartment houses, but if men found frequenting the segregated district were seized and submitted to compulsory examination, it would only be the blatant sinners who would ever run the risk, and the number of such customers would be greatly reduced.

This suggestion may appear Utopian, for do not the originators of prostitution themselves make the laws? However, there now seems some chance of the public conscience, male and female, being widely aroused and it is possible that the originators of the whole evil may not escape the dragnet.

H. Martyn Hart.

Denver.

SEX HYGIENE AND YOUNG PEOPLE

To the Editor:

The present excessive demand for prostitution which comes largely from young boys is, I believe, caused by the nature of our present social organism which abnormally emphasizes the sex relation and puts it before every other influence a boy meets. Women's dress, current literature, musical comedies and problem plays, "smutty" stories told by boys among themselves, even our advertisements—all combine to throw a fascinating glamor around sex indulgence and develop an abnormal instinct in our boys, which takes command of their nervous system and insists that sex indulgence is necessary.

The average boy of eighteen cannot think of marriage for economic reasons, but his nature craves action, and under these ever-present influences he comes to believe that the perfect "good time" is sex indulgence—and he will exercise all his ingenuity, when with a girl, to attain his goal. No one, who is not in the confidences of young people, has the least idea of the pressure thus brought to bear on girls. The girl finds it necessary in order to hold a boy's attention, with the amusements and companionship that goes with it, to do as he wants; many girls fall through their perfectly natural desire for healthful recreation which they can get more plentifully by giving in—or through a sentimental desire to retain the favor of boys who are satisfied with nothing short of intercourse.

The ultimate remedy must be to put against this "prevailing spirit of the times" a powerful combatting influence, which will establish in our boys a high ideal of womanhood and marriage.

E. C. S.

Swissvale, Pa.

FREE ACRES COLONY

To the Editor:

Many persons interested in social betterment work, have written to me enquiring about the Free Acres Colony at Berkeley Heights, N. J.

If you can get along without gas and a janitor and plumbing and a land lord and other modern improvements, you can build your own one room tent-shaped bungalow for $40 there, and make your own clothes and be as respected as you are respectable. Later, you may make it your residence. Any handy man or woman might make a living chopping wood, or gardening, and so forth, and no one there will either give you anything or try to take anything away from you; for in this co-operative land-ownership there is no speculative element.

On a co-operative basis, Free Acres affords an opportunity to own a rural home without having to buy land. But it is as secure as buying, for the lease is a perpetual lease and can be transferred. At present it is pioneering; there are no established industries there as yet, but opportunity is open to anyone to establish them. You can lose yourself in the woods which surround the farm, although it's only twenty-seven miles from the City Hall in New York.

Bolton Hall.

New York City.

THE BALKAN WAR AND ARMENIA

To the Editor:

In 1908 when, after a revolution, Turkey proclaimed a constitutional government someone had to pay the penalty for the disturbance. As usual the Armenians paid it with the massacre of 25,000 Christians at Adana. Now that the Turk is being driven out of Europe upon whom is his wrath going to fall?

Greeks, Bulgarians, Servians and Roumanians all have served their time under the Turkish rule of massacre and oppression but they were fortunate. Geographical conditions helped them to free themselves. The Armenians revolted, too, although isolated from Christian neighbors and surrounded by ten Turks and Kurds to one Armenian.

The Armenian is the tiller of the land in Asia Minor. During the old regime because of the systematic oppression, some of the Armenians had to emmigrate to earn a living. Others could not work their lands for the government had sold their oxen for taxes. The lands of these unfortunates, were grabbed by force by the Turks. For four years during the constitutional government this question was before the Turkish Parliament and was never settled. The Ottoman government can never realize that the poverty of the public means the poverty of the government.

Asiatic Turkey is blessed by fine agricultural land, yet Turkey instead of exporting wheat has to import flour. During the war while I was in Constantinople half of that city was without bread for a day and a half on one occasion. The soldiers brought over from Asia Minor were

without food and they were plundering the bake-shops in the city.

In 1908 when Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, the young Turks invited all the Moslem population of these regions to migrate to Turkey and promised them money and lands. Thousands responded but they were disappointed and were saddled on the Christian population of Macedonia. This started a natural hatred towards the Moslems, and when the war started these immigrants wisely flew towards Asia Minor, the promised land. The government is shipping them to Asia Minor and Armenia at the rate of 1,500 a day. What will become of the Armenians on whom is already saddled twice more than they can endure by the Asiatic horde of Turks and Kurds?

The war was renewed because Turkey did not wish to have a few Mosques in Adrianople under the Christian rule. Yet the Turk did not think anything about the ancient churches in Asia Minor that were defiled and ruined by the Moslem hordes, nor of the bodies of the clergy which were mutilated in time of peace.

What kind of government can one expect from a race that has no such thing as home and family in the civilized sense of domestic conduct, laws, sincerity and happiness? And what kind of laws and ruling can be expected for the infidel and subject race to the above government? Yet Europe will content itself believing that the Turk will be good hereafter and will enforce the traditionary promised reforms in Armenia.

Y. M. KAREKIN.

New York City.

THE SEATTLE CONFERENCE

TO THE EDITOR:

THE SURVEY of April 12 announced the appointment of the new committees of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, stating that pursuant to the recent amendment to the by-laws Frank Tucker, the president of the conference had requested the committees to begin their work immediately. It was pointed out in your article that the Committee on Organization has been in many respects the keystone of the national confrence and that its duties have been difficult and arduous.

Under the revised by-laws the duties of this committee are simplified. It is no longer obliged to make its report within a few days of its appointment. There are, however, certain disadvantages in the new plan from the point of view of members of the conference who desire to have a voice in its organization. Under the old plan, in spite of the fact that the committee was thrown into the turmoil of conference politics, the active members of the conference were all there and had an opportunity to be heard by the Committee on Organization. Under the new plan the committee is expected to have its work practically done by the time the conference meets. Unless the committee adopts a procedure which is democratic it may properly be open to the charge of making conference politics worse instead of better.

As chairman of the committee, therefore, I desire to announce through the columns of THE SURVEY that it is the desire of Mr. Tucker and myself, in which I am sure the members of the committee concur, that all interested members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction will have ample opportunity to express their views in reference to matters with which the Committee on Organization is concerned. There will be a number of open meetings both before and after reaching Seattle at which all those interested in the conference will be welcome.

It is my desire that this committee shall truly represent the wishes of the conference with reference to all matters of organization. Inasmuch as the president is anxious that this committee shall have a tentative report ready soon after the conference opens in Seattle I wish to urge all readers of THE SURVEY who are interested in the national conference to submit their suggestions as early as possible. We especially want your suggestions regarding the following:

1. Topics for discussion.
2. The names of the committees.
3. The membership of the committees, the committee chairmen and vice-chairmen.

The following dates have been set for open meeting: Friday, May 16; Tuesday, May 27; Friday, June 13.

These meetings will be held at 4 P. M., in Room 214, United Charities Building, 105 East 22nd Street, New York city. Kindly put the dates on your calendar. If you cannot come send your suggestions to the undersigned at the above address.

JOHN A. KINGSBURY.

[Chairman Committee on Organization, National Conference of Charities and Correction.]

New York City.

ANOTHER CASE OF RED TAPE

TO THE EDITOR:

During the year 1912, the Domestic Relations Court of Brooklyn, established in 1910, disbursed through the Department of Charities, which maintains a branch office in the court building, $101,660.45. That amount was made up of small payments ranging from $1 to $10, which the delinquent husband and father was ordered by the court to pay toward the support of his wife and children.

The method of disbursing the money is crude and archaic. The women are paid in cash at the cashier's office in the court, thus necessitating the expenditure of time and carfare. The office of the cashier in the Brooklyn court is open from 9 A. M. until 3 P. M., except Saturday and Monday. Saturday the office closes at noon. On Monday only is there an evening session from 7 P. M. to 10 P. M. In Manhattan conditions are worse, for there banking hours are closely observed, and there is no evening session, though many of the women work during the day. Collection of the week's money thus involved the loss of a half day's work.

Mrs. A made nine trips to collect a total of $8, and from that must be deducted at least ninety cents for carfare, loss of time not being

considered. Mrs. B is very old. Mrs. C is an invalid, Mrs. D has a very young child and four older children to look after. Mrs. E lives a long distance from the court. Her carfare is always twenty cents and frequently it is necessary for her to take the two youngest children with her. Mrs. F works during the day and goes to school at night. These are only a few of the many reasons why the present plan of payment should be abandoned.

Philadelphia disburses about $200,000 a year on cases of this kind. The money is paid by checks sent by mail. We are informed that no case of fraud has occurred. Chicago has a similar system that works equally well.

It was not to be expected that the originators of the Domestic Relations Court idea would construct a perfect machine, and efforts are being made to correct this defect by an order to the effect that any woman who can prove to the satisfaction of the Department of Charities that it is a great hardship for her to go to the court, can have her money sent by mail. Unfortunately, there is a lot of red tape in some of our city departments and often it is very hard to prove things to their satisfaction; so it is to be hoped that this order, which is a step in the right direction, will soon be stretched into a big, manly stride, long enough to cover all cases.

CLYDE N. WHITE.
[Brooklyn Bureau of Charities.]
Brooklyn, N. Y.

HOMES FOR WORKING GIRLS

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of April 19 the splendid article on The Housing Problem As It Affects Girls, by the president of the Chelsea House, has greatly interested me. May I add a few words on the subject and the names of other cities where such houses are already started or are under consideration?

There is a splendid though small Girls Friendly Lodge in Washington, D. C. In Cincinnati the Anna Louise Home accommodates about 150 girls, and Bishop Frances of Indiana has converted his spacious school Knickerbocker Hall in Indianapolis into a boarding home for young girls. This, I suppose, is the most complete and pretentious house of its kind. It has a gymnasium, swimming pool, almost entirely single rooms, and will accommodate nearly one hundred girls. In Louisville besides the Girls Friendly Inn, there is the Business Woman's Club which meets the needs of a better paid class of young women, and the Monfort Home which like the Inn meets the needs of a girl earning a more moderate wage.

I have had letters from all parts of the country asking questions relative to starting such homes, and know that the subject is under consideration in Denver; Watertown, N. Y.; Lexington, Ky.; Minneapolis; Memphis; and Mobile.

The cherished hope I believe of all such houses should be to make them self supporting. No self respecting girl wishes to be even a partial object of charity. From the starting of the Girls Friendly Inn we have aimed to make the house self supporting, and with the exception of the interest on the mortgage, the house mother's salary and coal, the weekly income meets all the expenditures. As soon as we can enlarge the house it will be entirely self supporting. I find this a great help, in securing the co-operation of the girls and in preventing waste in light, water and so on. The dominating thought is to make the inn a normal home and with this in view there are almost no rules. No one but those close to the young working girl knows what it means to her to be able to entertain her "gentlemen friends" in a quiet and home-like living room or to be able to give a party or entertain her Sunday School class in an attractive room.

The problem of sickness is an important one. Girls must often struggle along half sick because they can not afford a doctor or medicine or because they are afraid of losing their position. The inn has an endowed bed in the Norton Infirmary, and the services of some of our best physicians, also a discount of 25 per cent on all drugs and prescriptions. I find a word from the house mother is always received kindly by the employer and in my experience of eighteen months I have never had a girl lose her work on account of sickness.

JOSEPHINE M. KERMM.
[Housemother Girls' Friendly Inn.]
Louisville.

SOCIAL ETHICS

TO THE EDITOR:

The following is a remarkable illustration of the advance in our conception of social obligations to unfortunates:

> The president (of the Chicago Medical Society, December 13, 1867) "appointed a committee to consider the wisdom of the members of the society signing a petition requesting that the physician who was then imprisoned (Dr. Mudd) for caring for the wounds of Lincoln's assassin should be released. The members of the society were of various opinions in regard to the ethical position of the unfortunate doctor."[1]

JULIA I. FELSENTHAL.
Chicago.

THE BACK FENCE

TO THE EDITOR:

One of the greatest disfigurements to the landscape as one looks out the back window of the average house is the row after row of unsightly wooden fences which rigorously mark off each twenty-five or thirty feet of land and constitute a barrier of exclusiveness very chilling in its effect on one's friendly disposition. Of course one does not want his neighbor's children to tramp unceremoniously over his little flower or vegetable garden, but could not the same results be brought about by a simple wire division covered with virginia creeper, grapes or clematis? Think of the beauty of such an outlook, and the aesthetic humanizing effect such a display of

[1] Chicago Medical Recorder, April, 1913, p. 238.

floral wealth would have on the minds of young and old! It might possibly result also in breaking down some of that proverbial coldness and hauteur which is said to characterize city neighbors. Life is short at best and sufficiently lacking in familiarity and cordiality to warrant some attempt to reform the wooden back fence out of existence.

J. J. Kelso.

Toronto.

THE OTHER OTHER HALF

To the Editor:

"We want to know 'how the other half lives.'" This was said fifteen years ago, and we are saying it today. But it is the *other* half that we now have in mind. Library shelves are filled with books about the one half. Sociologists have studied it; health officers have examined it; sanitary boards have considered it; laws have been made to regulate it. Juvenile courts, protective leagues, visiting nurses' associations, social settlements, charity organization societies, have been bringing us day by day information as to how *that* half lives. Now we want to know how the *other* half lives.

Recently there has been a great investigation of one special phase of the life of the poor. Great business firms have been asked how certain sums of their earnings were distributed as wages to the poor, and the wage-earners have been asked what use they made of these wages. How much do working girls receive and how much does a working girl need to live decently? These are the questions that have been asked. "We want to know more of the life of the working people," has been the cry.

But wait. Now we want to know how the *other* half lives: Society is a whole, not a half. These great questions are questions of society, and they can not be answered by investigating *half* of society.

Yes, we want to know about the $2,000,000 that was paid in wages; to whom it went, and how it was spent, but we also want to know about the $7,000,000 that was paid in dividends. To whom did *it* go, and how was *it* spent? How much did the dividend receivers need a week on which to live? Were they judicious in their expenditures? These questions also ought to be investigated by a commission.

What do we know about the occupations, the health, the morality, the family life of the very rich?

If we are suspicious that the home life of the children of Mrs. Zambrowski of Mulberry street is not all that could be desired, we send a juvenile court officer to investigate. If there is evidence that the father is not honestly employed, if there is disease in the household, some officer is on hand to see what is the matter. What do we know of the home life of the Van Astor children? Is Mr. Van Astor an industrious bread earner? Are the home conditions of the Van Astor children morally healthful?

We want to know more about these excursions to Europe. Are they always cultural? We want to know more about the life of Mrs. Astorbilt in her Paris home. We want to know more about the employment conditions of the "Four Hundred." Perhaps a law should be made in the interests of health limiting the number of continuous hours spent in certain social activities. We want to know more about the lives of boys and girls in wealthy boarding-schools. We desire to find out just how a working girl spends $8 a week, but we also wish to learn just how the dividend receiver spends $800 a week. The poor need visiting housekeepers to instruct them, but may not the wealthy need visiting homekeepers?

The unexplored continent of sociology is the life of the wealthy. It is to the interest of the health and well-being of society that a careful and dispassionate study be made of this subject.

Clarence D. Blachly.

Chicago.

A CALL FOR LEADERSHIP

To the Editor:

There is a widespread opinion among social and industrial workers that the unequal conditions existing in human society are going to be levelled: that equality of opportunity and the more equitable distribution of the necessities of life are to be accomplished by a system of "passing it on." In this way, the social burden, instead of resting where it does now, on the lowest stratum of the population, will be placed on broad shoulders better able to bear the load.

Do not such solutions as employers' liability, workmen's compensation, the minimum wage, reduced hours of employment and better occupational conditions all mean an increase in the cost of producing the necessaries of life? Do they not tend to make more grave one of the vital problems of the hour?

There seems to be a feeling abroad, of which many are possessed, that there is somewhere a great fund of capital on hand, which only needs equitable distribution to allow all now engaged in industry to live in comfort, with only a moderate amount of exertion.

This is the result, probably, of seeing large rows of figures, stated as the wealth controlled by financial institutions, or in the possession of individuals. Most of these figures refer to pieces of paper, either evidences of debt, or titles to ownership of lands, factories or other tools of trade. Not one of these is available for furnishing the necessities of life, *without human labor* applied at the right time and place under competent direction.

There is produced, by direction, foresight and toil, in any given year, hardly more of any stated necessity of life than the current needs of the people. It is probably true also that it is the thrift of the few; the foresight of the so-called capitalist; the enterprise of the manufacturer, builder or railroad man, the wise ventures of the merchant and trader; that keep up the present standard of wages and living—low though it may be in comparison with our wishes or ideals.

A large number of those engaged in business enterprises fail to succeed at all. The profit of the more successful, though often imposing, averages a very small percentage counting both good and bad years. It is easily turned into a loss, by dull times, trade changes, or careless management.

To quote Ray Stannard Baker (not writing in behalf of the mill owner) in his article on the Lawrence strike: "If one were to divide all the surplus of profit in the textile mills today—figure it out for yourself! It would increase their wages and improve their living conditions almost inappreciably."[1]

So it is evident that if employment is to continue and a larger share is to be given to those who perform the manual labor, while at the same time the conditions under which they work are to be improved, some means must be devised whereby the present margin of profit can be increased. Otherwise those who plan and carry on these industrial undertakings will be discouraged.

Of course many believe that capital, or business enterprise, has had too much attention already. Now that the capitalist "class" (mostly made up of men formerly poor) has shown the way to the accumulation of wealth, they think it is simply necessary for "society" or "the workers" to do the same thing themselves, and pocket the results. But how this is to be done has not yet been shown.

How can the employer treat his working force more generously, without the fear of insolvency staring him in the face, when the books are balanced for the year?

One of the most hopeful solutions was promised in the new "efficiency" discoveries. These seemed to indicate that a larger output by the worker could bring about a greater reward for himself, together with a corresponding increased profit for the employer.

But, so far, the attitude of "labor" seems to be opposed to anything like an increase either of efficiency or production. Reduction of hours and minimum of output, seem to be favored. The false idea is that more "work" is thereby created, although the amount of the absolute necessaries of life which their labor produces is thereby curtailed. Their idea is that they do not get their share of the "wealth" they already produce; that a constantly increasing mass of it is kept out of their reach. They wish to seize part of it, not by earning, but by taking it from the present recipients.

So we are brought back to the original issue. How can it be brought to pass that the director of enterprise on capitalist, whose brains are the creating power of the world's wealth, shall be filled with an altruistic spirit that he may share and increase all benefits and comforts with his manual helpers? And how, on the other hand, can we inspire the worker, under his direction, with loyal energy to do all in *his* power to support and carry on the wealth-producing enterprise, each emulating each with noble example and worthy sacrifice?

Here should come in the twin forces of education and religion. Enlightenment will be of no avail without a moral basis. The fundamentals of the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule must have a place in our great educational system which should teach men that there is a higher element in life than the facts of science and material things.

This new social adjustment, if it is to come peaceably and not through anarchy, must find new and able leadership which does not resort to loud protestations of devotion to one class combined with denunciation of another, or to vague cries of "social justice," or to illusory schemes for levelling inequalities that are imbedded in human nature itself. What is needed is a leadership founded in a love for mankind, wide as the race, broad-minded, hopeful, strong and sane, to help the new generation forward in progress that shall also be peace.

New York. JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

[1]The Revolutionars Strike. *American Magazine*, May, 1912.

MOTHERHOOD AND TEACHING

TO THE EDITOR:

"Motherhood and teaching"[1] was an issue in Minneapolis not long ago, and the school board decided against the employment of married women. The board was influenced according to report, by the fact that there were poor teachers who married and this was a comfortable way to dispose of them, regardless of the injustice to the good ones. I understand that in Kansas there is a state law prohibiting the employment of married women. Were this policy applied to men teachers it would be ridiculed. Marriage is a strong factor in developing permanence of interest in the vocation and in blending vocational interest with community interest.

The ability to teach is dependent upon qualities which are mental and temperamental. The hours and the character of the work of a teacher are such as are peculiarly adapted to the woman who may marry and who may have children; and her fuller experience in life should make possible a fuller understanding of the needs of childhood.

It is generally recognized that our schools have deterioriated. Would not a very simple remedy be the employment of mothers as well as fathers? Would not they understand better than others what the children need?

When education was in the home it was proper that mothers should be teachers. With the socialization of education as of industry, a celibate class has arisen to take the place of mothers. Mothers have become the parasites of society, while constructive work in social service has devolved upon a celibate class. We have reached the stage now when society needs every possible constructive factor and the latent possibilities for social work in the married woman should be encouraged rather than discarded.

GRACE PUTNAM POLLARD.
[President Liberal Union of Minnesota.]
Minneapolis.

[1]See THE SURVEY, April 19, page 101.

JOTTINGS

HOSPITAL SHIP FOR SEAMEN

Representative Gardner of Massachusetts has re-introduced his bill for the creation of a hospital ship for the Gloucester fishermen. This bill reached only the hearing stage in the House of Representatives during the last session. All the witnesses who appeared before the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries spoke for it.

INVOLUNTARY SERVITUDE BILL

President Wilson has assured Andrew Furuseth, president of the International Seamen's Union, that the so-called involuntary servitude bill will be enacted at the present session of Congress. No hearings will probably be had, as Congress already has information on the subject from various angles. This bill passed the House of Representatives at the last session, but was so much altered by the Senate that the President vetoed it. This measure is one of the list of fifteen measures of social legislation the support of which was urged upon President Wilson by a number of social workers.

SAFETY CAMPAIGN AMONG CHILDREN

A campaign has been inaugurated by the American Museum of Safety in co-operation with the New York Board of Education to inculcate habits of caution in school children. The basis of the campaign is daily class room talks on safety by lecturers from the Museum of Safety and the distribution of pamphlets containing "safety fairy tales." A safety league has been organized among the children, membership in which is indicated by the wearing of a button. While the object of the league is mostly to insure street safety the children are taught what to do in case of fire. Some of the fundamental rules for the children are as follows:

NEVER fail to look both ways for automobiles, trucks and trolley cars before crossing a street. Keep eyes to the left until the middle of the street is reached, then eyes to the right until the curb is reached.

NEVER play any kind of a game in street where automobiles and heavy trucks are constantly passing or in streets where trolley cars are operating.

NEVER hitch on behind a trolley car, automobile or motor truck as you may lose your footing and be thrown under the wheels.

NEVER run pushmobile races in the streets. A pushmobile is hard to stop and may run in the way of an automobile, heavy truck or trolley car coming in the opposite direction.

NEVER step from behind a trolley car without hesitating and looking as another car may be coming from the other direction.

NEVER take chances.

CANAL WORKMEN UNPROTECTED

Because Congress failed to appropriate the necessary amount of funds, President Wilson by an executive order has suspended the operation of the workmen's compensation scheme for federal employes in the Canal Zone. This measure was put into effect on March 1 by President Taft. Pending action by Congress, the employes in the Canal Zone are protected only by the Federal Liability Act.

Many advocates of the workmen's compensation plan believe that President Wilson before suspending its operation should first have asked Congress for funds. They argue that in this way public attention could have been called to the situation by means of a special message instead of through the medium of an order which received practically no publicity.

The Canal Compensation Law is in the form of an executive order signed by President Taft in the closing days of his administration. It was drafted by officials of the government in co-operation with the Legislative Drafting Fund of New York. Secretary of War Stimson, said of it: "This measure for the first time brings the federal government abreast of the most advanced thought and experience at a time when they and their families are most in need of justice; namely, when they suffer the hardships of injury or death inevitable in the course of modern industrial undertakings."

VIENNESE CHARITIES

The lack of centralization and co-operation between charitable agencies in Vienna is responsible for much duplication of effort and much charitable imposture. The situation is not improved by the many entertainments given ostensibly to help the poor but in reality often costing more than they take in. A movement is said to be on foot to remedy this by the foundation of a charity organization society along English and American lines.

GOMPERS CIRCULAR TO IMMIGRANT WORKERS

Although it scarcely hopes to succeed at the present session of Congress, the American Federation of Labor has determined to start efforts for the passage of restrictive immigration legislation, to "start the ball rolling" so that at the next session the immigration problem will be thoroughly discussed. Meanwhile the federation has sent out to over half a million immigrant workers a circular signed by Samuel Gompers, president of the Federation and Frank Morrison the secretary, concerning the advantages of belonging to the union. The letter concludes with this sentence:

"In writing to your friends in your native country advise them to remain there until you, together with your fellow countrymen here, have organized unions that will protect yourself and them against low wages and long hours."

This circular printed in twenty-one languages has gone to laborers in the industrial districts of the East.

CORN CLUBS AND IDLE BOYS

A woman of keen observation writes of her hill town that what is needed there is not more amusements, games, socials, but something to encourage boys to become thorough and honest workmen; that the best workmen in the village are foreign born; that the native-born boys and girls are seekers after pleasure and ease, shunning work and giving scant heed to the serious interests of life.

This has a familiar ring to it; but that there are appeals to arouse and enlist the energy of country boys, witness the annual visit to Washington of the champion corn growers recently. Thirty-five boys, winners among 75,000 boys who raised corn on a single acre of land last summer, and one little girl, leader among the girls' canning clubs of the country. were the guests of the government for a week, and bore witness to the industry of the army of sturdy children who stayed at home. The best record of the boy visitors was 207 bushels of corn to the acre, or about eight times the average yield for the country. The girl had raised a succession of tomatoes, beans, and turnips on her tenth of an acre, sold some of it fresh and canned the rest, realizing $53.

MEDICAL INFORMATION BUREAU

A bureau of information has been opened at the New York Academy of Medicine, under the direction of the Society for the Advancement of Clinical Study in New York. The object of this bureau is to furnish visitors in New York and the local profession information on medical subjects, so as to make use of the large clinical opportunities which heretofore have not been readily obtainable.

EDUCATION OF THE IMMIGRANT

The North American Civic League for Immigrants is arranging a public conference on the Education of the Immigrant which is to be held at the City College, New York, on May 16-17. President Finley of the college is the chairman of the Committee on Arrangements and Clarence M. Abbott the secretary. On Friday morning, May 16, Domestic Education for Immigrants, the Immigrant in Labor Camps and Isolated Communities will be the subjects for discussion. In the afternoon of the same day the Education of the Immigrant Child will be the topic.

A large public meeting in the Great Hall of the college is scheduled for the evening of May 16, at which addresses upon various subjects connected with the education of the immigrant will be made by speakers of national importance.

The final meeting on Saturday morning is to be on the Education of the Immigrant Adult. District Superintendent Albert Shields will also lead a symposium for principals and teachers upon the organization of evening schools.

Those who are to serve as chairmen of the various meetings are Mrs. John M. Glenn, Frances A. Kellor, William H. Maxwell and John H. Finley.

DESERTION AND DIVORCE

During the six years ending June 30, 1912, willful desertion was the most common ground for divorce in California. Extreme cruelty was a close second. These facts are taken from a report submitted by State Labor Commissioner McLaughlin to Governor Johnson. The average percentage of divorces to marriages for these six years was 12.9. About 50 per cent of the couples divorced were childless.

The large centers of population showed a much higher divorce rate than did the state as a whole.

MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION ON VICE

Governor Foss of Massachusetts on April 21 signed the bill recently passed by the state legislature, providing for the appointment of a commission of five persons, one of whom will be a woman, for the investigation of commercialized vice in Massachusetts. Witnesses, papers and documents may be summoned, and oaths given. The bill creating this commission was the first measure reported out by the Committee on Social Welfare.

Massachusetts is believed to be the first state to institute a formal state-wide investigation by commission of prostitution in all its phases.

TWO WAYS TO TEACH SEX HYGIENE

Two methods of teaching sex hygiene, the biological and the physiological, and their adaptation to the needs of different groups, will be the subject of three conferences to be held by the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, at Hobart Hall, 416 Lafayette street, New York city on the evenings of May 12, 19 and 26 at 8:15 P. M.

Dr. Mary Sutton Macy will present the physiological and Nellie M. Smith the biological aspect. The third talk on the adaptability of these two methods to different social groups, will be given by Harriet McD. Daniels.

JAIL MEALS DECLARED FIT FOR DOGS

The establishment of four work farms for the prisoners now confined in the county jails of California is urged upon the legislature by the report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, just issued. These jails, it is suggested, could then be used for holding persons awaiting trial. As at present run they have correctly been called primary schools in crime, says the report. They are declared to be seriously overcrowded in winter, poorly ventilated and unclean. "The meals," says the report, "are served as one would feed his dog, and in some of them the quality is not much better." The prisoners herd together, it is asserted, with nothing to do but study and plot crime.

If each of the four farms were large enough to furnish food and labor for 500 prisoners, the report says, they would empty the jails. They would be self-supporting, as well as much better for the prisoners, declares the board.

BRUTALITY ALLEGED AT AUBURN

"Brutality, violation of the law, waste and general incompetency" have been found in the New York state prison at Auburn by a special investigator appointed by Governor Sulzer. The investigator, George W. Blake, urges that the warden, George F. Benham, be removed as quickly as possible. Equally serious are his accusations against the prison physician, Dr. John Gerin, whom he describes as an autocrat. "Abundance of evidence," says the report, "shows that he is brutal in his treatment of the sick, neglectful of their needs, and that he flagrantly violates that section of the prison law which defines his duties." Refractory prisoners, the report goes on to say, have only two gills of water every twenty-four hours. The doctor is said to have declared that this was sufficient to maintain life. The punishment cells are described as being perfectly dark and having four rows of iron rivet heads on the floor so that it is impossible to lie down.

When Joseph H. Scott, former superintendent of the state prison department, was recently removed under charges by Governor Sulzer, he asserted that his dismissal was in reality a piece of vengeance because he would not change the Auburn wardenship at the governor's dictation. So frequent have been the charges and counter-charges in the administration of New York prisons recently, and so often is it asserted that politics lies at their bottom that social workers are more and more becoming loathe to pass judgment on the basis of one-man investigations.

PROBATION IN NEW YORK STATE

An increase of 48 per cent in the number of delinquents placed on probation in New York state during the year ending September 30, 1912, is shown in the preliminary edition of the sixth annual report of the State Probation Commission recently transmitted to the legislature. Over 20,000 persons were under the oversight of probation officers during the year, and of this number 14,687 were new cases.

A review of the five years' growth of the system since the state commission began in 1907 is contained in the report. During this period the number of publicly salaried probation officers has risen from thirty-five to 159 at the beginning of the present year. The number of cities employing the system has grown from sixteen to thirty-eight; the number of counties using it in felony cases from eleven to thirty-nine; and the number of counties using it in town and village courts from two to twenty-two. In spite of the marked extension of the system, however, a map published in the report indicates that in thirteen of the sixty-one counties in the state not a single person was placed on probation during the past year. This is because the adoption of the system and the appointment of probation officers is optional with the local authorities.

The report makes special mention of the use of probation as a means of collecting family-support, restitution and instalment fines. While practically nothing was collected by probation officers for these purposes when the commission started its work five years ago, the aggregate amount paid for these purposes by probationers in compliance with court orders during the past year is estimated as in the neighborhood of $300,000. According to the report, the domestic relations courts of Buffalo, Manhattan and Brooklyn, the first courts of this character to be established, were largely an outgrowth of the probation system and depend to a great extent upon it for their efficiency.

The volume contains a number of carefully prepared tables and charts.

CHILDREN'S COURT FOR ONTARIO COUNTY

Governor Sulzer of New York on April 11 approved two bills to give the County Court of Ontario exclusive jurisdiction throughout the county over cases of neglected and delinquent children, and concurrent jurisdiction in certain offenses against children. The laws are almost identical with the Monroe County Children's Court Act of 1910, and make Ontario County the second in the state to have a county children's court using a civil instead of a criminal procedure. The bills were framed by the State Probation Commission at the request of County Judge Robert F. Thompson and of the Board of Supervisors. A civil service examination will be held in the near future for the purpose of securing a competent probation officer for the court.

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THE SURVEY

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Courtesy of the Pittsburgh Index

THE MARBLE WORKER

By GLYN W. PHILPOT

This painting won the medal of the first class (gold) at this year's International Art Exhibition at the Carnegie Institute in Pittsburgh.

THE PITH OF IT

OWING to exaggeration of the children's strike and the charges brought against Supt. S. S. Heeter, Pittsburgh school affairs are under a cloud but the outside world should understand that the cloud itself is stirred up, to some extent at least, by interests using it as a cloak for their operations. P. 237.

"HUNTING a job" in social work in New York should no longer be comparable to finding a needle in a haystack. The Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations has established a special department for social workers. P. 241.

THE General Education Board and the United States Department of Agriculture have joined hands to promote the better organization of rural life. P. 241.

CO-OPERATION in the raising of funds, in the standardizing of studies, in the standardizing of accounts and in the buying of supplies were emphasized at the recent conference on Rural Industrial Schools for Colored People in the South. P. 242.

CONTRACT labor in the prisons has proved to be a baffling problem to Missouri legislators who have found that it is most difficult to employ convicts to the satisfaction of all. P. 238.

IN its two years the sixty-second Congress under President Taft rounded out an unusual program of postal legislation. In the words of the *Union Postal Clerk* it "enacted more legislation providing for the betterment of the condition of the postal employes . . . than has been enacted since the establishment of the civil service." P. 239.

IN New York vigorous efforts in behalf of a law to give the state more complete control of milk production and milk handling were defeated at the close of the legislative session. P. 240.

IN Farmer Smith and the Country Church Fred Eastman tells why the church must help the farmer to meet the economic pinch which has left its marks upon rural social life. P. 243.

A CHAPTER has been added to the history of "town and gown," according to Professor Jenks, through the maintenance by New York University of a University Forum in lower New York. P. 245.

FOUR more of the bills recommended by the State Factory Investigating Commission have been signed by Governor Sulzer of New York. They refer to the employment of young girls at night in factories, to sanitary conditions in cellar bakeries, to the employment of children, to the operation of dangerous machinery and to fire escapes and exits in factories.

THE SURVEY

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SOCIAL HYMNS

INTERESTED responses have been coming in to Dr. Patten's request for social hymns. Most of these, however, have been from the editors of hymnals and from the social service workers in the churches. A few original hymns have come in and several songs which, unfortunately, do not come under the head of hymns. It is desirable to have a large selection to draw from.

THE SURVEY hopes that within the next few weeks many more songs may be received suitable for singing, either original or taken from modern poets. Hymns of brotherhood, of labor, of patriotism, are all needed, as well as ones of cheerful progress. And for the children there should be an inspiring group.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE PITTSBURGH SCHOOL STRIKE

Pittsburgh school affairs are under a cloud but the outside world should understand certain facts, notably that the cloud itself is stirred up, to some extent at least, by interests using it as a cloak for their operations. These interests are two-fold: the first, political, embracing the faction opposed to Senator Oliver; the second, partly political and partly personal, embracing the men from whose hands the school affairs of Pittsburgh were wrested by the Legislature two years ago. Under the old system school buildings and maintenance were in control of petty ward boards; in some districts the schools were excellent but in others waste, mismanagement and graft were rampant. Under the new system many of the old directors secured election as ward school visitors and, shorn of their spoils, have been bitterly opposed to the control of the small, centralized executive board appointed by the judges of the Allegheny county courts.

Charges brought against Supt. S. L. Heeter by a housemaid gave politicians and ousted directors their chance to start an agitation for a return to conditions under which they throve. These charges were given publicity by Coronor Jamison, president of the old central board. Superintendent Heeter demanded a court trial and was acquitted. Afterward a committee of citizens, including the president of the chamber of commerce and two clergymen, was appointed to investigate the superintendent's fitness to remain in office. This committee has not yet reported.

Whether Superintendent Heeter is retained in office or not is aside from the main issue—the revolution in the conduct of the Pittsburgh schools in the past year and a half. The new board has been obliged to spend $150,000 in transforming indescribably dirty old fire-traps ,with poor light, worse ventilation and unspeakable toilets, into schools that could be used with decency.

The great mass of Pittsburgh's good citizens refuse to get excited. Not all the scare heads of the interested newspapers, the *Leader* and the *Press,* or mass-meetings and parades of children arranged by still more interested individuals, have befogged the recognition by Pittsburgh people of the improvement in school affairs since 1911. The exaggeration of the children's strike in the press of the country, however, has been broadcast. *Collier's Weekly,* for example, that usually accurate publication, prints a picture with the explanation that "a strike of 50,000 school pupils paralyzed the Pittsburgh school system." There was marching of children; but when an effort was made to discover the identity of the men who the children reported were urging them on, the agitators quickly dropped out of sight. For a few days attendance dropped off in certain sections, but many parents had kept their children at home for fear of their becoming involved.

The situation has been tense, but social workers in Pittsburgh do not anticipate that the Legislature will respond to the manufactured agitation and put the schools back in the hands of the ward boards whose long regime left conditions that can not be remedied in years. A bill introduced this week would make the central board elective. Theoretically there are arguments in support of the election-at-large of members of the centralized board, but the appointive board was regarded as a necessary measure if the schools were to be freed from the domination of the old boards.

Efficiency has been the new board's watchword. Janitors and teachers are not appointed on the basis of political "pull." Already the high school attendance has increased over 60 per cent. Manual training, cooking and sewing classes are now found not only in wealthy districts, but also in sections where boys and girls need such training most.

The one point in which the new board has been weak was the failure to establish sympathetic relations with the public in the reforms it is putting forward and to utilize publicity as a constructive force in the securing of them. This indifference to public opinion, although only apparent, has been mistaken in many quarters as contempt, especially because of the autocratic personalties of two members of the board. It is perhaps unfortunate that the board's president, David Oliver, is a brother of Senator Oliver, thus giving a decided political turn to newspaper discussion. He was the logical man for the place, a leading member of the state school commission which drafted the new code. As president of the old board in Allegheny, now the north side, he had helped to make the schools of that section far superior to those of the old city; this, in spite of the fact that civic conditions in Allegheny were even worse than in Pittsburgh.

The unfortunate Heeter affair is in fact but an incident in the forward movement toward responsible municipal rule in Pittsburgh.

STANDARDIZING CHILDREN'S CARE

Judge John E. Owens of the Cook County Court, Chicago, has the distinction of having inaugurated the service of social investigators, of having extended the court's supervision over thirty-three child-helping agencies and of having promoted their close co-operation with the court and with each other.

Although Judge Owens has a contingent fund for the employment of other judges to assist him in passing upon cases of insane and dependent persons, he prefers to do all the work himself and use the money for four social investigators. They report upon the conditions involved in each case, and, aided by this information, the judge enters his decision.

Hitherto the board of visitors, which the judge of the County Court appoints to report upon the care of children committed to child-helping institutions and agencies, has ordinarily attempted little more than a perfunctory service. The present board with Wilfred S. Reynolds as its secretary, however, had the services of experienced social workers.

The first report of the board of visitors to the county judge tells of co-operation and fellowship which has come into being, and of the standardization thus brought about in buildings, equipment, methods and service.

Among the recommendations of the report are the following:

A full record of all facts concerning the child and its previous environment which are in the possession of the court should accompany all commitments to institutions;

Regular and definite reports should be required by the court from all institutions and organizations concerning all children under guardianship;

Money which the court orders parents or guardians to pay for the support of children should be paid to the clerk of the court and turned in to the county treasury;

The submission of plans for new buildings or improvements should be required of all institutions, so as to secure suggestions and approval from a board of competent ability;

A dietary should be established upon a scientific analysis of food properties;

Assignment of routine work to be done by the children should be strictly upon the basis of the child's training, not service to the institution;

Classes in industrial and special training should be organized, and supplemented by routine work about the institution;

Record systems must be complete of the child's history, its institutional life and the after disposition;

Visits to placed-out children should be made as often as once in six months;

Adoption should not be consented to until six months after placing;

Placements should be kept within the state; and

Personal investigations of all applying for children should be made.

To estimate fully the importance of the achievements recorded in this report requires some knowledge of the acute disturbance[1] within the field of child-care in Chicago during the year or so preceding the work of this board of visitors. To it is attributed the credit of having brought harmony and efficiency out of the chaos produced by the disruption and antagonism which marked the recently repudiated county administration.

THE CONTRACT LABOR PROBLEM IN MISSOURI

The Missouri Legislature of 1911 passed a law which provided for the gradual abolition of the convict leasing system. Under this law contracts employing 1,700 prisoners were due to expire December 31, 1913. Before the convening of the next Legislature, January, 1913, many had decided that the law of 1911 by no means solved for Missouri the problem of convict labor. It was discovered that it was most difficult to employ convicts to the satisfaction of all.

A number of bills were introduced to solve the problem. One representative went into the penitentiary to explain to the convicts his bill to repeal the 1911 law. He was hissed by the convicts who showed in this way their disapproval of the system of leasing out their labor to contractors. When, however, the representative explained that his bill provided that the state would get thirty cents a day for each man and that thirty cents would go to their nearest relative the convicts became calmer. Another bill provided that the contract system be maintained, but set $1 a day as the smallest wage that might be paid. Of this amount thirty cents a day was to be given to the convict.

Finally a resolution was passed appointing three senators to investigate and recommend to the Legislature then in session the best means of handling the situation.

The gist of the report follows:

Prisoners in penitentiary, 2403; employed under contract system, 1600; 1650 prisoners let at $.70 per day each, forty-six cripples at $.50 and forty-four females at $.50. The earning capacity of the prison for the biennial period 1911-1912 was $710,000. This excludes 400 prisoners employed by the state. The committee further reports that about 1000 of the prisoners are confirmed criminals and could not under any circumstances be employed outside of the prison walls. About 300 white men and a like number of Negroes could be worked upon the public highways.

The committee states that at this time the state

[1]See THE SURVEY for March 30, 1912.

cannot afford to purchase the machinery and manage the industries now in the prison. This it is estimated would cost about $1,000,000 for two years and such an expenditure would cramp badly all other state institutions.

The report finally advises the Legislature to extend by enactment the time of the prevailing contract system to a period beyond the convening of the next Legislature, because it would be inhuman and dangerous in many ways to allow the men to be idle.

Before the Legislature adjourned a bill was passed following in the main the suggestions of this report. The abolition of the leasing system is suspended till December 31, 1915. The services of the major portion of the prisoners may be contracted at 75 cents a day for each (an increase of 5 cents). A number not to exceed one-quarter of all the prisoners are to be tried out on public road work and in the manufacture of school furniture. The state binding twine factory is to be continued.

LABOR PROBLEM OF THE POST OFFICE

The post-office appropriation bill for the year beginning July, 1913, which was passed in the last days of the Sixty-second Congress, provided for 2,400 additional clerks as well as an increased number of carriers. It raised the minimum pay for clerks and carriers from $600 to $800 a year and set the minimum for substitutes at forty instead of thirty cents an hour. Large appropriations were made for auxiliary clerk and carrier hire, a special sum being set aside to prevent overwork of the regular employes during the summer vacation period. The minimum pay for laborers and watchmen in the department was raised from $650 to $720.

The raising of minimum salaries and the provision of extra service to prevent overwork and insure the effectiveness of the eight-hour day worked within ten consecutive hours, which was passed last year, rounds out the legislation of the Sixty-second Congress affecting the postal employes. This Congress, in the words of the *Union Postal Clerk,* in the two years of its existence, "enacted more legislation providing for the betterment of the condition of the postal employes and the improvement of the service than has ever been enacted since the establishment of the civil service among postal employes."

The conditions which prevailed at the opening of this Congress were described in THE SURVEY of August 6, 1911. Last year's improvements, which were summarized in THE SURVEY of July 13 and September 14, include the abolition of the gag rule; the enactment of an eight-hour day for clerks; and a Sunday-closing provision, with compensatory time off for the group of employes who are not affected by this provision; the raising of pay in the mail service; the providing of safer construction for mail cars, and the provision that 75 per cent of clerks and carriers in the second highest grades of pay should be automatically raised each year to the highest grade.

The post-office is not as yet, however, in the opinion of those who have studied its labor problem, a model employer. The substitutes are not on an entirely satisfactory basis, as no provision is made guaranteeing them a minimum number of hours a week, or setting a limit to the number of years they serve before they are received into the regular service. By the terms of the bill, whatever may have been done by administrative readjustments, no provision is made to relieve the overstrain on certain sections of the railway mail service. In spite of many years of vigorous agitation no retirement or pension bill for the service has as yet been passed.

THE AMERICAN COMMISSION ON CO-OPERATIVE RURAL CREDIT

Over a hundred strong and representing over three-fourths of the states and Canada, the American Commission for the Study of the Application of the Co-operative System to Agricultural Production, Distribution and Finance in European Countries sailed from New York on April 26. This commission is to visit certain European countries under the direction of the Southern Commercial Congress. According to the officers of the Congress it will take special note of

1st. The parts played, respectively, in the promotion of agriculture by the governments and by voluntary organizations of the agricultural classes.
2nd. The application of the co-operative system to agricultural production, distribution and finance.
3rd. The effect of co-operative organization upon social conditions in rural communities.
4th. The relation of the cost of living to the business organization of the food-producing classes.

The work of the commission was given standing by the joint resolution of the Senate and the House of Representatives authorizing the secretary of state to bespeak for the commission the diplomatic courtesies of the various European governments. It was further strengthened by the appointment by President Wilson of a commission composed of seven persons to accompany and co-operate with the American commission, and through the appropriation by Congress of $25,000 for the expenses of this federal commission. Senator Duncan Fletcher, of Florida, president of the Southern Commercial Congress is chairman of the federal commission. The other members are: Senator Gore, of Oklahoma;

Congressman Moss, of Indiana; Clarence J. Owens, of Maryland, managing director of the Southern Commercial Congress; Kenyon L. Butterfield, of Massachusetts, president of Amherst College; John Lee Coulter, of Minnesota, the government's expert on agricultural statistics; and Colonel Harvie Jordan, of Georgia, president of the Southern Cotton Growers' Association. Sevellon Brown accompanies the federal commission as a representative of the State Department.

The American commission will return to New York on July 25. The federal commission will as soon as possible thereafter render its report to Congress. A committee of nine governors appointed at the last conference of governors is awaiting the report of the American commission in order to draft appropriate state legislation in regard to farmers' credit and co-operative organizations. Few commissions have gone abroad with the backing and the enthusiasm that accompanies this one. Representative of national and state public authorities, business men, and farmers, its report promises to hasten practical measures for the relief of the financial burden of the American farmer.

LOUISVILLE BEGINS TO CLEAN HOUSE

Louisville, Ky., is at last making progress in the task of securing better housing for the people. Three years ago a law which set much higher standards than those previously prevailing was secured. The act simply gave the city permission to employ a housing inspector instead of commanding it to do so. As a result, Louisville's housing legislation remained until last summer a matter of purely academic interest despite all the efforts of the housing committee.

During the vacation season four medical school inspectors were assigned to housing work. There were hopes that these men would accomplish something but when the schools opened again in the fall and the result of their efforts was summed up the total, according to the housing committee, was disappointingly small.

Meanwhile some amendments had been made to the law which included a mandatory provision for an inspector. This inspector was to be appointed by the health officer, Dr. W. E. Grant, who is in sympathy with those who are working for better housing for Louisville. The city administration pleaded that it was too poor to pay an additional salary but the offer of the Charity Organization Society to provide the money was not accepted. At last, however, a policeman was detailed to the task and though he was without training he proved to have tact and persistence. As a result one hundred violations of the law were corrected within two months.

MILK BILLS DEFEATED IN NEW YORK STATE

At almost the very close of the session of the New York Legislature, the bills introduced at the instigation of the New York Milk Committee by Assemblyman Carroll to give to the state more complete control over milk production and milk handling through the State Departments of Agriculture and Health were defeated, although one came within half a dozen votes of passing. These bills were drawn in accordance with the resolutions adopted by the governors' delegates from eastern and middle states at a conference last February.

The bills were drawn to supplement each other and provided that the State Department of Agriculture should have charge of dairy inspection and the State Department of Health of medical inspection of the dairy employes and laboratory tests of milk. According to the first of these bills, veterinarians now in the employ of the State Department of Agriculture were to be employed as dairy inspectors. It is the opinion of the committee that only competent veterinarians can perform the examination of dairy cattle and that the training which competent veterinarians receive equips them to make sanitary inspections of the buildings in which dairy cattle are housed and the surroundings of these buildings. The companion bill to amend the public health laws gave to the local medical representatives of the State Department of Health power not only to make medical examinations of dairy employes but to test the water supply on dairy farms and the milk delivered by farmers to creamery and milk stations.

After the Carroll bill was defeated Senator Wagner introduced a bill providing for a commission to investigate the methods of production, distribution and sale of milk and cream. The state commissioner of agriculture, the Senate and Assembly chairmen of the Committees on Agriculture, the master of the grange, the secretary of the New York Sanitary Milk Dealers' Association and the president of the National Housewives' League were named in the bill as the members of the commission. This substitute was attacked by the New York Milk Committee as merely a measure for delay and on the ground that it contains but one actual representative of the consuming public, the president of the National Housewives' League. The secretary of the Milk Committee pointed out that the commission contained no health expert, no sanitarian, no bacteriologist and no veterinarian. In the closing moments of the Legislature an attempt was made to have at least the state health commissioner added as a member of the commission. This effort proved to be unnecessary for the bill was only passed by the Senate.

"HUNTING A JOB" IN SOCIAL WORK

"Hunting a job" in social work presents almost as many terrors as confront the unemployed casual laborer. The New York Charities Directory lists 3500 organizations, a large part of which employ paid workers. This is but a local index of the number of societies that need trained workers. Yet the individual who is looking for a position in social work, soon learns that the task of finding the right opening is not easy. He secures interviews with busy executives only to find that the positions he had heard of are already filled. Executive officers, on the other hand, are forced to spend much time looking up references and writing to possible applicants, and then often fail to find the right candidate. As a result the right person and the right place frequently fail to make connections.

This difficulty it has been felt was only partially overcome by the existing employment agencies and employment departments of colleges and schools of philanthropy. In an effort to meet the needs more completely the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations, with the cooperation of the New York School of Philanthropy and of the Russell Sage Foundation, has established a separate department to serve as a clearing-house for workers and positions in social work. This bureau was organized by the New York alumnae societies of nine eastern colleges for women to help solve the problem of employment for college graduates and other trained women in occupations other than teaching. Since its opening on October 1, 1911, the bureau has filled 158 positions in the field of social work and 271 in other lines of activity.

The new Department for Social Workers will follow in its special field the methods which have proved successful in the general work of the bureau. It will accept for registration both women and men, and will be national in scope. It is governed by an Executive Committee of eight, which includes three representatives from the Board of Directors of the bureau, Mary Vida Clark, Mary Van Kleeck and Margaret F. Byington. The other members of the committee are Edward T. Devine, of the New York School of Philanthropy; John M. Glenn, of the Russell Sage Foundation; R. H. Edwards, of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association; Elizabeth W. Dodge; and James S. Cushman. An Advisory Committee composed of persons actively interested in social and civic work of national scope will assist in increasing its usefulness to social organization.

At the outset it has been decided to limit the services of the department to those who have had some training or experience. A year in social work, or in a school of philanthropy or a college degree, is required of applicants. A registration fee of one dollar is charged, and a small commission for positions secured through the bureau. No fee is charged to employers. Sigrid Wynbladh, formerly with the New York School of Philanthropy, has been appointed assistant manager, in charge of the Department for Social Workers, under the supervision of Frances Cummings, manager of the bureau. The office is located for the present in connection with the main office of the bureau, at 38 West 32nd Street, New York, but it is hoped that space may be secured later in the United Charities Building. The new department opened March 1. Already 182 well qualified applicants are registered and 107 calls have been received for responsible workers.

TO ORGANIZE RURAL FORCES

The United States Department of Agriculture which, together with the various state agricultural agencies, has hitherto given primary attention to the problems of production is now aiming to bring about a better organization of rural life. One of the first things the department will attempt is to look into existing organizations, enterprises and activities in order to determine just how they are working and just what their effect is on rural communities. Next, it expects to take steps to encourage and bring into active co-operation organizations that will be helpful in advancing rural life.

The Department of Agriculture and some of the states have already developed work in this field and it will be the object of the Rural Organization Service, operating through the department, to secure the co-operation of all these agencies. The Department of Agriculture is now charged specifically with the problem of studying the marketing of farm produce. Congress at its last session appropriated $50,000 to enable the secretary of agriculture "to acquire and to diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with the marketing and distributing of farm products."

Marketing, however, is only one aspect of the problem of rural organization. The General Education Board, which for several years has co-operated with the Department of Agriculture in the support of its farm demonstration work, has expressed a willingness to extend its co-operation with the department in this problem of Rural Organization Service. This offer of further co-operation has been accepted. The secretary of agriculture has sought and secured the services of Dr. T. N. Carver, professor of economics in Harvard University, as director of this work, and the president of Harvard Uni-

versity has granted Dr. Carver indefinite leave of absence.

It is expected that the work of investigation, experiment and demonstration now conducted by the Department of Agriculture and by many of the state colleges and experiment stations will fit into the new scheme. The Rural Organization Service plans to co-ordinate and crystalize these results and apply them in community effort for the advancement of agriculture.

CONFERENCE OF NEGRO INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

A conference on Rural Industrial Schools for Colored People in the South was held in New York April 17-18. The conference was called by six colored principals: Leslie Pickney Hill, of Manassas, Va.; William E. Benson, of Kowaliga, Ala.; W. J. Edwards, of Snow Hill, Ala.; W. A. Hunt, of Fort Valley, Ga.; W. D. Holtzclaw, of Utica, Miss., and Emma Wilson of Mayesville, S. C. Between one and two hundred people attended the various sessions, and nearly every southern state was represented.

There are about 200 schools for Negroes in the South which are supported by private philanthropy. Some of these schools are supported by such bodies as the American Missionary Association but a larger number have been organized by the initiative of their principals and have no backing save that of their individual boards.

Mr. Hill, in his opening address, pleaded for co-operation among the principals and the boards of Negro schools. Under the present system he said each school works for itself, determines its own educational standard, buys its supplies and unaided raises its money. He recommended co-operation in the raising of funds, in the standardizing of studies, in the standardizing of accounts and in the buying of supplies.

These four suggestions were the central themes of the conference.

The problem of how to raise money received the most attention. At present the members of the board of the school and the principal appeal to any person of means who can be approached. As the number of schools increases the same people are solicited again and again, and the raising of money becomes increasingly difficult. The colored principal jeopardizes his school by his continued absences, and he often grows despondent as he knocks, frequently in vain, at the door of office or home.

Clarence H. Kelsey, president of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company of New York declared that the present system of money-raising is breaking down. Many of the smaller schools, he said, would in the future find it impossible to continue unless they could enlarge their plans for self-support.

Oswald Garrison Villard, editor of the New York *Evening Post* and chairman of the board of directors of the Association for the Advancement of Colored People, suggested that the field be divided and one section of the country assigned to one school, another section to another. Instead for instance of twenty-five schools trying to get support from a city like Rochester, two or three should use this territory.

The city would then feel responsible he argued for a definite amount of support, and would take a keener interest in doing a good deal for a few schools than in doing a little for a score or two. The conference came to no decision on this matter.

The discussion on co-operation in the raising of funds incidentally indicated the need for carrying out Mr. Hill's next two suggestions, the standardizing of the curriculum, and the standardizing of accounts. The curriculum in the Negro schools is left to the principal and his board. While recognizing the different conditions in different southern states, it was agreed that some uniformity in courses of study should be secured. The need of good academic training was strongly emphasized by the conference. It was argued that in his zeal for industrial work, the principal must not forget the foundation of all school work, the ability to read and write well, to use numbers, and to reason clearly and intelligently.

Standardizing studies it was recognized would facilitate the standardizing of accounts. A suggestive paper was read on this subject by Charles E. Mitchell, certified public accountant of the West Virginia Colored Institute.

The fourth suggestion that the schools might save by co-operative buying was a new idea to most of the people present, and was felt to be worth looking into carefully. Mr. Hill pointed to the co-operative movement in Germany, where the farmers, each insignificant as a unit, as a co-operative body can command a credit of 200,000,000 marks.

"Why," he said, "should not the schools buy their flour from the same mill, their coal from the same mine? Such an arrangement would save them tens of thousands of dollars each year."

While the conference was concerned with the smaller secondary schools of the South, delegates were present from Hampton and Tuskegee.

The conference closed with the formation of a temporary organization consisting of W. D. Holtzclaw, president; Emma Wilson, vice-president, Leslie Pinckney Hill, secretary and treasurer, and four other board members W. A. Hunt, W. J. Edwards, W. T. B. Williams and O. L. Coleman. These officers are to hold a meeting in Atlanta on June 17, and will submit their conclusions to the larger body of school principals in November. It was the hope of the meeting that a practical plan of co-operation might be presented.

FARMER SMITH AND THE COUNTRY CHURCH

FRED EASTMAN

Secretary Matinecock Neighborhood Association, Locust Valley, N. Y.

Farmer Smith needs help. He needs it here and now. He is trying to keep his family supplied with food and clothes. He is struggling to give his children an education and at the same time to pay off the mortgage on the farm and to save enough to keep his wife and himself from want in their old age. All around him are those who are waging the same battle, but they give him little help. Each one fights alone, as his father did before him.

Twelve years ago Farmer Smith had a $5,000 farm. It yielded him an income of about $500. That was a return of 10 per cent. Today, because of the general rise in land values, that farm is worth $10,000. It yields him about $700. It is now only a 7 per cent investment. His profits have decreased. Moreover, his land is poorer than it was twelve years ago. Smith never learned how to farm intensively. He knows only the crude methods used by his father in the days of virgin soil. The years ahead give him no promise that he will be able to make even as much from his farm as he is making now.

The economic pinch has left its marks upon his social life. Many of his old neighbors have sold their farms and moved away. Some have left their farms in the hands of tenants who are robbing the land of its fertility. Community spirit has vanished. The old forms of recreation have lapsed with the passing of the settled population. No new forms have taken their place except in the towns, and these are usually of a character that would not be tolerated in the country. Smith's boy is waiting his first opportunity to get off the farm. His has been a life of all work and no play, and while it has not exactly made him a dull boy, it has made him hate farming. Smith's wife is leading the life of a drudge, and she swears her daughters are not going to live on the farm if she can help it. With the stagnation in social life has come stagnation in moral and religious life, for morals do not flourish in a stagnant community.

Yes, Smith needs help. He needs to know how to farm more scientifically. He needs a better income. He needs to know how to organize with his fellow farmers to protect themselves against the inroads of the middlemen and the tenants. He needs better markets for his crops and better transportation facilities to those markets. He needs a school for his children that will give them as good an education as they would get in any city school, a school that will instill in them a love of the country, a knowledge of farming and an appreciation of its economic significance. He needs more recreation facilities for the whole family. He needs a handier kitchen for his wife and daughter and many more opportunities for them to broaden their lives and enrich their minds in literary and social activities.

The question is, Should the church give it? Should it go to Farmer Smith and say:

"Smith, I am a bit ashamed of myself; I have not been doing for you what I ought. I have been preaching about Elysian fields and allowing the riches of bluegrass, corn and wheat fields to be squandered with prodigal hand; I have been trying to pave your road to Glory Land, but I have paid no attention to your road to the nearest market; I have talked about mansions in the skies and cared little about the buildings in which you and your family must spend your lives here and now; I have been teaching your children God's word in the Bible, but I have left his word in the rivers and the hills, in the grass and the trees, without prophet, witness, or defender.

"Forgive me, Smith; I am not going to do it any more. I am going to take an interest in your every day affairs—your crops, your stock, your markets, your school, your lodge and your recreations. I am going to see if I can help you in your effort to get your boy started on a farm

THE RURAL CHURCH

In some great day
The Country Church
Will find its voice
And it will say:

"I stand in the fields
Where the wide earth yields
Her bounties of fruit and grain;
Where the furrows turn
Till the plowshares burn
As they come round and round again;
Where the workers pray
With their tools all day
In sunshine and shadow and rain.

"And I bid them tell
Of the crops they sell
And speak of the work they have done;
I speed every man
In his hope and plan
And follow his day with the sun;
And grasses and trees,
The birds and the bees
I know and feel ev'ry one.

"And out of it all
As the seasons fall
I build my great temple alway;
I point to the skies,
But my footstone lies
In commonplace work of the day;
For I preach the worth
Of the native earth—
To love and to work is to pray."

LIBERTY H. BAILEY in *Rural Manhood*.

of his own. I've preached a long time against Sunday baseball; now I'm going to try to give your children so much recreation through the week that they won't care for it on Sunday. I am going to take as one of the articles of my creed, 'I believe in better roads for Smith, and I propose to have them.' I am going to try to save you and your family not only for Paradise, but for America and American farms."

Should the country church take its place shoulder to shoulder with Smith in the line in which he is battling for existence? Should it take up the task of encouraging agricultural organizations that will work for more scientific farming, better roads and better markets? Should it throw open its doors, not three hours a week but three hours a day, to Smith's sons and daughters that they may have a place to meet and to play and to mingle with each other in literary, athletic and social activities? Should the church forget all about itself and its creedal and polemic differences? Should it forget its own salvation in its effort to save Smith? Should it lose itself in his service, even if some churches have to die in the attempt, as long ago their Master died?

Should it?

"THE COUNTY MAN"

JOHN R. HOWARD, Jr.
General Secretary Thomas Thompson Trust

The rural leader, whether his interest is primarily in the church, the school, good roads, health, wholesome recreation or the care of the neglected, must, if he would get anywhere, be interested, also, in better farming. For one reason, there is no better way to obtain the interest of the farmer. Then, too, a normal standard of health, intelligence or morals depends, in the country as in the city, upon a normal standard of living. Finally, the socialized church, the vocationalized school, good roads, sanitation, community play places, experienced advisers for family problems all cost money, and the majority of our rural townships are taxed already to the limit of endurance.

The "county man" is the man the United States Department of Agriculture is sending into the counties of the North, not only to make two blades of grass grow where one grew before, but to help the farmer earn two dollars where he earned one before—quite a different proposition. This entails not only scientific choice and treatment of crops, but co-operative buying of fertilizers and feed and co-operative marketing of products. Further, this "county man," who is helping the farmer to double his dollars, has a rare opportunity to work out with him the problem of spending them and will prove to be a vital factor in the promotion of any of the ends of community betterment.

That the government requires the formation of a county organization to direct the work and to finance it, beyond the $100 a month allowed by the government toward the agent's salary, establishes at the outset a co-operative county agency through which other work may be taken up. It is the intention of the government to encourage all purposes looking to a better country life.

There are 127 of these men now in the field. They are serving in twenty-three different states. The unfulfilled applications number 276. In January the number was but sixteen although fifty-nine more had been promised. This shows how eager counties throughout the country have been to take advantage of this important new service. Rural leaders should urge the establishment of this service in their counties, encourage it when started, and, whether the initial organization be an agricultural association or an improvement league, be ready to make use of it for the social and educational as well as the agricultural needs of the county.

SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS[1]

PHILIP WELTNER

The second Southern Sociological Congress came to a close on the night of April 29. Its four days were given over to solid criticism and constructive suggestion. Eight hundred delegates gathered together from all over the Southland to learn from the ninety-six specialists the congress brought to Atlanta. Most of the ninety-six were men and women of the South.

One fact the Congress made plain enough, and that was that the South knew its problems and was busy about their solution. Those present seemed to realize that they were the empire builders of a new South. While the questions coming before the several conferences were the same as those that confront the North and West, they were treated from the standpoint of the peculiar needs of the South. But this was done without the slightest sectional consciousness. The South was taking counsel of itself that the entire nation might profit by its advance. Although the field of the congress was sectional, its outlook was national.

The plan of organization followed was much the same as that of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. There were seven special conferences gathered under the name of the Southern Sociological Congress. Each was separately organized and met with the other divisions only in the general night session. The seven divisions were: organized charities, courts and prisons, public health, child welfare, travelers' aid, race problems and the church and social service.

The latter was an innovation with the Southern Sociological Congress. It served to emphasize the fact that "the church is the fellowship of those who love in the service of those who suf-

[1]See THE SURVEY for May 10, page 212.

fer." The discussions in this conference all served to bring out in sharp relief the new spirit beginning to dominate the old church. It was agreed that the social worker who can satisfy only the bare material needs of life is poorly equipped for his task, that religion must lend its strength to every effort towards individual or social reconstruction, and that the call of the church is a call to service.

The individual conference that enjoyed the greatest popularity was the one on race problems. Throughout its four days of almost continuous session there were in attendance about 400 persons, half white and half colored. Some of the Negro delegates, fearing an unjust discrimination against those of their race in the conference sessions, had prepared, while on the way to Atlanta, resolutions of protest. These were never tendered. No reason was intruded for their presentation. One of the Negro delegates expressed the situation most aptly. He said:

"The old order of whites understood the old black man. But it has remained for this Congress to demonstrate the possibility of the young white men of the new order sympathizing in and appreciating the hopes and aspirations of the Negro of today."

Too great a significance can not be attached to this simple statement of fact. Its optimism is the culture-soil out of which we may expect to see develop that happy adaptation of the two races, which after all is the solution of the race problem.

This incident, and what it goes to show, would alone justify the existence of a southern congress separate and distinct from the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The peculiar problems that faced the conference on courts and prisons make this separate treatment even more desirable. In the South there are not many of those great central, highly organized penal institutions known as penitentiaries. For the most part we have county chain-gang camps engaged in road work. A distinct contribution was made to southern penology by Hooper Alexander, of Georgia, when he showed the absolute identity of the convict lease in Georgia with the system once known as the institution of slavery.

The conference discussion made clear the fact that the county convict road camp, prosecuted without a scintilla of effort at training or character building, is not less immoral than the old lease system; that the wrong of public exploitation is as great as exploitation at the hands of a private lessee.

The congress made a tremendous impression on Atlanta and the whole state of Georgia. Its influence will spread over the entire South. It served to quicken the civic consciousness of our people and to make them better acquainted with their common problems. It took the mask off sociology and unfrocked it of scholastic appearance. In pointing out our needs, the congress unified our aims and at the same time broadened our vision.

UNIVERSITY FORUM

(*In downtown New York*)

JEREMIAH W. JENKS

Director of the Division of Public Affairs, School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, New York University

New York University has added a chapter to the history of "town and gown" by opening a University Forum in lower New York. This has been held throughout the winter in the Judson Memorial Building in Washington Square, and its purpose has been to put the university at the service of people in New York interested in a thoroughly impartial discussion of questions of the day.

The purposes of the forum as announced last fall are to make the university a greater force in training students to perform the duties of citizenship, in helping citizens to understand the problems of government, and in making thinking men act and active men think. Public officials, business leaders, social workers, eminent authorities were asked to present important questions of government and industry and discuss vital problems of civic and commercial life.

The methods employed were somewhat different from those usually followed in public discussions. In order that the academic atmosphere of thoroughness, sincerity and impartiality might so far as possible be conserved without sacrificing at the same time the interest that comes from having questions presented by experts and from the stimulus of controversy, it was decided that each question discussed should cover three sessions. At the first session an able authority has presented one side of the question. If there were time, as has usually been the case in the hour and a half, the audience has questioned the speaker in order to bring out more fully the points made.

At the second session, a week later, the opposite side has been presented with similar questioning.

At the third meeting the director of the forum has enumerated briefly the most essential points made on both sides, giving his own judgment regarding their validity and the relation of the question under discussion to the public interest. In some instances where it has seemed desirable, he has supplemented the arguments presented in the discussion by points of his own in order to make the discussion as complete as possible. In this summary an effort has been made to present the questions as impartially as possible from the viewpoint of the public interest.

In addition to this, representative citizens from the audience have given in brief talks of not more than ten minutes each their own views. Sometimes these voluntary speakers have been students, sometimes citizens. So far as possible the names were learned in advance in order that the discussion might proceed in the nature of a debate with the two sides presented alternately. In these third meetings especially, the interest has chiefly centered. In two or three instances, notably perhaps in the consideration of woman's suffrage and the closed shop, the discussion was most animated, not to say excited, but nevertheless the temper of university study and the desire, however heated the feelings, to reach the truth and a fair judgment was not lost.

The list of topics and speakers included:

The Control of Vice and Crime—

William J. Gaynor, mayor of New York; Arthur Woods, former deputy commissioner of police, in special charge of the investigation of Italian criminals and the white slave traffic.

The Relation of Government to Corporations—

Martin W. Littleton, member of the Congressional Committee on Investigation of Industrial Monopolies; Herbert Knox Smith, late United States commissioner of corporations in charge of the investigations of the Standard Oil Company, the American Tobacco Company, the Meat Packers, the International Harvester Company, and many other of the great corporations.

Socialism—

Victor L. Berger, the first Socialist to be elected to Congress; Bird S. Coler, former comptroller of the City of New York.

Woman Suffrage—

Anna Howard Shaw, president National American Woman Suffrage Association; Mrs. A. J. George, organization secretary of the Massachusetts Association Opposed to Woman's Suffrage.

The Open Shop versus the Unionized Shop—

John Kirby, president National Association of Manufacturers, and Joseph W. Bryce, president of the Trades and Workers' Association of America; James O'Connell, president Metal Trades Department and vice-president American Federation of Labor, and C. G. Norman, ex-chairman Board of Governors of the Building Trades Employers' Association.

The meetings seem to have reached the results sought in more than one way. They have been well attended both by students and public, although comparatively few students have registered and done the reading required and passed the examination in order to secure university credit. For those students, however, who entered upon the work seriously the course has been as severe both in the quantity of reading required, in the reports upon that reading and in the examination as the regular university courses, and students have expressed their appreciation of the interest as well as the value of the course. Similar expressions have come from citizens in numerous instances. There have been regular attendants from Manhattan, Brooklyn, the Bronx, Yonkers and also from New Jersey. Requests have been made for an extension of the forum to other boroughs and the matter is under consideration for the coming year. Inquiries have come from as far west as Kansas and Calgary in western Canada regarding the methods employed; and numerous requests for printed reports of the addresses and discussions have been received.[1]

The audiences in one respect at any rate seem to have lacked somewhat the university spirit of inquiry, having retained rather the normal human spirit of liking to hear views that agree with one's own. It was noticeable, for example, that the people who came to hear the Socialist speaker were the Socialists coming to be flattered, and not the anti-Socialists coming to learn. Likewise, the anti-Socialist speaker was not listened to by so many Socialists as by those of his own opinion. Perhaps equally noticeable was this tendency to listen to speakers of their own side in the case of the discussion on woman's suffrage. Surely it is to be hoped that in another year the academic spirit will have increased sufficiently so that each group will be equally anxious to hear their opponents, because it is, after all, primarily from those who differ from us that we learn, rather than from those with whom we agree.

THE ST. LOUIS PEACE CONGRESS

CHARLES E. BEALS
Secretary Chicago Peace Society

The biennial gathering of the pacifist clans in the Fourth American Peace Congress at St. Louis, May 1-3, enabled those who attended the previous congresses (at New York in 1907, at Chicago in 1909 and at Baltimore in 1911) to gauge the direction and speed of the movement.

Like its predecessors, the St. Louis congress was initiated by the American Peace Society, which has been the national peace organization in the United States since 1828. Unlike any of its predecessors, the Fourth American Peace Congress was financed entirely by the local commercial association. The New York Congress had Mr. Carnegie for its god-father. The Chicago congress received material assistance from the Chicago Association of Commerce. The St. Louis congress was the first one the expenses of which were entirely underwritten by business men through a business men's organization. This precedent will render easier the organization of future congresses.

In one respect the St. Louis congress was unique—in the official participation of Latin-American governments. This is not saying that this was the first congress in which ambassadors have taken part. Earl Grey, then governor general of Canada, Ambassador Bryce and the Mexican ambassador were notable figures at New York. Count von Bernstorff, the German ambassador, and diplomatic representatives of other nations were present at Chicago, and Minister

[1] It would be desirable if a sufficient number of persons interested would contribute so that it would be practicable to print in full the discussions, properly edited with bibliographies and notes, so as to make a really authoritative booklet on the questions under discussion.

Wu Ting Fang was the most picturesque and popular visitor at the latter congress. Indeed the international session of the Chicago Congress may perhaps be reckoned as the most throughly international of the four congresses. At Baltimore a French senator and a Belgian senator were conspicuous figures. But the St. Louis congress was the first in which the ambassadors and ministers of the Latin-American nations sat as official delegates representing their respective governments. And the frank, honest, kindly message delivered by the Peruvian minister was welcomed by all lovers of truth and international justice. In fact the congress insisted that he should repeat his address at another session.

The two addresses most warmly applauded were those of Dr. Thomas E. Green and Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones, both of Chicago. Dr. Green, a wide traveler and popular Chautauqua lecturer, spoke in place of Secretary of State Bryan, and his address was a piece of oratory of the sort seldom heard in this scientific age.

Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones discussed the psychology of heroism. The writer recalls riding with Mr. Jones in Washington in 1909, when we were corralling speakers for the Chicago congress. Mr. Jones burst out: "I want some one to discuss the psychology of war. There will be plenty of discussion of international law and of the economic, moral and educational aspects of the peace problem." Then and there the subject of Armaments as Irritants was assigned to the veteran social worker and militant pulpiteer. And his presentation of this subject before the Chicago congress (using the homely barnyard figure of de-horning cattle) was one of the most delightful and valuable contributions to that congress. At St. Louis he followed up this psychological investigation with his survey of heroisms. So human, so true to life, so morally prophetic, so shot through and through with first hand information gained in four years of service in the Civil War, so illumined with poetry and ripe literary culture was this address, that again and again the speaker was forced to bow in response to the prolonged applause.

There were not lacking men who "spoke by the book," men who had participated in the Hague Conferences, senators and representatives, authors of books on international problems—men like former Vice-President Fairbanks, Dr. James Brown Scott, Senator Burton (president of the American Peace Society), Congressman Bartholdt (president of the congress), Congressman Ainey, Dr. Benjamin F. Trueblood (for over a score of years secretary of the American Peace Society), Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, Prof. W. I. Hull, Dean W. P. Rogers; the United States commissioner of education, Dr. Claxton; college presidents like David Starr Jordan, C. F. Thwing, S. C. Mitchell, A. Ross Hill, Laura Drake Gill, Frank L. McVey, Booker T. Washington, and others; business men like Andrew Carnegie, Leroy A. Goddard, J. G. Schmidlapp and Eugene Levering; the secretaries and directors of various peace offices from Bunker Hill to the Golden Gate; the official head of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, Mrs. Pennypacker, and her predecessor, Mrs. Phillip N. Moore, under whose administration was created the peace department of the women's clubs. British America was represented by such distinguished men as Hon. Benjamin Russell, justice of the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia, and John Lewis, editor of the *Toronto Star*.

In connection with the congress inter-collegiate oratorical contests were conducted, the coming Hundred Years of Peace Celebration described, special church services held, and social courtesies bestowed through receptions and dinners.

Should one ask what is the most characteristic feature of the peace movement in 1913, perhaps it might truly be said that pacifism more and more is being formulated into a science. The organized peace movement began ninety-eight years ago purely as a moral reform. It is no less a moral reform today. But it has accumulated a vast amount of historic, economic, juridical, biological and general sociological data.

When one considers the movement of the human animal from the day of the man whose bones recently were dug up from the Sussex gravels; when one measures the progress of human beings from cave-dwelling to Universal Postal Unions and Hague Conferences and Courts; when one notes the marked decrease in the number of wars, the total abolition of private war, the almost revolutionary mitigation of war practices (so that today one finds it comparatively comfortable to "get his living by being killed"); when one remembers that the world is beginning to think in economic terms; when one examines the beginning already made towards the substitution of judicial procedure for fist law; when one counts up the half hundred things actually being done officially by governments acting internationally; when one perceives that the man animal is specializing in two things—rational thinking and morality—then one can easily believe that, having so progressed from jungleism towards internationalism, the race probably will not stop now and here.

Direction and distance are prophetic. Only by some unforeseen and catastrophic and utter extinction of the human species can man escape his blessed and inevitable and rapidly approaching terrestrial destiny of organized pacifism and world-wide scientific and industrial co-operation. The tiny mountain rill of pacifism has become an ocean-seeking river, on whose mighty current the war-affiicted human race is being borne on towards the ocean of a real civilization.

BOOKS

THE DISCOVERY OF THE FUTURE

By H. G. Wells. B. W. Huebsch. 61 pp. Price $.60; by mail of The Survey $.65.

This is a small book, sixty-one pages of large type, containing an address delivered at the Royal Institution in England. But the value of the publication is out of proportion to its size. Here is the abundant Wells literature of the last two decades in a compact and highly concentrated extract form. And this means, as every lover of this English author will know at once, a wealth of suggestive speculation and stimulating idealism.

The thesis of the book is that we now have the materials in hand for a systematic and accurate "exploration of the future." There is no reason why we should not be able to forecast the future development of society, by a critical study of operative causes, as definitely as we now reconstruct the past conditions of the race by a critical study of the geological and archeological record. What the scientist now does in the fields of physics or astronomy, we ought to be able to do just as easily in the field of social life. "Suppose," says Wells, "that the laws of social and political development were given as many brains, were given as much attention, criticism and discussion, as we have given to the laws of chemical combination, and what might we not expect?" Here, evidently, is the philosophical justification of The War of the Worlds, Anticipations, The Future in America, New Worlds for Old, and many another fascinating volume from Wells' pen which might be mentioned.

This thesis, however, constitutes only a part of the book's abundant material. A keen psychological discussion of the two divergent types of mind, the forward-looking and the backward-looking, into which all men may be divided; a passing glance at the pragmatic standard of "it works"; a survey of the great-man theory versus the economic theory of social determinism; an incisive critique of positivism; a bold and eloquent prophecy of the future destiny of man upon this planet—here are only a few of the "extras" which are contained in this distillation of the Wells philosophy. About as good an example of *multum in parvo* as I have ever seen!

John Haynes Holmes.

SOCIAL WELFARE IN NEW ZEALAND

By Hugh H. Lusk. Sturges & Walton Co. 287 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.62.

Looking back as an old man upon the record he himself has helped to shape, Hugh H. Lusk, in his Social Welfare in New Zealand, points out the significance, particularly for the United States, of that method of government which he calls State Socialism. Nothing so annoys New Zealanders as the ever-recurring criticism that their experiments have been carried out upon too small a scale and under conditions too unusual to be of value to the great remote countries whose single cities contain more people than the whole dominion of New Zealand. Yet doubters still will question, and standpatters will refuse to be moved, by this account of actual accomplishments. He who is not blind, however, to the evils which have followed private profit in public utilities, and who has seen governments conferring special privileges upon the few at the expense of the many, as he turns here again to New Zealand may well find inspiring faith in the ability of a whole people to legislate toward the common good.

Mr. Lusk shows how in New Zealand, government-built railroads became a necessity in a sparsely settled country where private capital would not venture, and how an extensive scheme of legislation for the benefit of settlers on the land was forced upon a people whose appetite for mutual help grew with what it fed upon. Each piece of legislation had in view no more than the meeting of a definite difficulty as it arose. Yet step by step New Zealanders went on in the same direction, until they had reached the point where, somewhat to their own surprise, they found themselves famous and envied in the world at large. Some of that surprise is due to the fact that politics, even as we know them here, are there recognized to have played an important part in shaping the destinies of those islands. "Dick" Seddon and his followers appreciated to its full, the vote-getting value of land reform, progressive taxation and public improvements. Mr. Lusk makes too little of this significant lesson from New Zealand.

And by one who understands the "States" so well, and who is writing for our encouragement and warning, it is surprising that more emphasis is not placed upon methods of administration. To me, as I came to appreciate the New Zealand civil servant, his integrity, his ability, the esteem with which he is held, it always seemed that in him more than anywhere else was to be found the secret of such success as New Zealand has attained. Turn the present corps out and put in such incompetents and grafters as we have in many of our state departments in America, and the whole New Zealand structure would come tumbling down immediately. Not until law and public opinion make it possible, can we have here such administration of labor laws, for instance, as Edward Tregear has given these many years to New Zealand, and not until then will new labor laws be of much more avail to us than old ones are now.

Mr. Lusk's moral is, "Go thou and do likewise." By law prevent the accumulation of inordinate riches and provide for the general dif-

fusion of the sum total of prosperity. But when we find that, putting the best construction upon available data, the definition of a man or woman not in receipt of an income of more than $975, "in New Zealand, practically includes all classes and persons engaged in laboring or mechanical pursuits as well as junior clerks or school teachers," we wonder, after all, whether New Zealand's road is the one for others to follow. There is many and many a man and woman in that country to whom $975 a year is undreamed of comfort. If this is all that reform can do under the best of circumstances, is this particular game worth the candle? The New Zealand worker just now is saying rather vociferously that it is not. There lies the real hope for reform, that it does not stop, even though it falters. The final lesson from New Zealand is beyond what we are here told. Surely it is that those who will may preach reform and State Socialism to their hearts' content, but that the workers of other countries must not imitate the mistakes of their New Zealand brothers, neglecting political and industrial organization and leaving it to others to decide what is the public welfare.

PAUL KENNADAY.

FIRE PREVENTION

By Edward F. Croker. Dodd, Mead & Co. 354 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.

Fire Prevention, by Edward F. Croker, formerly chief of the New York Fire Department for almost twelve years, is a presentation of the principal safeguards against loss by fire. In it ex-Chief Croker tells in a readable way what, from his long experience as a fire fighter, he considers the most effective ways to extinguish fires.

Most of all he emphasizes the necessity of preventing fires. "If I had my way about it," he says, "I would not permit a piece of wood as big as a man's finger to be used in the construction of any building in the United States which had a ground area larger than twenty-five by fifty feet and was more than three stories in height." He calls attention also, to a point which has been emphasized many times when he declares that "it is not so much the buildings which should receive added protection but the contents and the inmates of them. We must add to the term 'fire-proof,' the terms 'death-proof' and 'conflagration proof.'"

Perhaps to a lay reader to whom some of the intricacies of steel construction, high pressure, and fire-fighting apparatus are not plain, the most interesting chapters are those which deal with housekeeping whether in the home, store or workshop.

In his chapter on Prevention of Fire in the Dwelling, Mr. Croker gives a number of simple suggestions which would prevent most of the thousands and thousands of fires in the 11,000,000 wooden buildings in this country and save a financial loss which in two years equals the cost of the Panama Canal. Concerning these suggestions there can be little disagreement, although those which he makes for additional laws may not win as unanimous support.

JAMES P. HEATON.

THE CHILDREN IN THE SHADOW

By ERNEST K. COULTER. McBride, Nast & Co. 277 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

THE AMERICAN CHILD

By ELIZABETH MCCRACKEN. Houghton Mifflin, Riverside Press. 191 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

To gain the sympathetic and accurate knowledge of children shown in his book, Mr. Coulter stood on the reviewing stand for ten years. His was the eye to see and the heart to feel from the first, but as clerk of the Children's Court in Manhattan for ten years he had the unique opportunity of looking into the faces of a procession of 100,000 dependent, neglected and delinquent children as they filed by the judge and told their stories.

These stories he often verified in alley, street, tenement, station house, reformatory and prison. He shows how crowded streets, lack of play space, poverty, sickness, insanitary houses, criminal companions and parental neglect provide a fruitful soil in which to breed neglected and delinquent boys and girls. These conditions he charges to the greed of individuals and to the careless, neglectful indifference of society.

As a means of helping individual boys who need the personal touch of a friend right now, Mr. Coulter started the Big Brother Movement, which is spreading all over the country. His permanent remedy for the woes of children, however, requires not only the love of Big Brothers, parents and friends, but also sanitary houses, good food, playgrounds, fresh air and sky. Mr. Coulter's pen pictures of Children in the Shadow challenge us all not to rest until all such children are brought out into the sunlight.

* * *

Miss McCracken's book is a reprint of articles which originally appeared in the *Outlook*, and deals with actual children and parents of rather exceptional intelligence in both city and country. What these exceptional American parents do for their children in home, play, school, library and church is told in such a way as to appeal to and educate parents who are not exceptional.

What children do for their parents is also set forth. The real message of the book is that the reciprocal relation of children and parents can be and should be one of the most beautiful and helpful that this old world knows. The title might have been True Stories of Parents Who Knew How to Live with Their Children.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

CO-OPERATION IN NEW ENGLAND

By JAMES FORD. Introduction by Francis G. Peabody. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Survey Associates, Inc. 300 pp. Price $1.50, postpaid.

Individualism is generally assigned as the primary cause of the failure of co-operation to gain a more extensive foothold on Americai soil. But to the student of the subject this off-hand explanation is far from conclusive. For not only have Americans been the leading exponents of political, social and religious co-operation, but they have likewise shown marked aptitude for economic co-operation. Our very

national life is purely co-operative. Our big business is, though not in a strict sense, in a large sense co-operative. Furthermore, were the traditional American individualism the sole or even the main cause, why has co-operation in this country met with no wider acceptance or greater success among the immigrants coming from countries where co-operation is practiced to a very high degree? We must therefore look for other reasons to account for the bankruptcy of co-operative effort in this country. These are set forth by Dr. James Ford in his book Co-operation in New England.

The first co-operative movement in the New England States, the New England Protective Union stores, began in 1845 and ended in 1857. The second movement, the Sovereigns of Industry, which was launched in 1874, had an equally brief history. The first had at one time as many as 700 stores, of which but two remain; while five are left of the 280 of which the latter movement once boasted. At the present time urban co-operation is practically confined to immigrants, largely non-English speaking. Their efforts have not met with much greater success than those of New England's native sons. All told, there are about sixty co-operative stores throughout New England. Most of them are too young, too small, and too isolated to be dignified as a movement.

The meagre results of distributive co-operation are only exceeded by those of co-operation in manufacture. All effort in that direction has been abortive, and "true co-operative production does not exist in New England."

The author finds greater cause for encouragement in rural co-operation. "The farmers' movement," he says, "which is much more influential in the industrial world, not only penetrates, by means of co-operative creameries, almost every township of western New England, but through association for co-operative sale extends to many other large territories." Co-operation among farmers consists of co-operative buying of supplies, co-operative marketing of products, and co-operative production in the way of butter and cheese making. He estimates the number of more or less co-operative creameries throughout New England at 125, although probably not more than twenty-five of these are purely co-operative. "There are many indications to-day," continues the author, "that rural New England has reached a point not only desirable but increasingly practicable." With a large American commission now abroad for the special purpose of studying agricultural co-operation, it is to be hoped that this movement will be accelerated.

The really important part of Dr. Ford's book is his discussion of general co-operative principles. The economic conditions for successful co-operation are wanting in this country. People will co-operate either because they are driven to it by necessity, as is the case in Europe, or because they see in it special inducement to make it worth their while. Unfortunately, or rather fortunately, these conditions do not exist in the United States so far. In a country where every workingman carries the baton of a captain of industry in his dinner pail, it is not surprising that he will not set aside the opportunities of individual effort in favor of the uncertain, remote, and, at best, meagre returns of co-operative endeavor. All other reasons, such as the mobility of our population, our improvidence, and our lack of co-operative spirit must give way before this one fundamental reason.

The conditions that are responsible for the heavy mortality of co-operative enterprises in this country are rapidly changing. The obstacles in the way of co-operative success are gradually disappearing. Once the point is reached in New England as it has been abroad, at which societies of like interest federate for educational and trade advantage, these smaller federations "will in turn unite in a general co-operative union with common funds to sustain societies that are weak, and promote development on lines of common importance, an immense force will be set at work for the moralization of trade, the reduction of the cost of living, and the socialization of the people."

As the title indicates, the book deals only with co-operation in the New England states. The author further limits his research to "associations for the production and distribution of the immediate necessities of life." Notwithstanding this limiting of the inquiry both in scope and extent the book should prove of value to the student of co-operation in this country. The facts have been painstakingly collected. The author's insight is keen and penetrating, his deductions are clear and logical, and his hopeful tone is most invigorating.

LEONARD G. ROBINSON.

THE CASE OF OSCAR SLATER

By A. CONAN DOYLE. GEORGE H. DORAN CO. 103 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.57.

The case of Oscar Slater, sentenced in the High Court of Edinburgh to life imprisonment for the murder of an old lady in Glasgow, was some time ago brought to the attention of the famous writer of detective stories, together with certain circumstances which cast doubt on Slater's guilt. With a sincere desire to clear the man, the creator of Sherlock Holmes set to work to examine the evidence and testimony presented at the trial, and to analyze the conduct of the case and the decision of judge and jury.

The result is a convincing argument for the man's innocence of the offence for which he was convicted and an arraignment of the ineffective methods of the police who were engaged in the investigation, both in Scotland and in this country.

The undeniably bad character of the suspect created so strong a presumption of guilt that even the total refutation of the strongest piece of evidence and an obviously false accusation by the judge in his final charge, secured only a commutation of the death sentence to life imprisonment when an appeal was made.

It will be interesting to know whether the detective knight's efforts toward securing justice meet with success.

MAY LANGDON WHITE.

PERSONALS

THE first woman judge of delinquent girls sits on the bench in the Chicago Juvenile Court. She is Mary M. Bartelme, a Chicago lawyer. Previous to her present connection she was for eighteen years public guardian of Cook County, acting in this office, in the words of the *Continent,* as "official mother to hundreds, perhaps thousands, of children" who had no other parents and whose persons or estates were in the care of the court. Guardianship of their persons meant actual custody and education, and this for a period of many years; it meant also in many cases interest and love for the child and always, in the tangled relations of life, an understanding of human nature, as well as a thorough knowledge of the institutions best fitted for special cases. All this experience has thus been excellent preparation for Miss Bartelme's present delicate task of reconstructing the lives and characters of delinquent girls.

Up to the time of her appointment cases of delinquent girls were heard, like those of boys, in open court. The effect is thus described by Judge Pinckney of the Chicago Court, whose assistant Miss Bartelme is:

"The delinquent girl, unlike the delinquent boy, is generally brought to court for some sexual irregularity. This means that the story of her shame and downfall is told openly, publicly. There are often present at such times curiosity seekers, sensation hunters, and now and then among the latter, I am sorry to say, are newspaper reporters looking for a story. Frequently the name of the girl, the names of her parents, of her brothers and sisters, and her home address appear in the newspapers, with all the harrowing details of her trouble. She is fortunate if her picture is not surreptitiously taken for publication.

"After such an exploitation of her trouble, you tell the unfortunate child that you want to do something for her—you want to help her. Is it any wonder that she does not readily respond to the proffered aid? Her feelings shocked, her sensibilities blunted, her sense of justice outraged, she is more apt to refuse than accept your suggestions for her future welfare. To my mind this procedure is unnecessary, is wrong, is barbarous. Even under the most favorable conditions possible to a public hearing, it is difficult to get into sympathetic touch with the child so that she will be in a receptive mood and willingly amenable to helpful suggestion and treatment.

"The plan proposed is to have the case of each delinquent girl heard by a woman, who shall act as the representative and assistant of the presiding judge. To this woman assistant, in the presence of the girl's father and mother, the witnesses will tell the girl's story. Every consideration will be shown the girl and her family. In so far as it is possible to do so, this darkened page in their lives will be guarded from the public gaze.



MARY M. BARTELME

"It is believed that these delinquent girls will the more readily unburden their souls to one of their own sex, and especially if allowed to so do out of hearing of the public and surrounded by father and mother and those in sympathy with her and them.

"This is the all-important work for delinquent girls which Mary M. Bartelme is expected to do —will do. She is the unanimous choice of the judges of the Circuit Court for the position of assistant to the judge of the Juvenile Court."

* * *

AT the recent annual meeting of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Dr. **Edward L. Keyes, Jr.,** was elected president, to succeed Dr. Prince A. Morrow, founder, and until his death the head of the society.

Dr. Keyes is a charter member of the society and was for many years its secretary. He has also been a member of the Executive Committee, and worked in close touch with Dr. Morrow. Dr. Keyes is a professor at the Cornell Medical School and president of the American Association of Genito-Urinary Surgeons.

Professor Maurice A. Bigelow of Teachers' College, Columbia University, and Dr. Rosalie Slaughter Morton were elected to fill the vacancies in the Executive Committee. Mr. Marshall C. Allaben of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions was chosen chairman of the Executive Committee.

THE Italian Club of New York is an interesting center. In the low-ceilinged basement opera singers, art importers, physicians, orchestra leaders and the like rub elbows at the club tables.

In the three rooms on the main floor an exhibition is being held this month of the drawings of Joseph Stella, an Italian artist of more than ordinary promise. He is a brother of Dr. Antonio Stella, a pioneer in the tuberculosis movement and a leader in New York's civic life, The artist himself was a member of the staff of the Pittsburgh Survey, and readers of this magazine will remember the striking character sketches of the steel workers he drew in black and white. An entire room is given up to these Pittsburgh drawings, which in many respects represent the artist's most forceful workmanship. In another room is his earlier work with East Side types, and in another the canvasses he has produced in Rome and Paris, where he has spent the last two years. These have the color and method of the post-impressionists.

It is perhaps natural that the social workers who attend the exhibit drift back to the central room, where the artist's pencil has so sympathetically and vigorously transcribed the writings, which stress and want and hope and striving spread over the faces of the steel district, immigrant and native-born alike.

There are also some charcoal sketches of Pittsburgh at night which did not lend themselves to magazine publication, but reflect marvelously the smoke and energy of the river valleys.



DOWN AND OUT
A hitherto unpublished sketch by Joseph Stella.

* * *

STEADFAST and resourceful, with a strong body, a kind heart, a reverent spirit, combining rare judgment with knowledge, a leader well equipped for the service of her fellows has been lost to the Pacific Coast in the death of Dr. C. Annette Buckel of Oakland, Cal. Dr. Buckel was born in Warsaw, N. Y., in 1833. Earning the means for her medical education by teaching, she rendered efficient service in the United States military hospitals of the Southwest during the last two years of the Civil War. She selected and supervised the nurses, kept records in the absence of clerks, wrote letters for sick soldiers, obtained furloughs for convalescents, and comforted the dying.

Dr. Buckel is perhaps better known to readers of THE SURVEY, however, for her work in other warfare: as president of the first milk commission in California, which excluded tuberculous cows from the dairy. In all her work she emphasized prevention rather than cure. Through her efforts a school of cookery was opened, which resulted in manual training becoming a part of the public school system in Oakland. She was a director in the Mary R. Smith Trust from its beginning, and took a personal interest in each little girl in the cottage homes. So keen was her concern for handicapped children that at her death she gave her home that the proceeds might help in providing special training for such children.

S. I. S.

* * *

DR. JOHN S. FULTON, secretary of the International Congress on Tuberculosis, since 1907, has resumed at a personal financial sacrifice, the secretaryship of the Maryland State Board of Health. Dr. Fulton has already been connected with the State Board of Health of Maryland and was its secretary for several years before he resigned to accept the position he has just vacated. He succeeds Dr. Marshall L. Price who was medical assistant of the board up to 1907 when he was elected secretary.

COMMUNICATIONS

RELIEF OF WIDOWS

To the Editor:

I thoroughly disagree with Porter R. Lee's appraisal of the report of the Massachusetts commission on the children of widows, and regret that the report will be seen by only a part of your readers.[1]

Mr. Lee holds the commission's conclusions to be of little value because derived "in almost every case from inadequate data." Yet he adds later: "The report of the commission gives us much that suggests the fact of our failure to provide adequately or helpfully for the families of widows, a fact of which we had already become conscious. What we need, however, is not so much evidence of the fact of failure as a clear understanding of why we have failed."

It might be honest to state that some of our figures are inaccurate and yet not dishonest to recommend legislation. Wholly accurate figures were never expected and not needed. The heads of the leading charitable organizations met us in conference to determine a method of investigation. The schedule method was recommended. Before the schedules were printed they were approved by several of these persons. Criticism began to appear when it seemed likely that legislation would be recommended. In June the appropriation could still have been saved. It was not saved because useful results were expected.

How inaccurate are the results? Mr. Tilley is cited as saying that a re-examination of one hundred cases disclosed "facts . . . totally at variance with the reports." Half of these records we already had discredited. Some cases resulted in reports closely like our own, sometimes lower, sometimes higher. The re-examination was in December, months after the first study. How absurd it is to suppose that the results would not be different! Everybody knows that the earnings of the poor fluctuate. Usually the overseers of the poor give special aid in winter. A page of our report explains Mr. Tilley's one hundred cases; he makes only a blanket statement.

But again, how inaccurate are the results? The recommendations of our Minimum Wage Commission were accepted when it showed that $6 or $7 a week was the typical sum earned by an adult woman with a family which had also an adult male worker. Many such women received charity in addition. All of our widows received charity. From charity and wages together, our figures showed that they typically received $6 or $7 a week when there was not also an adult male worker and when several children had to be supported. It is not possible that our figures were so far wrong that these families were better off than the former group. And if they were so far wrong—what an indictment that would be of the accounting of the public and private charitable officers of Massachusetts!

No, the figures do not err so far. Our charities constantly protest that they have insufficient funds. Before me lies a circular of the Associated Charities of a city of 100,000 people, which has many well-to-do persons and few recent foreigners. The resources "to meet the needs of families in distress are wholly inadequate, as is well known to all familiar with the conditions. . . . We still use existing resources to the utmost. . . . Still we fall far short of being able to meet the demands upon us. Must we allow widows with young children to be overburdened and underfed," etc? Are such stories untrue? Of course not! Most communities in Massachusetts have a poorer population and a weaker organized charity for dealing with the problem.

But, further, our opponents suggest an alternative bill, providing for "adequate" aid for all mothers with dependent children. If existing relief is adequate, this bill is a sham. The only alternative is to regard these opponents as agreeing that existing relief is inadequate.

The Legislature that gave us $1,000 hardly expected a wealth of figures. Mr. Lee does not in other matters rely on figures, I am happy to observe. "During recent years," he says, "our enlarging conceptions of social treatment [not our figures—they are impotent] have condemned utterly much of our supposedly efficient work in family and individual reconstruction." And for widows he grants: "There is a widespread conviction of sin in this matter and an earnest searching for the remedy."

Our analogy (with its implications) of widowhood through industrial accident and through disease, Mr. Lee mistakenly, I believe, regards as disproved by ourselves. For, he says, we reject the principle of payment by way of indemnity for loss. We reject it as a determining principle; another principle is more fundamental. Workmen's compensation measures, like sickness and old-age insurance, spring fundamentally from a desire to establish or maintain the conditions of efficient living. Nobody attempts really to measure the loss through death by accident. It cannot be done.

But a man's wages can be studied to learn his standard of living, and then an expedient degree of comfort provided. The Washington act does not even relate the award to the dead man's wages. Usually the award increases with the number of children. German statutes have all had the comfort of the survivors in view. No abstract desire to compensate for loss would ever secure legislation if, as a consequence, the efficiency and comfort of the population were to decrease.

Not only is Mr. Lee anxious to find whether relief is now adequate or not, but he wants to know where the flaw in the service is. Both questions are answered by our information as to the policies of the child-helping and relief-giving agencies. He doubts whether child-helping agencies are "competent witnesses" to

[1]The report is for free distribution and may be had by writing to the Commission to Study the Question of the Support of Dependent Minor Children of Widowed Mothers, State House, Boston, Mass.

the causes for the removal of children. Are they likely then to remove children for competent cause? Persons incompetent to discern the presence of factors that make non-removal desirable will scarcely remove for proper cause only. The letters of these agencies would repay reading.

What these letters say about local relief resources is more than borne out by the reports of policy contained in the letters from the overseers. Most widows are in their hands. Our schedules, further, show that actually $2 to $2.50 a week per family is usually given. None of our critics attack these statements. There is a problem and present agents do not cope with it.

Suppose we had sent into the field experts to find out whether relief is adequate. We should again face the issue of standards. Responsible persons have not accepted Mr. Carstens' interpretation of the Chicago plan. One of the visitors of the State Board of Charity whom Mr. Tilley sent to verify records reported one case: "Widow for nine months. Four children, fourteen to seven years. . . . Complains of work being slack and has not had a full week's wages for a long time. . . . Is terribly overworked; there seems to be nothing but skin and bone to her. The standing on her feet all day in the shop is what kills her. . . . *Could stand a little more aid until the combined earnings of herself and daughter show a little increase.*" A little more aid! Just how much more will be differently fixed by different people. Most widows' families in Massachusetts are not within sight of Mrs. More's and Mr. Chapin's standards.

The conclusion remains that the overseers and many child societies are not working well. We have a thousand overseers, elected for short terms, and receiving little or no pay. Often they serve also in other capacities and carry on private affairs. If ordered by an expert commission to make specified payments to widows fit to bring up their children they might apply the standard to other cases. The commission would select its widows. Mr. Lee wholly misrepresents our intention when he notes "incidentally that the cause of a husband's death is not always a satisfactory test of a wife's moral habits."

Mr. Lee objects that we offer nothing for the children of disabled fathers, etc. If a third of the charity problem—widows—were to come under the care of a new commission, that commission would be able to work out its specialized technique. Later, we might know better what to do about desertion and other problems. Meanwhile existing charities, having a lighter load, could deal better with their remaining cases.

Then as to our use of the word "worthy." It is old-fashioned, but convenient. No person works long in charities who acts on the notion that one person is actually as good as another—else it would be folly to try to make a person better! Mr. Lee supposes us to regard the children of the disabled and similar groups as "unworthy." Where such an implication is even suggested I cannot discover.

In conclusion, I suppose that Mr. Lee and I differ fundamentally in our approval of a proposed method of dealing with widows, and that his criticism is derived from his point of view.

ROBERT F. FOERSTER.

[Chairman Massachusetts Commission on the Dependent Children of Widowed Mothers.]

Cambridge.

I have read Professor Foerster's letter with much interest. His last sentence: "I suppose that Mr. Lee and I differ fundamentally in our approval of a proposed method of dealing with widows and that his criticism is derived from his point of view," a clear-cut statement of the possible reason for my criticism of the Massachusetts report, is not wholly accurate. The agitation for widows' pensions has caught so large a measure of popular support that we begin to think that every person must be for pensions, against pensions, or on the fence ready to jump to one side or the other. Such a choice of alternatives has little attraction for any one who approaches the question out of thoughtful experience with relief problems and the long struggle to procure for the widow and others who live in misery adequate reinforcements—reinforcements of income, health, recreation, education for children and decent living conditions.

Those who have been most concerned to do justice to the widow with children have seen most clearly the failure of our relief measures. The indictment which they have brought again and again has rehearsed the fact of our failure which is suggested anew by the Massachusetts report.

But an indictment is not a remedy. The evidence behind it is not even valid always in the search for a remedy. What we need to know now is why have public and private relief failed. Professor Foerster mentions several statements of mine which do not seem to him successful arguments against widows' pensions. I am not arguing against widows' pensions. I merely recognize many considerations growing out of ten years' experience in social work which make me both dissatisfied with what we are doing and suggest the need for the most careful study before we can be sure of a remedy.

I realize that many people grow impatient when the question of widows' pensions is related to the problem of relief. Perhaps the movement, as some people hope, will be the entering wedge of a system of state endowment of motherhood. We cannot wisely, however, begin experiments for the sake of their expected future value with a total disregard of their certain present effect. Widows' pensions as projected by the commission would be in fact a relief problem. The responsibility of the public outdoor relief machinery for their administration as proposed by the commission's bill would indicate this even if there were no other indications, which there are.

I have found the Massachusetts report of the

greatest interest, but in my judgment it does not justify widows' pensions. The figures and the expressions of opinion secured from various agencies are significant. They are significant of the need for a deeper probe, however, not for an extension of an unsatisfactory system of relief. A recommendation that this deeper probe be undertaken is the one recommendation to which it logically leads.

It is because states which regard Massachusetts precedents with respect are likely to consider this report as the long-needed scientific and comprehensive study of the status of outdoor relief that I have tried to estimate it from this point of view.

The commonwealth of Massachusetts gave Professor Foerster and his associates on the commission a tremendously difficult task and gave them hopelessly inadequate facilities with which to perform it. Under the circumstances, perhaps none of us could have done any better. But Massachusetts should have done better.

PORTER R. LEE.

[Contributing Editor Family Rehabilitation.]
New York.

CASUALTY COMPANIES AND COMPENSATION

(From a personal letter to the editors of The Survey published with permission of the author.)

TO THE EDITOR:

Allow me to say that I absolutely endorse the article in a recent issue by Paul Kennaday entitled Big Business and Workmen's Compensation.[1] I have been acting for the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, a body corresponding to your National Association of Manufacturers, but more highly organized and representing a much larger proportion of its constituency than the American body. In fact, we represent about 85 per cent of all the manufacturers of Canada. I say this to indicate the probability that the Canadian body would not adopt any policy without the most careful consideration and investigation. This body has adopted the same view as that expressed in the article and is devoting a large amount of energy and considerable money promoting a workmen's compensation system of the type of the Washington system.

There is not the slightest doubt in my mind that such a system is the only satisfactory solution ultimate or even temporary to the problem. This view is of course opposed by the liability insurance interests who are conducting a carefully planned and well financed campaign against "state insurance."

Time and again we have had to deal with the representatives of these insurance interests in connection with the investigation in Ontario preliminary to the drafting of a Workmen's Compensation Act for that province, and I am glad to state that, generally speaking, the motives and arguments (perfectly legitimate perhaps) of the insurance interests are understood and rated at their proper value. I think I have a pretty broad view of the situation in the United States and I am sorry to say that the true position of affairs does not appear to be generally appreciated by either the politicians or the leaders of labor and industry. I should think it might well be one of the functions of THE SURVEY to open up this matter.

F. W. WEGENAST.

[Counsel Canadian Manufacturers' Association.]
Toronto.

[1] See THE SURVEY for March 8, page 809.

WAGES FIXED BY LAW

TO THE EDITOR:

In his letter to THE SURVEY on the subject of fixing wages by law, James Deegan says: "The report of the United States Bureau of Commerce and Labor for 1910 states how labor received only 20 per cent of the value of the product which it served to create."

Considering carefully this rather surprising statement, I came to the conclusion that the writer referred to the report of the Census Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor, presenting the results of the manufacturers census of 1910. To be sure, this report does not make any such statement as that which Mr. Deegan attributes to it nor could the statement be properly based upon the statistics which it publishes. On the contrary, the census figures conclusively disprove this statement, showing it to be a gross perversion of the facts.

It is true that the total value of products reported by the census of manufacturing industries was a little over $20,000,000,000, while the amount paid out for wages and salaries was a trifle over $4,000,000,000, so that the latter amount was about 20 per cent of the former.

If Mr. Deegan had stated that the amount paid to labor employed in manufacturing industries represented 20 per cent of the total value of the products turned out by these industries, the statement would have been formally accurate, although it probably would be misleading even then. The statement is, however, that labor received only 20 per cent of the value of the product which it served to create.

Even with a superficial knowledge of economics and industrial processes one ought to perceive that the laborers employed in manufacturing industries by no means create the full value of the products which these industries place upon the market. The laborer in the factory does not create the raw material which the factory uses; labor on the farm, in the mine or in the forest entered into that.

Now the report of the census shows that while the value of the product produced by the manufacturing industries of the United States was $20,700,000,000, the cost of the materials consumed in the manufacture of these products was $12,200,000,000 and that the value of the products, less cost of materials, was therefore about $8,500,000,000. The value created by the laborers employed in these industries could not possibly exceed this sum and would be considerably less than this if any allowance were made for wear and tear or depreciation of plant and machinery or fuel consumed or for other expenses which enter into the value of the final product.

If, however, we credit laborers with having produced the full value represented by the dif-

[1] See THE SURVEY, February 8, 1913, p. 653.

ference between the cost of materials and the final value of products it follows that the $4,000,000,000 which they received represented not 20 per cent but about 50 per cent of the value which they created.

If we deduct from the final value not only the materials purchased but also the miscellaneous expenses reported by the census, none of which represent values created in these industries, the proportion received by the laborers advances to about 65 per cent. And still no allowance is made for replacement of capital.

Mr. Deegan's proposition for regulating wages proposes to award the laborers a minimum of 33 1/3 per cent. It is evident that they are much better off than this under the present regime and without any state regulation of wages.

Mr. Deegan further states that the report referred to "also shows that after all expenses and charges are levied, there still remains over $2,000,000,000 surplus to be divided as profits among the employers." It is true that after deducting from the value of the products reported by the census, the aggregate of all reported expenses, the remainder is a little over $2,000,000,000; but the census report is careful to point out that this difference can not be regarded as representing profits for the simple reason that the expenses reported by the census did not include all the expenses incidental to the process of manufacture. Among the expenses left out of account is the important item of depreciation.

If Mr. Deegan had consulted the census report itself, such statements as he made would be reprehensible as well as inexcusable; but I presume that he got his information at second hand from some newspaper paragraph or article originating no one knows how or where.

But THE SURVEY, however, ought not to be made the agency for the further promulgation of such misinformation. It might be said, perhaps, that such gross misstatements do not deceive thinking and well-informed people; but even well-informed people do not always know the facts which refute such statements; and thinking people do not have time to think about everything.

More than that it seems to me that some consideration should be shown for the unthinking people that they may not be deceived or misled.

Some of them have a vote.

JOSEPH A. HILL.

[Bureau of the Census.]
Washington.

JOTTINGS

HALVING THE TAX RATE

The Salant-Schaap lower rents bill, which provides for submitting to a referendum vote the gradual lowering of the tax rate on all buildings in New York city to one-half the rate on land, was killed in committee in the New York Legislature. This is the bill which was advocated at the Lower Rents Exhibit described in THE SURVEY of March 15 last.

RELIEF FOR BEDFORD REFORMATORY

In the final hours of the New York Legislature the sum voted to Bedford Reformatory to relieve overcrowding was $414,000 and not $500,000 as was stated in THE SURVEY of last week.

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

By unanimous vote both the Senate and the Assembly in New York passed the bill to incorporate the Rockefeller Foundation for the dissemination of knowledge, the prevention of suffering, and the promotion of the well-being and civilization of the peoples of the United States. The bill which is very similar to the one urged before Congress in 1910 has not yet been signed by Governor Sulzer.

HUNGARY PROTECTS ABANDONED CHILDREN

Hungary maintains seventeen institutions for indigent, abandoned, deliquent and abused children. It is the custom to receive every child applicant, to give him a bath and clean clothes, and then to investigate his condition. If the investigation warrants the state's interference the child is admitted. Seventeen thousand children were thus received in 1908. Most of them are placed out in the country or smaller cities with farmers or artisans of good character and in moderate circumstances. Five reformatories have been established for deliquent or absolutely unruly children. They have room for a thousand inmates, who live together in family groups of twenty-five, learning a trade under the supervision of the head of the household. Corporal punishment is still administered. Up to 1908, 2,331 inmates had been released on parole, 86.6 per cent had worked steadily and had kept straight, 5.4 per cent had committed crimes and 8 per cent had disappeared.

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THE following letter will go further than a many-columned table of statistics in showing just what we mean when we say THE SURVEY has an educational purpose and appeals for funds to carry that purpose forward.

To that end we ask those who can afford it to become more than regular $2 subscribers. We ask them to become co-operating subscribers at $10 each—to help shoulder the expense above circulation and advertising results. Will you be one?

To the Editor: April 29, 1913.

May I submit a word of appreciation of THE SURVEY? It was just after I left New York city three years ago that I came to know it. A good cousin of mine, knowing I was destined for a few years on a western homestead, saw to it that THE SURVEY found me. For three years now I've been ranching—making the acquaintance of cowpunchers, bronchos, rattlesnakes and dry-farming; branding calves, peddling cream, eggs and dutch cheese to the back doors of the towns-folk not far away; living out of doors a half Indian life beneath the blue sky and among those sunset covered hills—and yet in it all feeling the pulse of the world as I had never felt it before—largely because of the spirit bred in me by THE SURVEY.

I haven't been able to do much missionary work as yet. As occasion has arisen I have given my word of criticism and suggestion to a feebly awakening civic spirit in the town near by. My Sunday school boys—some of them I've inoculated, I know, with an interest in the larger things. One of them—a lad never fifty miles from home, chose as his senior (high school) oration the theme of preventable industrial accidents and diseases. He is keenly interested in it, has read THE SURVEY and other literature I gave him, and I am sure will carry his interest on up through college days.

One thing I surely know, and that is that I return to my work under the Young Men's Christian Association, probably as a community boys' work secretary, feeling as though, instead of having been ranching these three years, I had been taking a graduate course in social problems.

Some day I may do that, but whether or no, I owe a great deal to THE SURVEY. And you may count on me as a "booster" because of what THE SURVEY means to me.

EDWIN MICHAEL HOFFMAN.

Tannenwald, Hot Springs, So. Dak.

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CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York. Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc. of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction, when desired. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request.
Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York.
Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

EUGENICS—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect. Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership $2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SEX EDUCATION. The American Federation for Sex Hygiene, Tilden Building, 105 West Fortieth Street, New York City. Constituent societies throughout the country. Publications to members and upon application. Membership $2 per year.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, $1 per year. Membership, annual dues $2, includes all literature.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education—promotion, discussion, investigation, publications, clearing house of information, legislation, experimentation, constructive work and co-operating agency. For literature, address C. A. Prosser, Secretary, Room 415, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN.—Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston Street, Boston. Mary Schenck Woolman, President. Training for Vocational Teaching and Trade Experience in co-operation with Simmons College: Placement Bureau for Trained Women; graduate Fellowships in Industrial Research. Publication on "Economic Relations of Women."

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee $1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

WORKING WOMEN—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. *"Life and Labor,"* events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Jean Hamilton.
Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker," Twenty-five cents 1 year.

YOUNG WOMEN—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 600 pp. per vol. $2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics Meeting: Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

HOW TO START SOCIAL CENTERS—A pamphlet of 48 pages suggesting in detail,—how to create and organize public sentiment, secure cooperation, develop the facilities at hand, arrange attractive programs, etc. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.
Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, $2 a year.

FEDERATED BOYS' CLUBS—National Headquarters, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass. A clearing house for information on subjects relating to work with boys. Printed matter distributed; clubs organized; workers furnished; conferences conducted. Invites membership. Club $2.00; individual $1.00. Thomas Chew, President; Geo. D. Chamberlain, Acting Ex. Secty.

BOY SCOUTS—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, *"Boys' Life"* $1 a year. Memberships: Associate $3, Sustaining $10.

MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS—National Municipal League 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

CITY PLANNING—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at $5 a Year Includes All Literature.

DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

POLITICAL SURVEYS—Progressive National Service, Forty-Second Street Building, New York City, Frances A. Kellor, Chief of Service, National clearing house for political action on social and industrial justice, conservation, judiciary reform, initiative referendum and recall, corporation control and related subjects.

THE SMOKE NUISANCE—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, Pres.; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters.*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.
To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc.. sent free.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION — The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

ORGANIZED CHARITY—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.
To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.
For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY—*April*: Eugenics. *May*: Euthenics. *June*: The Unfit.
See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 75c. per year; club rate 50c.

EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.
Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.
Rev. Harry F. Ward, Secy., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood.
To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.
S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY—*The Congregational Brotherhood of America*, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York.
Sociological surveys made, Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

THE AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY—Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y.
The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, $5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.
Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

IMMIGRATION—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Warren C. Eberle, General Secretary; Frances A. Kellor, Managing Director.

IMMIGRANT GIRLS—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.
For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Secy., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

PROBATION—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

LABOR LEGISLATION—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.
Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.
American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

PRISON LABOR—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph. D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. $5 a year.

SETTLEMENTS—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

THE PITH OF IT

TO the Supreme Court of Mississippi belongs the unique distinction of being the first to declare for "the inalienable right to rest." It has upheld a general law regulating the hours of labor in manufacturing industries, not classed as dangerous, applying to men and women alike. P. 264.

A NEW England school superintendent has applied efficiency tests to determine just what one dollar is buying in the educational market. He discovered that Greek is the most expensive and music the cheapest subject in a high school curriculum. P. 270.

HARRY Deiman, in The Institutional Church for the Rural Community, declares that it is really the church whose functions and methods are defined by the manifest needs of the country community. P. 280.

GOVERNOR Sulzer of New York has signed the Seely-McDaniels bill for the reorganization of the state health department. P. 296.

SERIOUS attention is being given to the minimum wage by the National Retail Dry Goods Association. P. 260.

CITIES small and large throughout the country have followed the example of New York and Chicago Child Welfare Exhibits till it was deemed advisable to organize the National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee. P. 290.

NEVER before since the days of Plato and Aristotle have cities given such conscious thought to leisure time and play and recreation as at the Recreation Congress held at Richmond, May 6-10. P. 292.

PERHAPS no stronger evidence of the commercialization of vice has ever been offered than George J. Kneeland's study for the Bureau of Social Hygiene which has just been published. He lays bare the operations of "the stock market where members bid and outbid each other" for shares in brothels. P. 257.

JOHN MITCHELL, former president of the United Mine Workers of America, has decided to accept a recess appointment by Governor Sulzer of New York as state labor commissioner. Before the Legislature adjourned Mr. Mitchell was twice nominated for this office but was rejected by the Senate.

IT was announced last week that Charles P. Neill, who was recently appointed United States commissioner of labor statistics, his former position of commissioner of labor having been abolished when the new Department of Labor was created, has resigned. He has decided to take charge of the new labor department, organized by the American Smelting and Refining Company.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE
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FULL and frank discussion of the Friedmann cure lent unusual interest to the proceedings of the annual meeting of the National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. Aside from this the meeting inventoried our equipment for success against tuberculosis. P. 288.

THE COMMON WELFARE

ROCKEFELLER REPORT ON COMMERCIALIZED VICE

"Prostitution in New York city is widely and openly exploited as a business enterprise. The exploiters, the scenes of their operations, their methods, their associations and their victims are all equally notorious. It is idle to explain away the phenomena on the ground that they are the results of the inevitable weakness of human nature; human weakness would demand far fewer and less horrible sacrifices. Most of the wreckage, and the worst of it, is due to persistent, cunning and unprincipled exploitation; to the banding together in infamous enterprises of 'madame,' 'pimp' procurer, brothel-keeper and liquor vender to deliberately carry on a cold-blooded traffic for their joint profit—a traffic, be it added, from which the girl involved procures at the most, with few exceptions, her bare subsistence, and that only so long as she has a trade value."

That, briefly but clearly, puts the major contribution of Commercialized Prostitution in New York.[1] The answer of the book to the question why girls go wrong is not simply that womenkind are weak, or for lack of a minimum wage, or because of defective mentality, not on account of the lust of 150,000 men, but, aside from all these, because prostitution is exploited so as to yield profits to a comparatively few men. There is profit in selling girls to houses of prostitution, profit in selling their services, profit in selling clothes to them and liquor to their customers, profit in renting disorderly houses and apartments—and all the profit goes to men.

Perhaps no stronger evidence of the commercialization of vice has ever been offered than Mr. Kneeland's description of a group of men sitting about a table and selling shares in brothels. The

[1]Commercialized Prostitution in New York. By George J. Kneeland, with an introduction by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and a supplementary chapter by Katharine Bement Davis, superintendent of the New York State Reformatory for Women. The Century Co., 8 vo., about 300 pages. Price $1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.42.

Mr. Kneeland's book is the first of four studies of prostitution made for the Bureau of Social Hygiene. The others will be Prostitution in Western Europe and Prostitution in the United States, by Abraham Flexner, and European Police Systems, by Raymond V. Fosdick.

The members of the Bureau of Social Hygiene are Katharine B. Davis, Paul M. Warburg, Starr J. Murphy and John D. Rockefeller, Jr.



Donaghey in the Cleveland Plain Dealer.

THE CADET

Commercialization and not human weakness, says George J. Kneeland in the first of four studies to be issued by the Bureau of Social Hygiene in New York, is the reason why girls go wrong. "Most of the wreckage, and the worst of it, is due to persistent, cunning and unprincipled exploitation; to the banding together in infamous enterprises of 'madame', 'pimp,' procurer, brothel keeper, and liquor-vender to deliberately carry on a cold-blooded traffic for their joint profit."

meeting place is a delicatessen store in Seventh Avenue. Here sit

> "owners of houses, 'madames' and inmates, 'pimps,' 'runners' and 'lighthouses.' All the forces for the conduct of the business of prostitution are here scheming, quarreling, discussing profits, selling shares, buying women and paying out money for favors received. . . . The value of houses is debated, the income from the business, the expenses of conducting it, the price of shares today or tomorrow, or in the future, if this or that happens. Here is the center of trade . . . the stock market where members bid and outbid each other and quarrel over advantage given or taken."

There is nothing secret about it—witness the presence of an investigator for a body of reformers. He was present, too, at a

> "settlement between perhaps the best-known collector for the police and the owners of fifteen different establishments situated between West Eighteenth Street and West Thirty-sixth Street. At one o'clock in the morning they sat around a large table on which four piles of money, the smallest denomination being $5 bills, were heaped up. It had been paid to the police collector who carried it away in a violin case."

More than that, he was himself offered a sheaf of bills to take to the police by an owner who had been turned down by them during the "hard times" following the Rosenthal murder. He could have bought stock and bought women, bought police protection, bought shrewd legal service and rented houses with the full knowledge of the agents if not of the owners.

The men who control are all well known. Mostly foreign-born, they have been in the same trade in Europe, South Africa, Argentine, Brazil, Cuba, Canada, Alaska, San Francisco, Portland, Seattle, Tacoma, Butte, Denver, Omaha, St. Louis and Chicago. They boast openly that they can buy their way out of any difficulty. One of them spent $25,000 in freeing himself from a charge in St. Louis. The only things that hurt them are the periodic waves of reform which close their houses. But "it will blow over," they say, and go to another city for a time.

One of them is known as the "king." He is said to have great influence with the authorities—at any rate his judgment is taken as to when to open and close houses during times of stress. He owns eleven houses, but his chief asset is a mistress said to be the greatest "money getter" of all prostitutes in the world. When he had lost everything she earned enough to put him on his feet again. His hold on her began when he ruined her, a young girl in Russia, and took her to South Africa.

Kneeland draws a picture of a group of these slavers—sleek men of about forty, dressed in the latest fashion, wearing many diamonds—eight of them walking confidently up and down in front of the delicatessen store rendezvous, waiting "to talk over matters of 'business' with the representative of the 'boss,' a certain official who, they claimed, was to send word whether or not the owners could proceed with their nefarious business."

LITTLE ATTEMPT TO CONCEAL BUSINESS

Kneeland has another picture of one of these men in the early morning settling the day's account with one of his "madames" and throwing a bowl at her head because the receipts were small—this after her explanation that the girls could not stay their full time on the hottest day of a stifling summer. And still another, of a furious woman breaking in on her man at a restaurant, upbraiding him for giving an automobile to another of his "madames," a younger woman. She had given him everything—"been cut to pieces" for him, she said—and had nothing to show for it; she would "squeal" on him to the police. The man rose deliberately, walked over to her and dealt her a heavy blow in the face. It was his only answer—she did not "squeal." Blows are a prostitute's usual reward—indeed they are a regular part of the slaver's hold on his victims and Kneeland found that a woman has small respect for a man who does not beat her up now and then.

All of this has to do with brothels or "parlor houses." It is in them that the high degree of organization and the big profits lead to the worst features of white slavery. The procurers fill for them specific orders for blonde or brunette, fat or slim girls, in their literally insatiable demand for the young and the fresh. It is girlishness, not sophistication, for which the high prices are paid. Their agents drum up business on the streets, in dance halls and in political clubs; cabbies and chauffeurs are paid for bringing men; a "lighthouse" stands at the curb to inveigle passersby. Their inmates give lewd "circuses" and offer perverted practices. Mr. Kneeland's descriptions are painstaking and full for all sorts of places from dilapidated fifty-cent houses, where laborers crowd in, to handsome establishments full of young women in evening gowns, where a customer must be introduced to gain access.

The book abounds in figures. During the period covered by the investigation (January 24 to November 14, 1912) 142 parlor houses were investigated. Eleven hundred and seventy-two resorts were found in 575 different tenement buildings. In twenty-seven of these buildings there were 425 children under sixteen. Ninety disorderly hotels were discovered, and of 300 massage parlors seventy-five were found to be blinds for vice resorts. There are 112 furnished room assignation houses. The investigators counted 14,926 prostitutes of whom 6,759 were on the streets and 8,167 in resorts of all kinds. Estimating that each served ten men a day, the author believes that an average of 150,000 men patronize prostitutes every twenty-four hours in New York. Details are given for the places which cater to vice—saloons, concert halls, cab-

aret shows, dance halls, burlesque theaters, amusement parks and excursion boats. The expenses, receipts and profits of houses of various grades are shown and there is the account kept on a scrap of paper by a forlorn little girl on a second-rate beat in East Fourteenth street. Yet she took in over $200 in the thirty-two consecutive days covered by the account.

The chapter written by Katharine Bement Davis on the results to date of the studies made of Bedford Reformatory inmates, are accompanied by many pages of statistical tables. The most striking of the results is the showing as to venereal diseases. The 21 per cent of women infected, as disclosed by the ordinary clinical test, jumped to 90 per cent under a careful laboratory test made by Archibald McNeil of the research laboratory of the Department of Health. Dr. Davis's work is familiar to readers of THE SURVEY.[1]

Mr. Kneeland's book resembles the Chicago Vice Report, the pioneer of all such studies, in its detailed showing of actual conditions; but differs from it in coming from a private body. It also differs by entirely omitting a summary. It does live rigidly up to its stated purpose, to "set forth as accurately and fully as possible the conditions of vice as they existed in New York city in 1912." Knowledge of conditions will lead to "an understanding of the various factors involved—physical, moral, social and economic." Three later studies will cover conditions in other American cities and in Europe. On this broad basis of fact the Bureau of Social Hygiene will formulate its plans for "real and lasting improvement," and bring to fruition the experience which came to John D. Rockefeller, Jr., as chairman of the white slave grand jury of 1910.

Some readers of the book may jump to the conclusion that segregation would be a relief from such intolerable conditions. No argument is given in opposition, but one of Mr. Kneeland's few expressions of opinion tells against it. "The white slave traffic is almost wholly dependent on the existence of houses of prostitution. . . . Prostitutes who live scattered through the city may earn money for their pimps, but traffic in scattered prostitutes is practically impossible." Mr. Flexner's forthcoming book in this series, on conditions abroad, is expected to emphasize the failure of segregation where it has been in operation under the most favorable conditions.

THE VICE PROBLEM IN PHILADELPHIA

The recent report of the Philadelphia Vice Commission, appointed by Mayor Blankenburg, is characterized by vigor of statement in connecting prostitution with other social problems, particularly in regard to children.

> "So familiar have the children of this district [a large residence district in which most of the houses are located] become with the life of vice that our investigators were frequently accosted by small boys offering to show them a bawdy house for a nickel. The school census shows that in fifteen blocks of the more notorious streets there are 1,542 children between the ages of six and sixteen years, and a total of at least 2,500 minors in these blocks. Newsboys and messenger boys plying their trade are constantly entering the district. This condition has no parallel in any other city, so far as we know, and our investigators, accustomed as they were to the vice conditions of Chicago and New York, were astonished at the open association of the worst forms of vice and of innocence."

The report comes to a strong conclusion in this paragraph:

> "The more we have studied the question, the more it has affected us with pity for the unfortunate girl whose early weakness has brought her to her sad condition, and indignation and loathing for the man who has taken advantage of it. She may indeed be vile, but she suffers the consequences while he goes scot free."

The investigators found 372 vice resorts and 3,311 prostitutes of whom 1,233 were on the streets. They estimate that more than $6,000,000 a year is spent directly for prostitution.

On the basis of the various vice reports, Philadelphia has more houses than New York and fewer than Chicago; while New York has three times as many prostitutes as Chicago and five times as many as Philadelphia. The figures almost surely will be seized on by local officials and interpreted to show, each for his own city, that others are worse. Mayor Gaynor may continue to affirm that New York is "cleaner" than any other city of its size in the world. The claims are hard to establish and the figures are chiefly useful in making each city realize that it has a problem and a big one. The outstanding fact from all the vice reports—Chicago, Minneapolis, Portland, Atlanta, Syracuse, Rochester, Philadelphia, New York—is that conditions are essentially the same. The main facts correspond closely; the local variations are of form and degree. More and more it is recognized as being idle to make local comparisons while owners of houses can and do, as Mr. Kneeland shows, not only move from city to city to avoid periodical spasms of reform, but take their women with them. The problem, it is now coming to be agreed, is national and must be attacked nationally as well as locally.

As Mr. Kneeland's book, by its self-imposed limitations, makes no recommendations, those interested in specific measures of local improvement should read them as given in *Vigilance*[1] for May, by the Philadelphia commission whose field work was done under his direction.

[1]See THE SURVEY, May 18, 1912, p. 285 and December 7, 1912, p. 270.

[1]Published by the American Vigilance Association, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York. 10 cents.



Barns in The Masses.

"US MINIMUMS"
"Say Mamie, I heard Pa readin' in de paper how us minimums is a-goin' to git more wages!"

MINIMUM WAGE DISCUSSED BY RETAIL ASSOCIATIONS

Aroused by the charges made before the Illinois Vice Commission which linked together low wages and prostitution, the manager of the National Retail Dry Goods Association, F. Colburn Pinkham, two months ago sent out the following questionaire to the association's membership:

1. Are you in favor of a minimum wage law?
   a. If so, by federal or state legislation?
   b. If so, what minimum wage do you consider fair for the girl between fourteen and seventeen?
   c. What minimum wage do you consider fair for the girl over seventeen?
2. If a minimum wage law is passed, do you wish this association to go on record in favor of salesmanship training in public schools?
3. Are you in favor of the association's passing, through the Executive Committee, the following resolution:

   BE IT RESOLVED: That the National Retail Dry Goods Association give its hearty support to a minimum wage for women, to be established by federal (or state) law.
4. Are you in favor of having an expert devote all her time to gathering facts for our members relative to the relation of the department store to its employes, and to have a department under this expert for that purpose?
   a. If so, how much will you subscribe to a special fund for this purpose: $200—$100—$50.

Through the kindness of Mr. Pinkham it is possible to give a brief review of the replies so far received. The questionaire, it will be noted, yokes together with the minimum wage the question of efficiency or salesmanship training, and, though the two may well be considered together, the replies show that many of the writers do not know that practically all minimum wage legislation offers latitude for special rates of pay to apprentices and to those employes who are below a certain standard of ability.

The replies reveal a deep interest in the subject. A large sum of money has been promised toward the proposed study, and an expert investigator engaged. A large number of the answers favor a minimum wage law, preferably on a federal basis, accompanied by local legislation for salesmanship courses in the public schools.

At its last annual meeting, before the discussion of the minimum wage began, the association passed a resolution in favor of these public school courses. It particularly approved courses of the standard set by the University of Wisconsin, where within the last year 600 students have been trained and traveling teachers sent to stores throughout the state. Many of those replying to the questionaire appear to be themselves offering private salesmanship courses to their employes and some claim that they have established a minimum wage. These private wage standards are reputed in some cases to have driven young and inexperienced girls out of the stores, and this may account for the mistaken impression which has been noted in regard to minimum wage legislation.

The San Francisco and Los Angeles associations of retail dry goods merchants on March 13 sent a telegram to the governor asking for an investigation preliminary to legislation. The Tennessee retail dealers, according to one correspondent, are backing a mimimum wage bill now before the Legislature. One Missouri firm suggests that while young girls are learning their trade "we will have to pass a minimum wage for fathers." Another Missouri firm believes that minimum wage legislation will "tend to lessen the employment of women." The following comment by this firm gives some support to the more or less general assertion that department store wages are based on the assumption that a saleswoman lives at home:

> "The good girls, living at home, with proper training and content with good associations, are only too glad to be able to obtain employment under the favorable conditions of short hours, comparatively easy work and favorable environment, while the wages received in the so-called minimum class would not enable them to set up housekeeping, yet it is a great help and assistance in maintaining the family burden."

The replies are almost unanimous in denying that there is any connection between low wages and vice.

One letter puts the case the other side out:

> "It is easier for a girl to go wrong on $12 than on $8 a week. It only enables her more readily to dress so as to attract attention and to be more frequently in public places of amusement. It is the love of showy clothes, of entertainment and excitement that attracts some. Add to this the blandishments and enticements of a certain class of men and the temptation becomes a reality."

TARIFF REVISION AND WAGE CUTS

An interesting precedent established by the present administration at Washington is involved in the declarations of warning made by members of the cabinet and Congressman Oscar Underwood, majority leader in the House of Representatives to manufacturers who predict that the new tariff bill if adopted will compel a reduction in wages. The statement is clearly made that if manufacturers cut wages, on the ground that the proposed duties force a readjustment of manufacturing costs, the federal government will institute an investigation to determine whether such reduction in wages is justified by the facts or is but a plan to discredit the new tariff law.

A striking speech along this line was made by Secretary Redfield of the Department of Commerce on May 14 to the National Association of Employing Lithographers. The secretary read from a circular issued by the association an attack on the proposed tariff law. One statement in the circular was as follows:

"This means workmen thrown out of jobs. It means that wages must go down in order to compete. It may mean longer hours than forty-eight hours a week."

"If in the final result," Secretary Redfield is quoted as saying, "the words I have quoted are put into effect by you in a substantial degree, it may become the duty of the Department of Commerce to inquire into your business methods." Continuing with this as a text, the secretary declared that perhaps the first obligation of the employer

"is the duty owed to the operatives in the business. It is not too much to say that public opinion demands that operatives shall receive a living wage and, so far as possible, continuous employment; that they be freed from arbitrary reductions in the daily wage or of the piecework rate. The public conscience demands that they work under healthy conditions, with ample light without overspeeding, and with the same provisions for their safety at their work that the employer would desire for himself were he so employed. Furthermore, public opinion is becoming sensitive on the subject of overfatigue and recognizes that the demand for reasonable working hours has a sound physiological basis."

Mr. Redfield then said:

"In the relations to which I have tried with courtesy and candor to allude the purpose of the Department of Commerce will be, as in all these relations it ought to be, to bring the power of public opinion to the support of legitimate business, and business owes it to itself and to the nation to drink in the spirit of growth.

"In hard case is he that 'stands pat,' for the world will go by him and leave him standing. Blessed is he that moves with the movement of progressive thought, for to him shall come the reward of living."

This and other similar announcements has excited a considerable amount of discussion in the press and has aroused not a little antagonism.

The *Iron Age,* one of the most important trade publications in this country, thinks that "possibly nothing that has occurred so far in the struggle for the revision of the tariff has stirred up so much feeling as the threats alluded to." It seems barely possible that the "threat" may prove a boomerang. "If the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce," continues the *Iron Age,* "should make such an investigation and find that a reduction in wages was necessary, the bureau, we presume, would frankly say so and thus, by implication, attack the new tariff from the standpoint of the working man." If this should be the case, the administration "may probably be invoking upon themselves the denunciation of the very people whom they are so anxious to safeguard."

8 HOURS AND 6 DAYS FOR WOMEN IN D. C.

Quite unexpectedly the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia has reported favorably the La Follette-Peters eight-hour bill for women employed in Washington. This measure was reintroduced early in April at the request of the National Consumers' League in exactly the same form as that in which it nearly passed both Houses of Congress at the last session. Senator Jones of Washington brought the bill to the attention of the committee. He explained that it had already passed the Senate without opposition, and that the District Committee had had full hearings on it. No one objected, and the bill is now before the Senate awaiting action where it is expected to pass.

As yet the House of Representatives has not filled its committees, and unless it shall have done so by the time the bill gets through the upper chamber, there will be delay from this cause. The selection of members for the various committees is being made by the Ways and Means Committee, and must be ratified by the caucus of the majority.

MERELY MARY ANN, WANTED

To those who believe in the placing of children in family homes, the following letter may be of interest as showing what is at times expected by would-be foster parents. Sleighton Farm, the girls' department of the Glen Mills Schools (Pennsylvania), to which the inquiry was addressed, is unable to fill the bill! But Martha P. Falconer, the superintendent, will give the name and address to any placing-out agency that has a candidate. Meanwhile she has referred the plight of the invalids themselves to some relief or shut-in society. The communication was written in red ink on a postcard in very small, clear writing.

Dear Madam:

I saw a letter about you and your work in "_____" for _____. Please tell me all about your girls will you please, and about putting out in homes and if they can work and if they could be thoroughly trusted as to character, honesty, etc. after leaving your school and at what age are they when put out? I'm a minister's widow ten years. Helpless, in bed seventeen years, suffer greatly. Live in basement of house of and with aged relative. She does all house work, gardening and all I get done, but I'm always the last seen to and need better care and she needs help. We talk of taking a good girl or woman if we find one to suit. Can give a good home but no wages. Wish someone kind and willing to help me and willing to help do housework, etc. Someone honest and trustworthy, stout, healthy and fairly good looking. Tell me all about your girls and if they can and would help a shut-in and would help work and do you furnish clothing or anything? Good home for good girl.

Mrs. _____

One fairly educated and who could play organ at spare times or teach some time if not needed here would be appreciated. However, *help* is what is the *main object. Kindness, willingness,* etc., and *health.*

"MOVIES" IN ONE CITY AS A SCHOOL OF PATRIOTISM

Holding its session every Sunday night and comprising in its class non-English-speaking foreigners only, the "movie" has been pressed into service in Pawtucket, R. I., as a school of patriotism. The Star Theater in that city has been packed to its doors and the experiment proved to be a success from the start.

The purpose of those back of the theater—they take pride in calling it a civic theater—is to teach foreigners the meaning of the flag, the Constitution, and the various historic and patriotic incidents connected with our national life. For instance, on the first night moving pictures representing the making of the flag by Betsey Ross were given. The pictorial story of the flag was made the basis for a talk telling what the flag means to the American citizen. At the second meeting representations of a number of historic incidents were shown with explanations and applications to present conditions. The pictures were interspersed with music furnished by the Polish Society of Providence. Each meeting was begun by the singing of America. Another reel was entitled Man in the Making. It showed a foreigner reaching this country and his ensuing life.

MAKING MISSOURI SCHOOLS AVAILABLE FOR ALL AGES

Missouri has found a way to escape what seemed an insurmountable obstacle to the extension of public education. The constitution of Missouri provides that the General Assembly shall establish and maintain free public schools in the state for the benefit of persons between six and twenty years of age. In 1883 the Supreme Court of Missouri construed this section of the constitution as being not only mandatory upon the Legislature to establish free public schools for those between six and twenty years of age, but also as prohibiting the expenditure of school moneys for the benefit of any one under six and over twenty.

The decision was also construed to mean that it was unlawful to use the public school buildings or the school yards for any purpose other than actual school work.

All this brought about conditions from which school authorities and other citizens struggled to escape. It has been found that 75 per cent of the school children of St. Louis quit school at the age of fourteen. By being prohibited from entering the schools at the age of five, they were denied a year's education, and what was even more serious, in the congested districts children from five to six years were compelled to play in the streets and alleys for lack of a better place. Moreover, foreigners who desired to learn English and other adults, who desired to continue their education after they had gone to work, were compelled to pay a tuition fee for the night-school classes.

Several attempts were made to amend the constitution so as to make it possible for the Legislature to provide for the education of children between five and six and for persons over twenty years of age. These attempts failed. The last effort of this sort was at the general election last fall. But the amendment was one of eleven that were defeated apparently because of the fear in the rural districts that one of them, the so-called single tax amendment, might become a law.

Just as everyone interested in the proposition despaired of any relief, the attorney for the Board of Education decided that, after all, a constitutional amendment was not required, but that the Legislature had the power to authorize the expenditure of school moneys for the benefit of persons between five and six and over twenty, as well as those between six and twenty. The Legislature promptly passed such a bill.

This means that children who must quit school at fourteen may have an additional year's training; people over twenty will be able to attend the night schools without being compelled to pay a tuition fee; the school board has power to permit school property to be used for any purpose which it may deem educational.

INSTALLMENT PLAN FOR PAYING FINES

Nearly 9,000 persons were sent to jail in Massachusetts during 1911 because they were unable to pay petty fines. The offenses for which these persons were convicted were comparatively trivial, but justice fastened upon them the stigma of imprisonment while their wives and children lost the services of the bread-winner.

Recognizing this condition, Gov. Eugene N. Foss recently sent to the Legislature a special message asking that the statute be changed so that in future it will be obligatory upon the court to suspend the execution of a sentence to jail unless the court finds that the delinquent will probably default if given time to pay his fine, or that his release will be against public interest. Under the operation of the proposed statute, the "criminal" is given time to pay his fine and may do so in installments paid directly to the probation officer of the court.

A HOME RULE VICTORY IN THE EMPIRE STATE

"Genuine home rule for the cities of New York state" was the slogan of a campaign which was waged aggressively at Albany by the New York State Conference of Mayors and the Municipal Government Association. Before the opening of the legislative session these two organizations, one consisting of city officials and the other of citizens interested in municipal government, adopted jointly the following legislative program:

(1) A "constitutional" home rule amendment in place of the Grady amendment passed by the Legislature a year ago. This proposed amendment regulates legislation concerning cities and villages and guarantees to them the right of municipal self-government. Both organizations believe that the Grady amendment is defective.

(2) An act to confer upon the cities of the state a broad general grant of power subject to the Constitution and the general laws of the state. This bill makes enabling acts dealing with petty local affairs unnecessary.

(3) An optional city charter act to give second and third class cities the right to adopt by referendum any one of six simplified forms of government. These are the city manager plan, the present uniform second class city charter slightly modified, the commission scheme, and three varieties of the mayor and council form of government.

The three bills were introduced in both branches of the Legislature early in the year. The Municipal Empowering Act, as the second is called, passed both the Assembly and the Senate and has been signed by Governor Sulzer. This is the first concrete achievement in the campaign started two years ago by both organizations for home rule in the "Empire State."

The most important event in the campaign this year was the home rule conference and dinner held in Albany toward the middle of the legislative session. Nearly every city in the state was represented at this either by its mayor or some other official delegated by him. In addition members of the Municipal Government Association, senators, assemblymen and other state officials attended. The topic discussed was municipal home rule—since everybody believes in it, why don't we have it. On the list of speakers Gov. William Sulzer represented the state, Mayor John J. Irving of Binghamton the Mayors' Conference, and Speaker Alfred Smith the Assembly. James W. Wadsworth, former speaker of the Assembly, spoke for the Republican Party, and Frederick M. Davenport, former state senator for the Progressives.

"No man in our state is more in favor of genuine home rule than I am. It is part of my political religion. . . . Home rule is demanded by the progressive spirit of our times which points out that affairs of government shall be placed close to the people and kept there. When legislation for a community is carried on at a distance remote, public opinion fails to properly influence that legislation.

"Public hearings are efforts to overcome this evil. It is better to have our legislative body close to the community than to take representatives of a community long distances to meet the Legislature.

"Let cities be kept free from the state as the state is kept free from national interference in things local. As states adopt their own constitutions so should cities adopt their own charters."

President Irving of the Mayors' Conference declared that the mayors of the state and a great majority of their constituents want genuine home rule laws. Speaker Smith said that the municipal empowering act will give the cities of the state power to regulate local affairs without legislative authority. He said that in drafting satisfactory legislation the greatest difficulty has been to decide where municipal power should end and state authority begin. Former Speaker Wadsworth argued that by passing the home rule acts, the Legislature would rid itself of a large amount of work which has demanded the time and attention that should have been devoted to questions of state-wide importance.

The joint campaign is now centered around the optional city charter bill against which there has developed some opposition in the Legislature. The New York State Conference of Mayors and the Municipal Government Association have asked Governor Sulzer to include this measure in his call for a special session of the Legislature.

INDUSTRY

"THE INALIENABLE RIGHT TO REST"

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK
NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

To the Supreme Court of Mississippi belongs a unique distinction. It has established a new standard for other states to follow. It has handed down a decision which marks a new epoch in the progress of labor legislation.[1]

This decision, which has passed almost without comment, was rendered last November. It sustained the validity of the Mississippi ten-hour law enacted in March, 1912. Other courts have sustained other ten-hour laws, but the new and startling feature of the Mississippi decision lies in this that for the first time in the history of the United States it upholds, as a reasonable health measure, a general law regulating the hours of labor in manufacturing industries, applying to men and women alike.

Hitherto no general statute regulating the hours of work for men in private employment has been sustained. Only in occupations manifestly dangerous to health have the courts held that a man's hours of labor may be limited by law, or in an occupation like the railroad service, where public safety is at stake.

Thus, laws have been upheld establishing a maximum period of work for railway employes, on the ground that such workers must have sufficient periods of rest to enable them safely to operate trains. It is recognized that the safety of the public depends upon the physical fitness of railway employes.

Almost twenty years ago the United States Supreme Court in Holden *vs.* Hardy (169 U. S. 366) upheld the validity of the Utah law which limits the work of men in mines and smelters to eight hours in one day. But this decision concerned the employment of men in a dangerous underground occupation in which workers are subjected to great heat and noxious gases. The law was specifically upheld on the ground of these dangers to health. In a word, the occupation was deemed by the court *sufficiently* dangerous to justify the interference of the Legislature with the laborer's so-called freedom of contract.

On the other hand, in the well-known bakers' case,[2] the United States Supreme Court held, in effect, that the occupation of a baker was not sufficiently dangerous to health to warrant the limitation of working hours by the state.

In the Newman Lumber Company case, the Mississippi court has broken new ground so far as the work of men is concerned. Its decision rests upon precisely the same principle as that on which similar laws applying only to women have been sustained by many courts, including the Supreme Court of the United States itself,[1] namely: the broader conception of public health and welfare; the right of a state, under its police powers, to preserve its people from the overfatigue and exhaustion which follow excessive hours of labor not only in the dangerous trades but in any modern manufacture.

The laws limiting the hours of labor for women have, it is true, been sustained on the ground of women's greater physical disabilities in industrial competition and the direct relation between the health of women and the next generation. But the lives of men, as well as women are subject to the laws of physiology; and upon men as well as women, though perhaps less immediately, falls retribution when the physiologic limits have been passed. In either case it is society which finally pays the cost, and in this fact lies the justification of the state's intervention.

"Some day perhaps," says the Mississippi court with keen discrimination, "the inalienable right to rest will be the subject of litigation."

The inalienable right to rest! This fine phrase is indeed a new note, replacing the more usual judicial preoccupation with the "freedom of contract" guaranteed by the constitution—a theoretical "right" to be preserved at all costs, even when it means in actual practice no freedom but freedom to starve. To this kind of constitutional "right" the Mississippi court refers in no uncertain language:

"We pause here to remark the notable fact that it is rare for the seller of labor (the workman) to appeal to the courts for the preservation of his inalienable rights of labor; this inestimable privilege is generally the object of the buyers' (the employers') disinterested solicitude. Some day, perhaps, the inalienable right to rest will be the subject of litigation, but as yet this phase of individual liberty has not sought shelter under the state or federal constitutions."

The Mississippi law in question prohibits the employment of any person more than ten hours a day in manufacturing or repairing "except in cases of emergency, or where public necessity requires." The J. J. Newman Lumber Company, which operates a saw and planing mill plant and

[1] State *vs.* J. J. Newman Lumber Co., 59 So. Rep. 923.

[2] Lochner *vs.* New York, 198 U. S. 45.

[1] Muller *vs.* Oregon, 208, U. S. 412.

a logging railroad, was indicted for employing a workman more than ten hours. The company filed a demurrer to the indictment, which was sustained by Judge Weathersby of the Circuit Court of Lamar County. From this the state appealed, and on November 18 the Supreme Court of Mississippi handed down an extended opinion answering the objections to the statute and overruling the demurrer.

Not content with this decision, the lumber company applied for a second hearing of the case and upon the reargument the court again affirmed its original decision.

"It is well known," says the court, "that, in the work connected with the running of machinery, the operator is subjected to a mental as well as a physical strain. In many cases the nearness to machinery makes the work dangerous in case of an overtaxing of the strength of the worker, or any lessening in his alertness. We can readily understand that all this was in the minds of the Legislature when the law now under discussion was considered.

"Besides, it would be unreasonable for the Legislature to decide that it would promote the health, peace, morals and general welfare of all laborers engaged in the work of manufacturing or repairing if they were not permitted to extend their labor over ten hours a day, and the Legislature could also decide that the best interests of the people in the state would be promoted by limiting the time of work of this numerous class of its citizenry to the time mentioned. In fact, when we consider the present manner of laboring, the use of machinery, the appliances, requiring intelligence and skill, and the general present day manner of life, which tends to nervousness, it seems to us quite reasonable, and in no way improper, to pass such law so limiting a day's labor."

Again upon the reargument, the court said, in its second opinion:

"The concentration of the human mind and muscle, for many consecutive hours upon the watching and manipulation of rapidly moving machinery, tends to weary the body of the worker, and to weaken his reasoning faculties, and, ultimately, to permanently impair his physical and mental efficiency. Yet, competition forced the laborer to take the risk or starve."

The urgent question now arises whether the ultimate authority, the Supreme Court of the United States, will sanction the advanced stand of the Mississippi Supreme Court and thus open the way for legislation in other states.

Counsel for the lumber company cited the decision in the Lochner case as the controlling precedent for holding invalid the Mississippi ten-hour law. The court replied: "A careful consideration of that case fails to show us that it should control the case before us." Long extracts are given from the dissenting opinions of Justices Harlan and Holmes in the Lochner case. "It will be noticed," said the court, "that the decision in Lochner *vs.* New York was not unanimous, four of the distinguished members of the bench . . . dissenting."

The opinion in the Lochner case has indeed been one of the most influential and most widely discussed of labor decisions. It has practically determined the course of legislation in many states, putting a quietus on any general laws to limit the hours of labor for men. In Missouri for instance, a law was enacted only three years ago limiting the employment of men in bakeries to six days in the week. The day's work was left wholly unlimited, yet the Supreme Court of Missouri threw out the law as unconstitutional on the ground of the Lochner decision.[1]

On the other hand, one of the most interesting adverse comments on this important decision was recently written by a justice of the Supreme Court of New York, Kings County. This was Justice Blackmar who discussed the history of Lochner *vs.* New York at some length. He said:[2]

"This is the famous bake-shop case. It holds that the state of New York cannot limit the hours of employes in bakeries to ten hours a day without infringing the liberty of the individual to contract for his labor, guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. The case is exceedingly interesting. It arose in the County Court of Oneida County in this state and progressed through the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, the Court of Appeals and the United States Supreme Court. Twenty-two judges participated in the several decisions. The only unanimous decision was by the County Court, where there was but one judge. In the Appellate Division, the justices divided three to two; in the Court of Appeals, four to three; and in the United States Supreme Court, five to four. There were nine separate opinions written. Of the twenty-two judges, twelve were of the opinion that the law was constitutional, and ten that it was not. The opinion of the minority prevailed because five of the ten judges who thought the law unconstitutional were members of the court of last resort.

"What does this remarkable divergence of opinion suggest? I do not find in the nine opinions any reason for thinking that there were any differences as to the rules of law governing the case. The power of the state to enact laws for the welfare of the people, notwithstanding the constitutional guarantee of the liberty of the individual, was not questioned. The difficulty was in determining whether the law in question was in furtherance of public welfare. The courts were approaching a question of political economy. So Judge Edward T. Bartlett of the Court of Appeals speaks of 'a coming day when the Legislature, in the full panoply of paternalism, etc.' Justice Peckham of the United States Supreme Court says: 'Statutes of the nature of that under review, limiting the hours in which grown and intelligent men may labor to earn their living, are mere meddlesome interferences with the rights of the individuals'; and Justice Holmes says: 'This case is decided upon an economic theory which a large part of the country does not entertain'; and again 'But a constitution

[1] State *vs.* Miksicek, 125 S. W. Rep. 507.
[2] People *ex rel.* Hoelderlin *vs.* Kane, 79 Misc.

is not intended to embody a particular economic theory, whether of paternalism and the organic relation of the citizens to the state or of *laissez faire*.'

"The fact that economic theories entertained by the judges influence their decisions as to the limits of the police power should not be excluded from the mind while studying the subject. Neither can such decisions be regarded as landmarks permanently defining such limits. Laws, which may be meddlesome interferences with the liberty of the individual in a primitive state, may, in a highly organized society, become essential to public welfare or even to the continuance of civil liberty itself. The pace at which courts move in sympathy with fast developing economic ideas may be illustrated by Lochner *vs.* New York, the hesitating utterance of divided courts in 1905, followed by Muller *vs.* Oregon, the confident pronouncement of a united bench in 1908."

Eight years have now elapsed since the bakers' case was decided. In the interval the precedent of the Lochner decision has effectively discouraged any attempts to obtain relief by law from the twelve-hour day still prevalent in many industries for men, especially in those continuously operated.

Now the Supreme Court of Mississippi reopens the question and invites a new answer. Two more years will probably intervene before the validity of the Mississippi law will come before the Supreme Court of the United States, and the question of limiting men's hours of labor by law will again, after a lapse of ten years, be presented to the highest tribunal of the land.

FACTORY INSPECTION REORGANIZATION

IRENE OSGOOD ANDREWS
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

In truly American fashion the new spirit in labor law enforcement has taken hold of us. The one provision of the reorganization principles[1] which was least expected to become law at an early date in this country (and indeed the last provision to be urged for immediate adoption considering the nature of the existing machinery for enforcement) is the first one to be enacted this year.

This principle permits boards or commissions for labor law enforcement to adjust within statutory limits, hours of labor for women in especially dangerous trades. This power has been given to the recently created Minimum Wage Commission of Oregon, which was authorized to begin work early in April. It is made unlawful to employ women or minors for unreasonably long hours or under such surroundings or conditions—sanitary or otherwise—as may be detrimental to their health or morals. The commission is empowered to make investigations and establish standards for hours and conditions of work. The maximum hours must never exceed the legal maximum established by statutory law.

Wisconsin also is hoping to adopt the same principle this year. A bill now before the Legislature provides that "no female shall be employed or be permitted to work in any place of employment in excess of such period or periods of time during any day, night or week as shall be dangerous or prejudicial to the life, health, safety or welfare of such female. It shall be the duty of the Industrial Commission . . . to investigate, ascertain, determine and fix such reasonable classification and to issue general or special orders fixing a period or periods of time or hours of beginning or ending work during any day, night or week, which shall be necessary to protect the life, health, safety or welfare of any female, or to carry out the purposes" of the statutory law.

[1]See THE SURVEY for December 21, 1912.

Missouri now requires an eight-hour day for all employes in silica mining, plate-glass manufacturing or smelting. This measure, together with the 1912 ten-hour law for men in manufacturing industries in Mississippi, recently sustained by the Supreme Court of that state,[1] mark a new era in this country, in legislation limiting the hours of labor for men outside the mining industry.

Rapid progress has been made this year in the important field of factory inspection reorganization. A carefully prepared and thorough measure has been signed by the governor of Ohio. This new law provides for a commission of three members at an annual salary of $5,000 each with broad powers in making rules and regulations. Its jurisdiction covers the health, safety and welfare of practically all employes, the settlement of trade disputes and the management of unemployment agencies both public and private, including the placing of minors, care of vagrants and insurance for unemployment. The commission will also administer the insurance law for industrial injuries. Procedure in case of prosecutions is carefully worked out.

Governor Sulzer has signed the New York reorganization bills, all of which were thoroughly discussed in THE SURVEY of February 22. The plan proposed in Pennsylvania follows the New York law closely. These two measures are practically the only ones proposed or enacted which give the boards no voice in staff appointments nor in the administration of department affairs.

In California the bill prepared with great care by the Industrial Accident Board of that state gives the board power to make rules and regulations for safety in industrial establishments, and amends the existing workmen's compensation law, making compensation compulsory,

[1]See The Inalienable Right to Rest, page 264 of this issue.

creating a state insurance fund and also permitting mutual and self insurance. The bill is opposed by the employers and by the accident insurance companies.

Two or three reorganization measures were introduced in Iowa, but failed to pass. The present Bureau of Labor Statistics continues with the addition of a woman inspector. Last year Massachusetts succeeded in bringing together under the Board of Labor and Industries all the work of factory inspection in the state; and at the same time the Industrial Accident Board began work. This year a measure is pending which provides for co-operation between both boards so that each will enforce the same standards. In Connecticut proposals for reorganization have been made which follow the Massachusetts law of 1912.

New departments of labor were created in Arkansas and Wyoming, and existing bureaus were greatly strengthened by increases in the scope, number of inspectors and appropriations in California, Michigan, Tennessee, Texas, Utah and Kansas. In the three latter states women inspectors are provided for, and in Minnesota all employes of the Bureau of Labor are placed under civil service. A commission is proposed in Illinois which will study the existing bureaus with a view to consolidating those having similar functions. Bills to increase the inspection staff are still pending in several states, but in Missouri, where frequent attempts have been made to secure state-wide inspection, the measure was again defeated this year.

In most states the existing labor law is being administered by from three to eight or ten different departments. The result is overlapping and duplication both of work and expense. The consolidation proposed by the different states is intended to secure greater economy and efficiency in labor law enforcement; and in some states its aim is also to eliminate political control.

THE COST OF THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY

In spite of the adverse vote of the stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation at their annual meeting on April 21,[1] the movement for an abandonment of the twelve-hour, two-shift system in the continuous industries, in favor of the eight-hour, three-shift plan is steadily gathering headway. Every discussion of the subject gives it a new impetus. The country is growing more and more aroused as it comes to understand what the twelve-hour day in a continuous industry means. Two state legislatures have recently passed bills requiring one day of rest in seven. Similar bills are up for passage in other states and a bill is now pending in the Illinois Legislature providing for an eight-hour day in the hot metal industries.

Just at this juncture the United States Bureau of Labor contributes one of the most illuminating reports that has yet been made on working conditions in any industry. The third volume of the study of Employment in the Steel Industry is devoted to Working Conditions and the Relations of Employers and Employes.[2] The facts as to hours of labor are set forth and discussed in detail.

When the first volume of this series was published in 1910, it was reported that over 29 per cent. of the employes of iron and steel companies were working seven days a week. Since that time, a six-day week has been installed in many plants. Volume III, just published, which gives data for 1912, reports that the proportion of seven-day workers has been reduced to 15 per cent. More than 50 per cent. of the blast furnace workers of the country still have a seven-day week, however, with a "long turn," twice a month. Moreover, the report states that 63 per cent. of all steel employes still work twelve hours a day as was reported in the first volume.

The report shows that the twelve-hour day is frequently extended by overtime. In a study of nine large plants, having altogether 38,000 employes, it was found that overtime and Sunday work prevailed in about the same proportion as was shown to exist at Bethlehem at the time of the strike in that plant early in 1910. The report made then excited wide comment, and drew from Charles M. Schwab the protest that his plant was conducted just as all others are, a statement that now receives support.

A considerable amount of overtime was found that extended to incredible lengths. A twenty-four-hour turn is common, of course, in changing from the day to the night shift. The agents of the bureau found cases of thirty-six and forty-eight hours of continuous duty.

The most interesting and important part of the discussion of the hours of labor is the section devoted to a consideration of the cost of substituting an eight-hour for the twelve-hour day. A change from two shifts to three would in most cases call for an increase of 50 per cent. in the working force affected. Hence it is often assumed that the cost of labor per unit of output will be increased in the same proportion and that the selling price will have to be advanced in pretty nearly the same proportion if the manufacturer is to be saved from bankruptcy.

This line of reasoning overlooks two facts: first, since only about 63 per cent. of all employes now work twelve hours, a change to eight hours would not require an increase of 50 per cent. of the whole force; and second, a circumstance frequently disregarded, labor is only one of many costs of production. Even if it were increased by 50 per cent. no equivalent increase in total

[1] See THE SURVEY FOR MAY 3, 1913, page 165.
[2] Senate Document 110, 62nd Congress, 1st Session.

cost would follow. The report shows what proportion the cost of labor is of the total, and finds that if the change were made to eight-hour shifts, with unchanged wages for a day's work the cost of making pig iron would be increased by but 2.6 per cent. The increase in the cost of the principal steel products, it is said, would be 6 per cent.

But this estimate of the heavier cost is on the basis of an increase of 50 per cent. in the hourly rate of wages. The government agents questioned the workmen directly on this point. Most of those interviewed said they would be willing to make the change to the shorter day on the basis of ten hours' wages instead of twelve. This would be an increase of 25 per cent. instead of 50 per cent. in the rate per hour. The resulting increase in costs would in that case be 1.3 per cent. and 3 per cent. respectively.

The discussion of the length of the working day, while one of the most interesting topics considered is by no means the only subject treated in this report. Closely connected with the problem of overtime is that of irregularity of employment. "The iron and steel industry," says the report, "is more irregular in its operation, and shows greater fluctuations in its labor force during the course of the year than any of the large manufacturing industries whose demand is not seasonal."

Even in the prosperous year 1910, the average employe did not have a chance to work more than forty-five weeks. As a result 44 per cent. of the employes covered in the investigation did not get as much as $600 a year. But one-sixth earned as much as $900, and only about 1.5 per cent. earned $1,800 or over.

The connection between wages and the cost of living is carefully considered. The statement is made that while retail prices of food increased 32.8 per cent. in the decade from 1901 to 1910 the hourly wages of unskilled laborers increased only 17½ per cent. The unskilled, the report says, have received a larger advance in wages than any other class of labor. To quote the report: "A careful study of the wages paid in a number of important plants in 1900 and 1910, shows that not only was there in 1910 a smaller proportion of workmen paid the higher rates of wages, but in some cases the pay for the same work was actually less in 1910 than in 1900. Tonnage rates were in many cases very greatly reduced, but the rate of production by 1910 was generally sufficiently increased to give the employes higher daily earnings than in 1900. Some readjustment of wages to bring higher and lower paid employes more nearly to an equitable basis was perhaps necessary, but the fact nevertheless remains that the food-purchasing power of the wages of 1910 was considerably less than that of the wages paid in 1900."

Among the other points covered by the report are the relation of wages to profits and costs, working conditions and efficiency as affected by heat, speed and the severity of the work, low wages, long hours and night work. Many special features of the conditions of employment are treated, such as time and method of wage payments, company houses and company stores, and various efforts of the companies looking to the improvement of conditions.

The report points out that there have been great advances in the art of steel making, and that almost without exception, every advance "has improved the physical conditions under which the men work." Conversely, it discovered that "every successful attempt to improve the physical conditions. . . has resulted in increased efficiency of the workmen." As a rule, these advances have been made from commercial motives. As to the elimination of accidents, however, while that great movement which has been in progress to a marked degree in the last half dozen years has stimulated production and proven itself commercially desirable, it did not begin, the report states, from that point of view, but "approached the principle from the humanitarian standpoint."

COMPENSATION IN ONTARIO

Sir William Ralph Meredith, chief justice, will submit to the Ontario Legislature "An act to provide for compensation to workmen for injuries sustained and industrial diseases contracted in the course of their empolyment." This act aims to use those features of the German system which are thought to be applicable to conditions in Ontario. In other respects it deals with the proposition in much the same way as it is handled by a number of states, such as Massachusetts and Michigan.

The administration is to be in the hands of a workmen's compensation board of three members appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council. Each commissioner serves during good behavior for a period of ten years. The board is authorized to decide whether any industry, employment or business shall be included within the state accident insurance fund, or whether in case of injury the employer shall be individually liable to the injured workman. If an industry is not included in the state fund the board may compel the employer to insure in some approved company.

The board is to arrange the various employments into classes (presumably according to their hazard) and to levy assessments upon the members of each group for the payment of losses, administration expenses and the accumulation of a reserve fund. The reserve must equal the present value of future payments which will become due in future years on accidents that have occurred. In this respect it differs from the German system, which is upon the current cost basis. This means that a constantly increasing contribution from German employers will be necessary for thirty or forty years. Under the proposed Ontario system, the premiums are expected to remain approximately level.

The scale of compensation has not been decided, nor has the "waiting" period during which no disability payments are made. These and other details of the bill will be arranged at future conferences. Compensation for disability, however, if payable is to be computed

from the date of the accident. Burial expenses and graduated benefits, depending upon the number of participants and the degree of dependency, are payable to relatives of the deceased workman.

An unusual feature of the bill is the application of the act to industrial diseases. The proposed provision is as follows:

> "Where a workman suffers from an industrial disease and is thereby disabled from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed, or his death is caused by an industrial disease and the disease is due to the nature of any employment in which he was engaged at any time within twelve months previous to the date of his disablement, whether under one or more employments, the workman or his dependents shall be entitled to compensation as if the disease were a personal injury by accident and the disablement were the happening of the accident, subject to the modifications hereinafter mentioned, unless at the time of entering into the employment he had wilfully and falsely represented himself in writing as not having previously suffered from the disease."

The act is meeting opposition from the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, whose attorney throughout the hearing insisted upon the adoption of the current cost system and the elimination of any individual liability upon the part of the employer.

JOTTINGS

EARNING VACATIONS

A new scheme for promoting punctuality that is working to the advantage of both the employer and the employe has been discovered by the German-American Button Company of Rochester, N. Y. As a reward for perfect attendance for twenty-five consecutive weeks, a week's vacation with pay is offered. The company reports that the plan has been received favorably, and that many have already won their vacations.

The Gisholt Machine Co. of Madison, Wis., has had a similar arrangement in operation for some time. As a reward for punctual attendance this concern also offers a week's vacation, but under conditions that require a constantly perfect record if a vacation is to be enjoyed each year. Neither company appears to recognize sickness or any other unavoidable absence as sufficiently excusable to prevent its marring the record.

BETTER VENTILATION—LESS ABSENCE

In an Indiana factory, where for years they had trouble every summer from absences due to minor illnesses, the manager came to the conclusion that the water, which was far from good, was partly if not wholly to blame. So last summer he supplied his men lemonade to drink, and in it he put a substance, such as ginger, which is cooling to the blood. "The good results were almost immediately apparent in a steadier attendance," says a recent issue of *Factory*.

"But the cases of minor ailments and percentage of accidents, still remained entirely too high, in the opinion of the manager, so he investigated further. He went around in different portions of the plant and himself tested the ventilating conditions. They were far from satisfactory. So he enlisted the services of a ventilating expert, who made an exhaustive investigation and report, as a result of which a complete system of mechanical ventilation was installed. The effect of this change was speedily apparent in the reduction of the percentage of absences to a reasonable figure."

PROTECTING NEW YORK CHILDREN

The two child labor bills recommended by the New York Factory Investigating Commission and the newsboys' bill introduced by Senator Boylan at the request of the New York Child Labor Committee, the National Child Labor Committee and other organizations were passed by the New York Legislature on the very eve of adjournment. Canneries and cannery sheds are included in the terms of the child labor law from which they have hitherto been exempt. Tenement home work is more strictly regulated than ever before and the manufacture in tenements of articles of food, dolls or dolls' clothing and articles of children's or infants' wearing apparel is absolutely prohibited. The newsboys' bill raises the age limit of boys in street trades from ten to twelve years and sets eight in the evening instead of ten at night as the hour after which street trading is prohibited to the licensed boys over twelve years of age. The law is extended to third class cities and provides that a child who violates it may be adjudged guilty of juvenile delinquency.

THE MOVEMENT FOR SAFETY

Under the caption Three Years of Accident Prevention the *Iron Age* reviews the experience of the Eastman Kodak Company in its efforts to promote safety in its plants. "The experience" says the writer, "is a strong justification of the works' committee of safety. . . . The work has been progressive with more and better devices installed year by year."

The number of accidents each year for the years 1910 to 1912 was 412, 309 and 341 respectively. There has been in this time a steady increase in number of employes, and the real situation is best shown in the accident rate per thousand. This was 109.72 in 1910, 71.67 in 1911 and 61.13 in 1912.

The Inland Steel Company of Indiana Harbor, Ind., has begun the publication of a monthly safety bulletin. Like the more pretentious safety bulletins issued by the United States Steel Corporation and the Illinois Steel Company it is full of practical safety suggestions, based on experience. The bulletins published by the two latter companies are well illustrated.

ONE DOLLAR IN THE EDUCATIONAL MARKET

HOW A SUPERINTENDENT FOUND THAT GREEK IS THE MOST EXPENSIVE AND MUSIC THE CHEAPEST SUBJECT IN HIS HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

One dollar spent for class instruction in the high school at Newton, Mass., will buy 23.8 recitations in French for a single pupil. It will buy only 5.9 recitations in Greek. Spent on vocal music, it will furnish 41.7 pupil-recitations; while in art, only 13.9 pupil-recitations can be purchased with it. In mathematics it will buy sixteen recitations, and in English 19.2. Chart I shows the purchasing power of the dollar in other subjects.

Looked at from another angle, of every dollar that is actually expended for instruction in the same high school, slightly over fifteen cents goes for Latin, while something like one mill goes for shop work, two mills for mechanical drawing and another two mills for household economics. Eleven cents goes for French, and six for German. Science gets a little over thirteen cents out of every dollar, and mathematics seventeen and one-half cents. English gets about the same amount as mathematics. Five cents is spent on physical training. The amounts spent on other subjects are shown in Chart II.

These facts and others have been discovered by Frank E. Spaulding, superintendent of the Newton schools, who likens the educational administrator, expending so much on this subject and so much on that and thereby putting a definite valuation for the time being on each branch, to the housewife, controlling a limited family budget, who expresses her valuations of the various necessities, luxuries and frivolities of existence by the proportion of her budget that she devotes to each. Superintendent Spaulding "gravely doubts that we educational administrators show any greater wisdom than the average housewife in the disposition of our always limited school budgets."

But even more important perhaps than the revelations which his investigations have made of the way school money is spent in Newton, is the hint which they afford of the possibilities of measuring and comparing things in education never before measured or compared—of applying the yard stick to the relation between school and child. Superintendent Spaulding attracted wide attention with his facts at the recent meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Philadelphia, where a spirited debate took place on the whole question of testing school processes and results. It was the utility of just such studies as he has made which induced the National Council of Education to create a Committee on School Efficiency[1] to encourage and co-operate with school surveys throughout the country.

[1]See THE SURVEY for March 22, page 867.

In estimating the comparative money value set on high school subjects, as told above, Superintendent Spaulding believes that there can be no permanent, universal answer to such questions as "Which is more valuable, a course in Latin or a course in the machine shop?" But there are and must be, he says, temporary, relative and local assignments of value to everything that man desires. "So," he goes on, "while we educational practitioners have been waiting on the educational theorists for an evaluation of the various subjects of actual or possible school curricula, we have been determining for our own schools definitely and minutely the relative values of every such subject. And we have done this, for the most part, without knowing it! The school administrator simply cannot avoid assigning educational values every time he determines the expenditure of a dollar."

Since we cannot deny our responsibility for fixing such relative values as those above, Super-

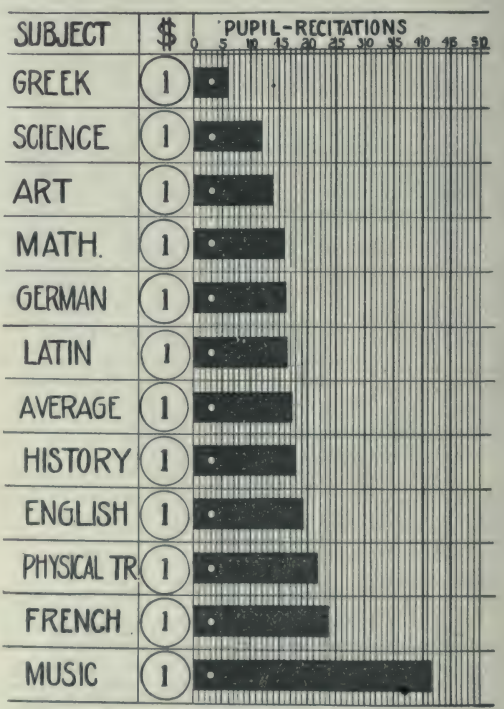


CHART I

Showing how many recitations in the subjects named can be purchased with one dollar in the High School in Newton, Mass.

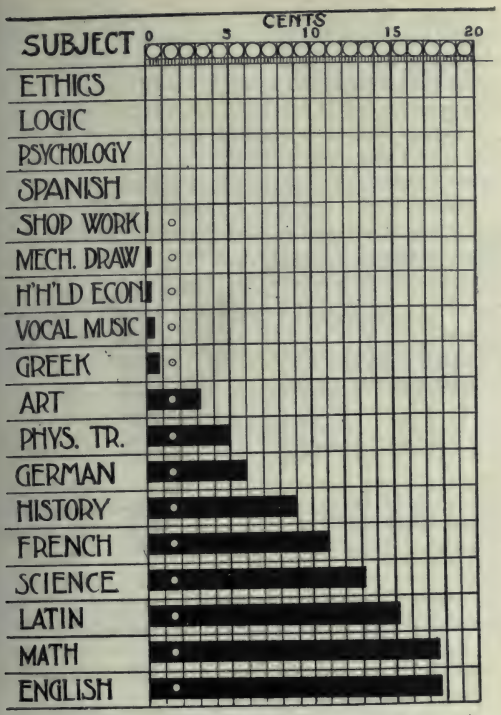


CHART II

Showing how 15 cents of every dollar spent for class room instruction in the Newton High School goes for Latin, while one mill goes for shop work.

intendent Spaulding asks if we feel like denying their equivalency. That will be a wholesome feeling, he says, if it leads to a wiser assignment of values in future. To quote again:

"Greater wisdom in these assignments will come, not by reference to any supposedly fixed and inherent values in these subjects themselves, but from a study of local conditions and needs. I know nothing about the absolute value of a recitation in Greek as compared with a recitation in French or English. I am convinced, however, by very concrete and quite local considerations, that when the obligations of the present year expire, we ought to purchase no more Greek instruction at the rate of 5.9 pupil-recitations for a dollar. The price must go down, or we shall invest in something else."

There are a million pupils in the high schools of the country. It would perhaps be difficult to overestimate the social value of such information as this if it could be obtained for every city and town in the United States.

Another study made by Superintendent Spaulding undertakes to show the actual educational employment of a secondary school pupil at a given time. The secondary schools of Newton are three—a vocational, a technical and a high school. Resolving into one hundred equal parts the education that the "composite pupil" is receiving during any given week, Superintendent Spaulding finds that one-tenth of one part is Greek, while seventeen parts are English; eleven and four-tenths parts are mathematics, while slightly less than nine parts are science; about four parts are German, and a little more than nine parts French; household arts are four and six-tenths parts, while Latin is over five parts; pattern making, electricity, printing, cabinet making, mechanical drawing and machine shop combined are about thirteen and one-half parts, and the commercial branches are nearly eleven. All the subjects taught are shown in Chart III.

Some help may be had from this information, thinks Superintendent Spaulding, in answering the question, "Is the Newton composite secondary school pupil being adequately prepared to meet the composite demands of that society which education should fit him to serve?" The study ought to be complemented, he thinks, by a composite of the needs of social service, using that term in its broadest sense.

It has long been a matter of concern to those interested in our system of free public education that so few of those who reach the fifth and sixth grammar grades and even the eighth, enter or make any substantial progress in the high school. This has been looked upon as one symptom of the failure of the elementary courses to grip the interest of pupils or to contribute vitally to their needs. In some places where this defect has been felt, radical changes have been made in the courses of study in both grammar and high school grades.

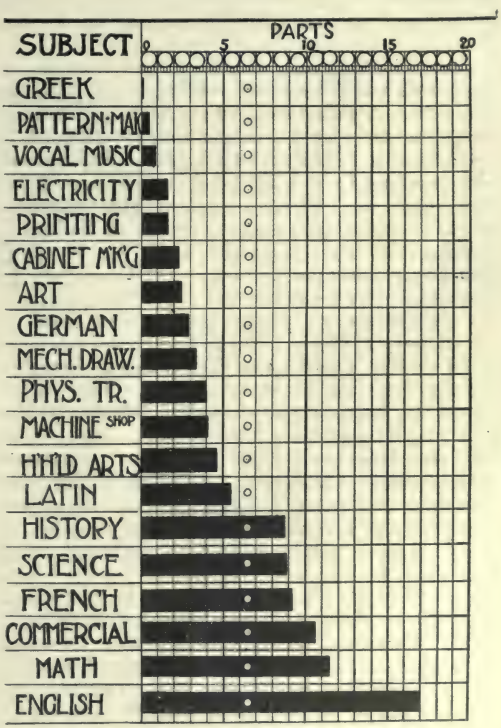


CHART III

What a "composite pupil" in the Newton secondary schools learns at the present time. How far, asks Superintendent Spaulding, does this fit him for the society which he must serve?

Superintendent Spaulding, without denying the necessity of adapting curricula to community needs, has tried to relieve the situation by raising the quality of education in the Newton grammar schools. To do this, he had first to measure that quality in such a way that comparisons could be made between the various grammar schools. He therefore tabulated the standing in first year high school subjects of the pupils sent by the several grammar schools, and made a chart of what he found. His chart shows the relative success of the representatives of each school in all subjects studied in the first year in the high school, and also in English, which is pursued by all first year high school pupils. The pupils from one grammar school were found consistently to lead those from every other in their standing in these subjects. It was therefore concluded that education in this school was superior in quality to education in the other schools, which followed along variously in the scale so that the best school excelled the worst by more than 17 per cent.

Superintendent Spaulding does not claim any absolute value for this comparison. He looks upon it only as a helpful indication of where weakness and strength in teaching lie. As a result, he believes that he knows indisputably what grammar schools are failing most in attaining the one common object of them all—namely to interest the pupil in his own education to such an extent that he will continue it into the high school. With this discovered, the way is open for the remedy.

HOW TEACHERS MAKE A LIVING

Though teaching may not be a sweated industry, a nation-wide investigation has shown that the increased cost of living and the tendency of teachers' salaries to remain stationary compel many teachers to seek supplementary employment in order to make both ends meet. In some cases it was found that janitors receive more than teachers. One woman teacher wrote that her brother, a plasterer, receives $6 and she $2 a day. In Atlanta it is reported that the salary of an elevator boy at the city hall exceeds an established wage for one of the grades by nearly $100 a year.

The investigation, which covered over one year, was made by a committee of the National Education Association and its findings were reported at the recent Philadelphia meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Information was received from 1,735 teachers and over $8,000 was spent in gathering data. The executive work of the study was entrusted to Robert C. Brooks who was connected when the investigation began with the University of Cincinnati but is now with Swarthmore College. The committee in charge were Joseph Swain, president of Swathmore College; Ernest C. Moore, professor of education, Yale University; Grace C. Strachan, district superintendent of schools, New York; David B. Johnson, president of Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.; Harlan Updegraff, professor of education, Northwestern University; and James Ferguson, principal Polytechnic High School, San Francisco. Paid investigators were employed.

The report first attempts to estimate recent increases in the cost of living. The United States Bureau of Labor found that in 1911 wholesale prices were 44.1 per cent higher than in 1897. Measured by wholesale prices, therefore, a teacher whose salary had remained fixed at $1,000 since 1897 would have had no greater purchasing power in 1911 than $693.76 possessed in the earlier year. If, on the other hand, her salary had increased from $1,000 in 1897 to $1,441.47 in 1911, her purchasing power in the latter year would have been exactly equivalent to what it was in 1897.

But it is retail prices which most directly affect teachers. In the case of fifteen staple articles of food the Bureau of Labor found that from 1896 to 1911 retail prices increased 50.2 per cent. During the first six months of 1912 the upward flight went on with increased rapidity. In June of last year retail food prices are declared to have been 61.7 per cent higher than the average for 1896.

While the comparison of teachers' salaries today with teachers' salaries of a former period will not be completed before the end of this school year, the committee presents some interesting information about the economic and social conditions of teachers in five cities, Cincinnati; Hamilton, Ohio; Denver; Atlanta; and New Haven. The average salaries of women grade teachers are, for Atlanta, $564.83; for Hamilton, $629.60; for New Haven, $676.48; for Cincinnati, $888.03; for Denver, $893.32.

In this connection it is interesting to note the figures on teachers' salaries recently compiled by the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation.[1] According to that study thousands of rural teachers throughout the southern states receive less than $150 a year. Taking the country as a whole, the average annual wage of carpenters is declared to be $802, of coal miners $600, of factory workers $550, of common laborers $513, and of teachers $485. One southern state rents its convicts to contractors at a little more than $400 a year and pays its public school teachers slightly over $300.

In Atlanta, women grade teachers add to their salaries from other sources an average of $31.45 a year; in Hamilton, $28.74; in New Haven, $45.24; in Cincinnati, $51.18; and in Denver, $94.40. More than half of all the teachers in the five cities belong to groups adding less than 2½ per cent, and nearly 90 per cent belong to groups adding less than 5 per cent to their salaries from extra teaching or other outside work.

While outside employment does not seem very productive it is extremely varied. One teacher acts as umpire at football games, another writes

[1] See THE SURVEY, February 15, page 685.

plots for moving picture shows and a number do dressmaking. Others are serving as a bookkeeper in a small store, cashier in a department store and as waitresses in summer hotels. One is pastor of a small church, another is a chauffeur, a third raises chickens and one "gives expert advice to a manufacturing firm."

That teaching is not a money-making profession would seem to be more than confirmed, says the report, by the showing as to property owned by teachers. Among unmarried women grade teachers in the five cities two-thirds of those between twenty and twenty-five years have no property. Of those between twenty-five and thirty over half have none. Among the older groups there is of course more property, yet nearly a third of those between forty and forty-five report no property. The average holding, real and personal, among all the unmarried women grade teachers, is $1,091.94.

Yet 59 per cent of the women grade teachers in Denver are supporting one or more partial or total dependents. The average salary of the unincumbered teacher of this group is $885.53, while the average of those who are supporting others is $567.84 per person supported. In Cincinnati 60.8 per cent of the unmarried women grade teachers are supporting others.

Add to this picture the realization that the social status of teachers, the class of people among whom the teacher is expected to move, and efficiency in the school room demand a high standard of living and personal appearance, and you begin to see, says the report, why over half of the men teachers between thirty and thirty-five and nearly a quarter of those between thirty-five and forty are single. "I can't afford married life," was the complaint of many of those who wrote to the committee. You begin to see also why the average number of children in the families of married men teachers is 1.79. Size of family is one place where the teacher can get back at society and save.

WHAT CHILDREN WHO LEAVE SCHOOL REALLY NEED

That there are practically no jobs in large cities which children under sixteen ought to take, and that therefore the only hope for them is to guide them, not into "vocations," but into further training, are some of the radical conclusions reached by the Vocational Education Survey of New York, which recently submitted a preliminary report of its investigations. Further, it is shown that new and intensive studies of actual present day industrial operations and opportunities are needed as a basis for working out such training by the schools.

THE SURVEY has already told how this study, under the direction of Alice P. Barrows, sought light on the question, Why do children leave school in large numbers as soon as they are fourteen? In an intensive study of 302 children who applied for their working papers it was found that not more than 20 per cent of them had left through economic pressure within the home. The group studied is said to be fairly typical of the whole 20,000 who annually take out their labor certificates in New York. To understand what induces the greater number to leave school, says the report, we must understand the attitude of the parents and children toward the school. The most striking thing in this attitude is declared to be their apathy. To quote:

"More than two-thirds of the children and more than three-fourths of the parents had no conviction that it was worth while to spend more time in school. To parents whose whole life is encompassed by steady daily toil, school often seemed a thing apart, outside; it was not a basic necessity of their lives. 'It is nice to learn,' one mother said; but this learning to her mind did not belong to the life of her boy. She could not understand that it was worth a sacrifice to keep him there. On the other hand, some children were restless; some felt too big for school; many passively took it for granted that the age of fourteen was the appropriate time to leave; more of them suddenly wanted to work, they wanted the activity of it, the change of it, the responsibility of it; they felt the approach of maturity, and wanted to earn money and begin to take part in the real life of the world.

"Yet these children were not subnormal; their parents were not 'immigrants of low type'; nor had the children reached the 'limit of development' at the age of fourteen. Eighty-four per cent. of the fathers of this group were foreign born, but of these seventy-three per cent. had been in this country more than ten years; and seventy-one per cent. spoke English."

What becomes of those who leave at fourteen? The investigators followed up 239 who actually went to work. Several months after taking out their papers they had had, all told, 406 jobs. Of these, ninety-four were "outside" errands; nineteen were "on wagons"; sixteen at news-stands; twenty-nine in department stores; twenty-seven in office work; forty-four in miscellaneous inside work; and 177 in manufacturing.

"In all this complexity," says the report, "only one thing remained constant—the lack of training. It ran through practically all jobs, whatever the type of establishment, and left them all the same dull gray color. In 314 out of the 406 jobs there was absolutely no training; in forty-one there was some chance to 'pick up' if the rush was not too great; in thirty, some boys had a chance to work on one process, but this usually meant, 'I did errands and sweeping and sometimes had a chance to work on a machine'; in

twenty-one, there was some supervision, but in the majority of these cases the children were either working in a small shop or with relatives.

"The significance of these figures for the whole group of working-paper children is brought out by the following fact. The children interviewed worked in 215 manufacturing establishments. One hundred and sixty-five, or 76 per cent. of these establishments, belong to the twenty industries in Manhattan having the largest number of workers. These are the big industries in Manhattan, in which the great majority of our working-paper children will work. Therefore, the facts in regard to kinds of work, conditions of work and training for work referred to above indicate the conditions facing the average working-paper child all over the city."

The Danger of Finding Jobs

In the light of these facts, the survey reached the following conclusions with regard to vocational guidance in public elementary schools in New York.

"1. A system of vocational guidance which would mean finding jobs for children under sixteen would be not only futile but dangerously near exploitation, however well meant the intention might be. The facts showed, broadly speaking, that there are no jobs for children under sixteen which they ought to take.

"2. It is useless to attempt to guide children into 'vocations' before we have more information. Neither the Vocational Education Survey nor any other organization has adequate information at present about the demand for workers or the opportunities for and conditions of work and training in the twenty largest industries, not to mention the legion of minor ones.

"What the children want is vocational training. The kernel of truth in this popular movement for vocational guidance is the need of vocational training for children. Vocational guidance should mean guidance for training, not guidance for jobs. Hence, under present conditions, the interests of public school children can best be served, not by the establishment of a vocation bureau, but by the development of vocational training."

The report holds that before proper vocational training can be prescribed for growing children, we must know much more about the revolutionary changes" which have taken place in industry during the last two or three decades. To secure this information the Vocational Education Survey, now a part of the Public Education Association, has begun a second investigation. "The proposed survey will be carried on from an educational point of view, and its specific object will be to collect data about actual industrial conditions for the use of the schools in working out types of industrial training. We do not propose to plan such training, but we propose, if it is desired, to be an agency for the collection of necessary facts which the school has not the time to gather."

THE HIGH SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY NEEDS

The relation between the high school and the college is the subject of a report compiled by Clarence D. Kingsley and issued by the United States Bureau of Education. Mr. Kingsley, who is the agent of the state board of education of Massachusetts, insists that the colleges recognize the changing demands in the high school and base their requirements accordingly. He finds great variety in requirements at present. Certain subjects are considered so important by some colleges that they require them, while other colleges will not even accept them. But his chief criticism is directed at the fact that frequently subjects are omitted which specialists in secondary education and the public at large believe to be of prime importance in the education of boys and girls.

Some real improvements in the relation of high school and college are noted. Many colleges now accept various practical subjects for admission. Of the 203 colleges of liberal arts examined, ninety-seven recognized shop work, eighty-eight commercial branches, eighty agriculture, and seventy-nine "household science" as subjects of admission. There is a large and growing list of colleges that will accept for entrance any subject that an approved high school counts toward graduation.

That admission to college should be based solely on the completion of a well-planned high school course; that the high school should be given free play, so that it may adapt its work to the needs of the community; and that the colleges must keep the door open to the youthful seeker after a college education who is animated by a strong inner purpose in the face of obstacles regardless of whether he has fulfilled the old-fashioned formal requirement or not—these are some of the conclusions drawn by Mr. Kingsley as to the mutual duty of school and college.

THREE STATES PROVIDE INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The Pennsylvania bill establishing a state-wide system of industrial education has passed both houses of the Legislature and been signed by the governor. The State Board of Education administers the act, with the state superintendent of public instruction as the executive officer. This bill closely resembles the Indiana act passed in March.[1]

The New Jersey bill passed shortly before the Pennsylvania one and has also been signed by the governor. This also creates a state-wide system of industrial education, which is to be administered by the state board of education and local boards.

With the Indiana law these two measures make three state-wide systems of industrial education created this winter and spring. In the New Jersey Legislature not an adverse vote was recorded, and only two were cast in Pennsylvania. There was practically no opposition in Indiana.

[1] See THE SURVEY for April 15, page 97.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

"THE SPIRIT OF CHINESE PHILANTHROPY"

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To the average American man of affairs, whose uninformed belief is that there is no real social good in China except what has been planted there through the missionary efforts of outside peoples, it comes as somewhat of a surprise to learn that philanthropy with its spirit of brotherly love and assistance has been taught and enjoined by Chinese philosophers and ethicists from the earliest days and has been the constant and widespread practice of the natives themselves.

The Spirit of Chinese Philanthropy, a monograph by Yu Yue Tsu, is an interesting and instructive analysis of what might be termed, generally, altruistic activity in China. It is written by a native who has combined a close knowledge of the social history and customs of the western world with an intimate grasp of the conditions existent in his own country. He therefore handles his subject from the double vantage point of the man on both the inside and the outside of the social life discussed. The article is broader in its scope than the name would imply. The author has not only given us a clear cut and comprehensive historical outline of the growth and present status of the various forms of charitable and mutual aid endeavor among the Chinese people, but has, in addition, penned an instructive exposition of the real nature of the old imperial government and its various subdivisions of governmental authority. This, together with the thorough analysis of the character of the social and political life of the Chinese masses which he gives, cannot help but interest the average man whom the late striking events in Chinese affairs have just awakened to a realization of the capacity of the Chinese nation.

Of unusual interest to the average westerner, so long accustomed to consider the former imperial Chinese regime as absolutely despotic, is the author's presentation of the real nature of the old Chinese government. Mr. Tsu describes the looseness of the imperial rule. In his judgment, the reason for this is the geographical isolation of China and lack of close contact with other nations. The consequent lack of necessity for a strong central government has led to correlative growth of local government among the smaller units of collective life, towns, prefects and districts. The result has been that while China on the surface was under an absolute monarchical rule, its people were really autonomous. The functions of the general government consisted almost entirely in the collection of nominal taxes and the supervisory and somewhat superficial attention of the real government, which was in the hands of the people.

In the presentation of his subject, Mr. Tsu first traces the spirit of philanthropy through the teachings of the ancient philosophers and the older practices of the people and their rulers. He then, as a preliminary to the discussion of different phases of charitable activity on the part of the Chinese, explains the poverty of the masses in China. This he states is due not to any lack of frugality or capability or application on the part of the people, but rather to the overcrowding of population upon the means of subsistence. This overcrowding is so excessive that privation and absolute starvation must follow any unusual happening, such as a failure of the crops. There is a government poor law designed for the relief of such distress, to be administered by the magistrates, who are the real factors of authority in the smaller governmental districts; yet, owing to the paucity of the revenues obtained from the government taxes, which, despite the general opinion of Chinese official rapacity, are very light, the government poor law is inaffective. Relief of distress is really in the hands of the people themselves.

Mr. Tsu, having described the various forms by which the people have taken over the administration of charity in its elementary sense and discussed at length the private and institutional means whereby the aged, the dependent young and the destitute sick are provided for, takes up under the two heads of Mutual Benefit and Civic Betterment the wider forms of charitable endeavor among the Chinese.

The chapter on Mutual Benefit is one of the most interesting. In it, Mr. Tsu discusses the readiness among Chinese people to combine for the relief of each other's distress. This, he says, constitutes a distinct social habit, particularly as "reenforced by the habits of co-operation engendered in economic activities, such as the Trades Guild, and by consciousness of kind developed within particular groups, such as the Clan and the Community." The chapter contains a most instructive outline of these different organizations.

The clan, as a consanquinity group, observing patronymic descent, is discussed with relation to its social value in the promotion of charities and general co-operative spirit in social life and it is shown to render great service in the maintenance of law and order in the country. To quote the author: "The traditional law-abiding nature of the people, despite the apparent absence of governmental machinery, is explained

by the clan solidarity, working itself out in a system of legal responsibility of members of a family for one another." This clan conscience is termed by Mr. Tsu the simplest expression of social conscience in its broadest meaning, because it is elementary and primary and first appears in social evolution.

The next simplest expression of social conscience he terms "local spirit" or "localism," by which he means the attachment to a locality, and secondarily, attachment of members of the locality to one another. He instances as the best example of this the Chinese village which, though politically under the local magistrate, who has jurisdiction over all the villages in his district, is in reality a self-governing group. They resemble the early English communities, with their town-meeting government and elective head men who had delegated powers, consisting in the maintenance of roads, supervision of fairs, building and upkeep of public edifices, sinking of wells and the policing of the place. This spirit of localism is also expressed in various ways in co-operation in the collateral, economic, and industrial life of the village. It is expressed in village charities, mutual loan societies and in mutual providential societies, whereby provision is made for the special drains upon the members' resources occasioned by weddings or funerals. Another form of mutual benefit in Chinese life is the district club existing in large trading cities and towns. This provides a basis of association for persons temporarily absent from home.

The fourth subdivision of mutual benefit taken up comprises the trade and craft guilds which cover almost all the trades and professions and forms of labor. These, though existing primarily for the promotion of the interests of the specific trades, crafts, etc., have also extensive interests in matters of social relief, whereby the guilds really become mutual benefit agencies for assistance in misfortune.

The third general division of Chinese philanthropy discussed is Civic Betterment which, in Chinese conception and practice, is a legitimate field for the exercise of altruistic energies. In this chapter, Mr. Tsu discusses the Chinese government in theory and in practice. He shows, as has been stated, that the old imperial government, while in theory an absolute oriental monarchy, with subdivisions into provinces, provinces divided into prefectures, and prefectures into districts governed by magistrates, and with the social welfare of the people a well recognized function of the government, in reality had no other contact with the actual life of the people than certain minimum requirements for administrative purposes and a general disciplinary oversight. The people are left to work out their own salvation in perfect freedom. In point of fact, the Chinese are governed less than almost any nation in the world. The result is that many undertakings such as roads, street lights, removal of rubbish, water supply, school system, police, fire protection, etc., which people of the west are accustomed to regard as functions of a municipal government are, with a few exceptions of recent date, never undertaken by the proper government officials but are handled by the people themselves.

The philanthropic work through co-operative measures on the part of the people described under the general title of Civic Betterment comprises in the main (1) free educational opportunities; (2) public safety and protection; (3) free public service, such as ferries, roads, and bridges; and (4) municipal self-governing by the people. The evolution of this latter is thus described by the author:

"The work of the philanthropic and co-operative associations for civic betterment, as described above, belongs to the class of municipal functions and has been undertaken by the people themselves because of neglect by the government authorities,—as we have already pointed out. Beginning in voluntary co-operation for mutual benefit, these undertakings gradually become established by custom and finally are recognized as public institutions, both by the people and the civil authorities. At first scattered and uncoordinated, the agencies for these undertakings gradually coalesce and consolidate into one system. Thus results what is virtually municipal self-government by the people. Instead of the civil authorities protesting against the encroachment on their authorities, they encourage this development of popular self-rule by giving it full recognition and freedom of action."

As an instance, the author cites the local guild of Newchwang, Manchuria, which maintains order in the streets; takes care of the roads, drains and reservoirs; controls public lands; administers poor relief; subsidizes charitable institutions; controls banks; and regulates exchanges of trade, marts and transportation. Mr. Tsu then takes up local self-government as a growing movement and comes to the following conclusion:

"It is thus apparent that by successive and almost imperceptible gradations, what was, in the beginning, mere voluntary co-operative measures on the part of the people for mutual protection and civic betterments on the occasion of official omission in a political organization wherein popular franchise was unknown, has become one of the fundamental features of a new order of political life, wherein popular franchise and self-government are the essential features. The outward suddenness, apparently suggested by the promulgation of the new constitution and the transition from an absolute monarchy to a democratic form of government, is therefore more apparent than real. Silent causes have been working for generations under the shadow of the old regime, and the new regime is their natural consummation."

In conclusion, the author declares Chinese philanthropy to be a product of the genius of the Chinese nation and an expression of Chinese civilization, possessing as its notable characteristic a democratic foundation and indicating a developed social consciousness in the hearts of the people and a strong sense of social solidarity.

A WORKING PROGRAM FOR THE EXTINCTION OF THE DEFECTIVE DELINQUENT

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In every prison and reformatory are found insane, feeble-minded, epileptic, alcoholic, "drug fiends" or cripples. The term defective delinquents is applied to such individuals. Until recently there was no reliable information as to the number of defectives in prisons and reformatories.

Scientific psychological studies of the inmates of several adult and juvenile reformatories indicate that the number of the feeble-minded in reformatories is much larger than had been supposed. Dr. Walter E. Fernald of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded says "At least 25 per cent of the inmates of our penal institutions are mentally defective. Nearly 50 per cent of the girls at the Lancaster Reformatory are mentally defective."

Psychological examinations of inmates of a number of reformatories indicate defectives, approximately, as follows:

New York Reformatory, Elmira, 37 per cent.
New Jersey Reformatory, Rahway, 33 per cent.
New York Reformatory for Women, Bedford, 37 per cent.
Massachusetts Industrial School for Girls, Lancaster, 50 per cent.
Maryland Industrial School for Girls, Baltimore, 60 per cent.
State Home for Girls, Trenton, 33 per cent.
Illinois State School for Boys, St. Charles, 20 per cent.

Judging from these figures, Dr. Fernald's estimate of 25 per cent is conservative. On that basis there are 20,000 defective delinquents in adult prisons and 6,000 in juvenile reformatories, or a total of 26,000 in actual custody. Probably as many more are at large as there are in institutions.

Thus we have two classes of inmates: people able to take care of themselves if a proper basis of character could be established; and people so deficient in mentality as to be unable to succeed.

These two classes need radically different treatment. The normal inmate needs physical renovation, intellectual stimulus, educational treatment, religious training, proper desires, self-control and self-reliance, vocational training, release on parole, restoration to family life. But the defectives in prisons and reformatories need kindly care, rudimentary education, physical training, vocational training in simple industries, plenty of recreation and sympathetic care, and permanent institutional life. It is a needless cruelty to discipline, exhort and educate the feeble-minded in fruitless efforts to develop faculties of mind and soul which do not exist.

In order to extinguish defective delinquents we must restrict the propagation of the feeble-minded. This may be undertaken by popular education in the principles of eugenics, by laws restricting marriage, by the sterilization of defectives and by segregation.

Education against the marriage of the unfit reaches only the intelligent, not the most dangerous. Restrictive marriage laws are unavailing because the unfit reproduce their kind regardless of marriage laws. Sterilization is at best a partial remedy, and is restricted in application by public sentiment. It is actually operative in only one of the eight states which have passed sterilization laws.

Sterilization

Sterilization is advocated by many penologists and alienists as a preventive measure. The writer, it should be stated in order to avoid misunderstanding, is one of those who favors the *sterilization* of rapists, sexual perverts or degenerates, confirmed masturbators and others whose sexual tendencies call for such action for the protection of the community.

Laws providing for the sterilization of certain classes have been passed by eight states: Indiana (1907); Connecticut, California and Washington (1909); Nevada, New Jersey and Iowa (1911); and New York (1912). Most of these acts have followed the general trend of the Indiana law, which provides that each institution entrusted with the care of confirmed criminals, idiots, rapists and imbeciles must appoint two skilled surgeons. These, with the chief physician of the institution, are directed to examine the mental and physical condition of such inmates as are recommended by the institutional physician and board of managers. If, in the judgment of this committee and the board of managers, procreation is inadvisable and there is no probability of improvement it shall be lawful to perform such operation for the prevention of procreation as shall be decided safest and most effective.

The New Jersey law covers rapists, idiots, imbeciles, morons, epileptics and other defectives.

The provision of the laws passed in other states are similar to those of Indiana and New Jersey. The Connecticut and the Iowa laws impose a penalty upon a surgeon who performs such an operation upon any person outside the classes described in the act. The Iowa law adds drunkards, drug fiends and syphilitics.

The objects of sterilization laws are stated as follows:

(a) To prevent criminal heredity.
(b) To prevent rape and punish rapists.
(c) To prevent the inheritance of feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, etc.
(d) To provide "a healthful warning and deterrent for reckless sex defectives."

Dr. E. C. Sharp, physician of the Indiana State Reformatory at Jeffersonville, in a pamphlet published by the National Christian League for the Promotion of Purity, considers "means by which we may beget none but sound offspring."

He discusses proposed methods and says: "Restricting propagation seems to be universally agreed upon as necessary for the relief of this condition. The difficulty lies in deciding upon the proper method." He discards several proposed methods, as follows:

(a) "The education of public opinion, so that those who are from defective parentage shall abstain from marriage" because it "is even worse than absurd."

(b) Restrictive legislation for the purpose of preventing marriage among defectives because unfortunately "matrimony is not always necessary to propagation."

(c) Segregation of degenerates in institutions because it would necessitate the expenditure of enormous sums to maintain colonies or industrial refuges, which would be a disappointment in the end.

(d) "Castration" because "it causes too much mental and nervous disturbance."

Dr. Sharp says: "I heartily endorse as an additional punishment in certain offenses an operation known as vasectony, which consists of ligating and resecting a small portion of the vas deferens."

(a) "This operation is simple and easy without anesthetic, general or local."

(b) "The subject is effectually sterilized."

(c) "He returns to work immediately, suffers no inconvenience, and is in no way impaired for his pursuit of life, liberty and happiness."

(d) "There is no disturbed mental or nervous condition following."

(e) "The patient ceases excessive masturbation."

(f) "He advises his fellows to submit to the operation for their own good."

(g) "After the vas deferens has been severed, you may by a second operation repair it and re-establish the original function."

(h) "Women may be subject to sterilization as well as men."

It is astonishing that this plan should have been adopted by so many legislatures in view of the fact that it has been discredited in Dr. Sharp's own state, and has been put into operation thus far in only one other state.

The Indiana law went into effect in 1907. The published reports of the Indiana State Reformatory show in the fiscal year 1907-8 119 operations, in 1908-9 thirty-nine operations, in 1909-10 one operation, in 1910-11 none. The reason for the discontinuance of this operation, notwithstanding the fact that the law said "it shall be compulsory for each and every institution," is that the governor of the state of Indiana believed the law unconstitutional. Up to November 1, 1912, there had been no operations under the laws of Connecticut, Washington, New Jersey, Iowa or New York. In California the law has gone into effect, and more than 300 operations have been performed.

In view of these facts, it would seem wise for other states to await judicial decisions and practical tests of this plan in states where the law has already been adopted before enacting such legislation. Certain objections to the method proposed by Dr. Sharp present themselves to the practical student:

(1) The operation has little, if any, deterrent value. Dr. Sharp says: "All other methods proposed place restrictions—therefore punishment—upon the subject; this method absolutely does not." In another article he calls attention to the fact that the disability can be removed by a second operation.

(2) This operation, while it sterilizes the individual, does not interfere with the practice of sexual intercourse; it does not prevent the individual from committing rape; it does not prevent masturbation (Dr. Sharp says: "The patient . . . ceases excessive masturbation"); it does not interfere in the slightest degree with the transmission of venereal disease.

(3) The plan advocated by Dr. Sharp carries with it a proposition which is monstrous and abhorrent. After setting forth the contents and the effect of the Indiana law, he says: "This is indeed a very long step in the right direction . . . I would, however, carry it a little further, and make the provision in our marriage laws, that when one or both contracting parties suffer from a defect, or a chronic transmissible disease, the male should be sterilized. Then let them go on and marry; and by this means there will possibly be a support given and a protectorate thrown about some feeble-minded woman, that in any other event would become a public charge, or a prostitute, or more than likely the mother of illegitimate children."

Consider the meaning of this last declaration. The feeble-minded girl is, in physical development and inclinations, a woman; she is in mind an innocent child. Dr. Sharp proposes to take this innocent and helpless child and hand her over bodily to a diseased rake, "and by this means there will possibly be a support given and a protectorate thrown about some feeble-minded woman." It is time that a protest was raised against this inhuman proposition.

Sterilization is a legitimate and proper proceeding for certain classes, but the method employed should be such that it will be dreaded and not welcomed by the criminal and the degenerate, and such as to hinder and not to promote the spread of disease. No sterilization law can be effective until a strong public sentiment is developed to sustain the execution of such laws.

Segregation—the Method Cited

Segregation is the most practical and effective means to restrict the propagation of the feeble-minded. It has been successfully tested with the insane. Thirty years ago the segregation of the insane seemed almost a hopeless undertaking; but, in twenty-three years, from 1880 to 1903, the number of insane in hospitals was increased nearly four-fold, and the ratio was increased from eighty-two to 186 for each 100,000 of the population. What has been done for the insane can be done for the feeble-minded.

We may estimate the number of feeble-minded under public care as follows: in institutions for feeble-minded, 20,000; in almshouses, 16,000; in hospitals for insane, 5,000; in prisons and reformatories, 26,000. Thus 67,000 are already under public care or as near as can be judged one-third of the feeble-minded persons in the United States. The problem of segregating the feeble-minded is not as large in proportion to our resources as was that of segregating the insane thirty years ago.

A Practical Working Program

Thus far we have started at the wrong end. Schools have been built on the theory that, by employing teachers of special skill and training and by adopting improved educational methods, defective children will become normal members of the community.

These hopes have invariably been disappointed. When these children have been sent out into the world, they have either been returned or have become a burden upon the community in other ways. The most competent authorities agree that it is useless to try to develop the latent menality of feeble-minded children, because it does not exist.

The following suggestions are offered as a working program:

1. Secure legislation whereby institutions for feeble-minded children shall hold their inmates as the insane are, by legal commitment. In most states, the parents' consent to commitment is either required or is customary. Parents who find their children apparently improved often insist upon their release against professional advice.

2. Secure legislation whereby, whenever inmates of institutions for other classes are found to be feeble-minded, they may be kept permanently in public care.

3. Provide by law for the establishment of separate departments, in connection with prisons and reformatories, and transfer to these colonies for permanent custodial care all inmates found to be feeble-minded.

4. Convert existing institutions which are no longer needed for present purposes into state institutions for defective delinquents.

5. Undertake a comprehensive campaign for the care of all feeble-minded girls of child-bearing age. The problem of the feeble-minded girl is much more acute than that of the feeble-minded boy. In a letter just received from Dr. Henry H. Goddard, of New Jersey, he says: "The feeble-minded woman is more dangerous to society than the feeble-minded man, because she is much more likely to find a mate than he is—possibly, according to our statistics, somewhere in the neighborhood of three times as likely." There are probably 60,000 feeble-minded women of child-bearing age in the United States. About 13,000 are already under care in reformatories and institutions for the feeble-minded. We are already taking care of about 100,000 insane women in hospitals. It is possible to make institutional provision for all of the feeble-minded women in the United States.

6. Secure legislation whereby institutions for feeble-minded shall cease to receive girls under the age of twelve, or boys of any age, until every feeble-minded girl of child-bearing age is provided for. The feeble-minded girl is but a child. She is as innocent, helpless and child-like as her normal sister of half her years, and she is entitled to the same protection and chivalrous regard as the little girl of similar mentality. Yet she is left without protection to be pursued and hunted by evil-minded men *as ruthlessly as hunters pursue a rabbit.* Society deals with her as if she were responsible. She is arrested, condemned to prison, or, more humanely, sent to a reformatory for discipline and training; but the managers are compelled by law to send her home to be exposed to fresh temptation, abuse and contumely, to breed her own sort, and finally to join the great army of prostitutes.

7. Undertake a vigorous campaign throughout the country for increased provision for the feeble-minded classes. This is the next great task of our people, and it must be bravely met.

This campaign should undertake to establish:

(a) Care in almshouses for males over fourteen years and females over forty-five;

(b) Custodial institutions for feeble-minded women like those in New York and New Jersey;

(c) Institutions for defective delinquents among those committed by the criminal and juvenile courts;

(d) Small institutions for young children who ought to be cared for as a matter of humanity;

(e) Schools for backward children in the large cities to sift out subnormal children, and give them school-room care until institutional care can be provided.[1] In small communities, it is impossible to establish such schools, and the only practicable way to meet their needs is by creating state or county institutions.

[1]The New Jersey law requires a special class in every school district having ten or more children three years behind grade. The state gives a subsidy of $500 a year for each special class. We incline to think feeble-minded children might stay at home and attend special classes until puberty.

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

THE INSTITUTIONAL CHURCH FOR THE RURAL COMMUNITY

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For years the city has boasted of its "institutional" church. At first it met the criticism of other Christian organizations. This criticism was due to ignorance of the fine nature of this new type of church work, or to incapacity to sense the varying needs of a densely populated community. Institutional churches, nevertheless, did much good and helped adjust the religious world to new situations brought on by the expansion of commerce, the new industrial order and the congestion of population in manufacturing and business centers.

The necessity that called them forth, however, was soon met increasingly by other agencies. The spirit of community service spread and the local government has been led to assume many of these social functions undertaken by private or religious organizations. The institutional church differed from others not so much in spirit or in any change of theological interpretation, but rather by extending and adjusting its work more completely to the concrete needs of the people. In so doing it only gave expression of Christ-like love in terms of practical service. It applied Christianity practically to personal and community needs.

We are confronted in the country at present with needs that are just as urgent as were ever faced by a city, and the rural church organizations, as they at present exist, are often as inadequate as the older type of city church organization often proved to be. We need in the country a church organization that shall at once take cognizance of the actual state of affairs and be willing to perform many tasks to which it has heretofore been totally unaccustomed. The church of the country must not be satisfied with a gospel of personal salvation, but must be filled with the passion of vitalizing the life of the entire country-side with ideals that do justice to our social Christianity. It must be willing to inspire men and institutions with a zeal to make such adjustments of policy and aim as shall make them factors for the betterment of the community. The church must so energize rural life that it may keep pace with our advancing civilization. It is the purpose of this article to suggest the character of the rural institutional church and the specific steps to accomplish its social mission.

We have become aware of a situation in many of our rural districts startling to many who have rested under the assumption that the country districts were inhabited by sturdy Christian men and women without problems and somehow absolved from making adjustments in a civilization that is constantly undergoing change. The country-side, as surely as the great cities, has undergone radical transformations. While the growth of large cities, the shifting of population and the changes in the industrial and educational requirements of our life were setting in, our country people for the most part held to their conservatism, cherished their old institutions and looked with pride upon their customs and traditions. Many of the most capable men and women were drawn from the country to the cities by the enchanting calls of industry and commerce. Advancing educational ideals, quickening religious interests and the adoption of scientific methods of business left the country comparatively untouched. Failing to keep pace with the advance of the nation as a whole, and in some respects deteriorating, we do not wonder that it now presents a problem.

Frederick C. Howe says that a rural civilization which has been in the process of formation since the fall of the Roman Empire has been destroyed by the industrial development and preponderant growth of the cities. George A. Russell takes a slightly different attitude, but comes to the same conclusion. At the annual general meeting of the Irish Agricultural Organization Society held in December, 1909, he delivered an address entitled The Building of a Rural Civilization. We quote from the address:

> "Outside the cities there have always been the same country-sides of little homes, the same neglect of culture, the same want of education, the lack of organized intellectual, political and economic power which set up a barrier between the country man and his access to the finer things of life.
>
> "We hear the cry 'back to the land' continually, but for one who goes back a thousand go away. The miracle to be wrought is the creation of a rural civilization. Civilization implies some measure of comfort and luxury. It can only be attained when the community is organized and has strength to retain some surplus of wealth beyond what is required for the bare necessities of life. The organized industries and the organized communities are always wresting any surplus from the unorganized. The business mind of the country must be organized to counter the business mind of the town.

So the task that faces the country church is no less a task than the rebuilding of an entirely new rural civilization able to promote its own interests and properly support its own burden in an expanding national life.

The most pressing need of this new church for the country is a minister who understands the situation to which his predecessors have been blind. He must be a man who has vision to see the immediate needs and is capable of relating these needs to the progressive movements of the nation. Not only must he have consecration, devotion and religious fervor, but an inclusive objective view which will enable him to determine the exact status of his people in relation to life as a whole.

We would never consider the captain of a seagoing vessel competent if he knew only his ship thoroughly. The captain must be able to determine longitude and latitude, his position at any moment of the day or night, the dangers that may possibly be encountered and the destination of the ship. In addition, he must be able to inspire those under him with confidence to secure their obedience, and direct the vessel as he desires. So our country minister must have not only knowledge of the immediate local situation, but also must be a man of nation-wide vision, in order to be able in some degree to determine the position of his people, politically, economically and socially. Thus only can he have such a command of facts as to be able to give his people confidence that he can lead them to more worthy attainments in harmony with the best tendencies of the time.

The greatest need which is now facing the country is for the development of a social morality. The farmer is mentally constituted to be a thorough-going individualist. From the first settlement of the soil it has been necessary for him to survive and succeed through his own initiative and by his own strength. His dwelling has been a comparatively isolated farmhouse. Only occasionally does he see much of other people. Those who cannot endure such a life retreat to the cities. Others retire within themselves and their family circle. So social morality developed in the city. There people are forced to consider one another because they are dependent upon each other. But this consideration is shown least and last toward the rural people, upon whom the city dwellers do not hesitate to prey.

Many inventions, however, have promoted the social spirit in the country. People have been brought more closely together by the rail, the telephone and rural delivery. Specialized and scientific farming encourages and almost compels the farmer to meet and confer with other men. Thus the social spirit is more and more becoming the atmosphere of rural life and labor.

Although the farmer is thus ripening for this change in his mental attitude, he is nevertheless conservative and clings tenaciously to the past. He needs education and guidance along social lines, in order to do his duty and achieve his legitimate success.

Religion is surcharged with social impulses and motives. The Christian religion was founded upon a fellowship of plain men with the Son of Man. It grew to supersede all other forms of faith in the Roman Empire because of its founder's ideals of brotherhood and of a saved society. It has of late received a new birth. The church of the social ideal in the country is in a position to work miracles in the transformation of the rural mind.

The social regeneration of the country is the opportunity of the church. Its minister must preach and teach a social morality. He must make the farmer sensitive to the interests of those whom he does not see, as well as of those of his neighbor. One farmer is reported to have refused to sell milk to his neighbors because he was suspicious of its quality, but disposed of it to city consumers without any qualms of conscience over the sickness and death it might produce. The kind-hearted farmer must have his natural sympathy tinged with an imagination unusual to him. He must have a spiritual basis to enable him to co-operate with his fellow men for industrial and political progress. Never before have so many people been dependent upon the farmer for their daily bread. The farmer must produce more and get better distribution for his products. Our schools of agriculture are teaching him to produce more, but only when the farmers attain the spirit of co-operation among each other and cease to distrust their fellow men in the cities will any solution be found for the waste in distribution due to inadequate business organization.

Farmers must learn to co-operate politically. The prejudices of intense partisanship and personal antagonism are paralyzing forces. There must be a class interest among farmers, however, in order to take concerted action for the protection and advancement of their legitimate interests. But this involves the advance of the whole farming community. The stronger farmers have too little concern for those who are unsuccessful. The spirit of sacrificial service must be born into the life of the strong. The strong must share with the weak the vision of a regenerated country life, and the realization of that ideal should be the religious passion of every country-side.

The institutional church should supply a place for the discussion of public questions. The country store has been a valuable forum. President Wilson has attributed the debating powers of western public men to the interest in politics and the practice in discussion promoted by the country store debates. But a better forum is needed, which shall be conducted at stated intervals and shall be guided by parliamentary procedure. The discipline and stimulus furnished by participation in deliberative assemblies can not be overestimated.

Prof. Edward A. Ross maintains that the success of parliamentary government in Anglo-Saxon countries, over that of other European lands, is due to parliamentary procedure. It does away with personalities. It lessens friction. It gives time for fair discussion and for arriving at judicial decisions. Those taking part in debate under such regulative restraints learn to be

cool headed, to respect their opponents, to detach themselves from personal fears and address themselves to the question at hand. The farmer needs this discipline. Our farmer legislators rarely demonstrate their strength and usefulness because they lack this training. If our rural life is to be regenerated it must be a redemption from within.

The country church can furnish the means and opportunity for this self-development. Its minister should be foremost in prompting it. He should be familiar with rural issues both in his own locality and throughout the whole country. He should know how the issues of state and nation will affect his people and their interests. Commercial associations in the cities are alive to every influence which legislation and public policy exert upon their constituents. Our farmers are too often dependent upon politicians who, to retrieve their waning fortunes, champion those who have found no other voice through which to appeal. If the church is to become an agency for the formation of vigorous opinions upon pressing issues it must bring them to bear upon local needs. Interest in public policies and social movements elsewhere often becomes indifference and hostility when application is made to local interests and surroundings.

The rural church must find young men capable of being inspired with the opportunities for leadership in the country. Such leaders can do much to retain in rural communities those temperamentally fitted for life and labor. The country pastor, moreover, should promote efficiency among the young people of his community. The country church should also give the country a fair hearing for its own youth. Something more than scientific farming must be shown to be necessary. The country youth should be made to see that social and political efficiency is as necessary to the welfare of the community as scientific farming. We need country social workers, editors, lawyers, ministers and most of all teachers to lead the way from bondage to freedom. Leaders who spring from the soil can best raise the standards of country life.

To help determine the normal standard of living for a rural community is another great mission of the country church. To assume that country life is exceptionally healthful and sanitary is a most mischievous assumption. Country dwellings are generally poorly ventilated, insufficiently heated and badly lighted. Country food is generally wholesome, but the cultivation of the garden and orchard for variety of diet is often neglected. Contagious or infectious diseases are frequently considered natural or unavoidable and are allowed to pass unchallenged. If the same percentage of deaths occurred in the city, inquiry into the cause of it would be demanded and those responsible would be held to account. Rest, recreation and the hours of work are ignored or forbidden topics. Children are assigned to tasks too heavy and prolonged for their welfare.

More accurate information on these vital human interests needs to be acquired and disseminated among country people. Local pride should be stimulated and careful plans made for the direction of all activities of country life. The church should be the prime mover in this stimulation and planning. It should broaden its function and method to meet these needs. It should be a pioneer in attempting these new tasks and in grappling with these old problems. It should co-operate with all existing organizations, giving its strength and support to those needing its help and getting help from those who can give it. The "institutional" church in the country is really the church whose functions and methods are defined by the manifest needs of the country community.

A REAL CO-OPERATIVE COMMUNITY AT A COUNTRY CROSS-ROADS

A real human interest story on the practical realization of rural ideals at a country cross-roads in Wisconsin is given by Harry P. Lowater in the *Springfield Republican*. The method followed seems to save the situation from that problem of "hired help" which menaces alike the peace and prosperity of country life. The things described may sound too sentimental to be business-like, or too business-like to be religious, but nevertheless the article explains that investment of humanity in industry and that application of religion to work-a-day life which more and more are proving to be the soundest business policy and an essential function of the ministry of the church. The article follows:

Were you ever in a one-room school-house when it was partly filled with people all neighbors and residents of a cross-roads settlement where efforts had been made to "settle close together, work together, play together and live together in contentment"—a cross-roads where co-operative ideas were fed to the family at every meal, taught at school and preached from the pulpit? Do you like to hear the hum of neighborhood contentment? There are such centers.

Hearing of the success which followed the method of a certain group of farmers in procuring hired help and the retaining of the cream of such help, I visited the chairman of the farm neighborhood round-table help committee and asked for a statement. First it is necessary to state that the people of this neighborhood have built closely together somewhat after the English method; that they own some buildings in common; that they have a boarding-house and common room for amusement and reading, etc. The chairman's statement follows:

A thoughtful lawyer once told me in Minnesota, if every farmer could hire his help, keep them contented through a season and pay them promptly with a smile, one-half of the justice of the peace business would cease. All of which I believe to be true. In this neighborhood we have a paid committee consisting of two men and one woman. The men have special charge of all transient or short-time male help, while the woman aids the farmers' wives and female outdoor help. Of course they consult and work together. This committee advertised at first of-

fering a good board at cost with good separate beds (generally stating price).

That ten hours should constitute a day's work.

An amusement, smoking and reading room common to all in connection with the common boarding-house.

Free publications published in certain foreign languages.

At first we only sifted out one man, who was offered work by the year and a tenant's cottage for his family. But that one man helped us to get others. Those others help us to get still others until now we do not have to advertise, as we have more applications than we need.

How do we work? Mr. Smith needs help. He has notified us in advance, and his notice, with others, has been recorded in such a manner that the committee can see, like the train dispatcher, just where help is needed and in what order. The night before the need, Mr. Smith telephones what he would like to do. We send him men with teams and a special expert boss hand, and the work is rushed without the usual loss of motion and power. The special boss hand keeps everybody and everything wound up, stopping the usual leaks of time, material and energy. Mr. Smith and his usual farm power attend to their end of the job, be it planting, harvesting, threshing, butchering, fencing, clearing, plowing or cultivating; while his wife knows no change in her day's work. . . .

The key to our success might be stated thus: Give each workman the same chance that the city labor affords, or a better one, good food and plenty of it, good beds, a chance to talk and visit after work is done. Provide a place for simple amusements during rest hours. Let each worker be his own master when off duty. Pay each week. Pay for all extra time. Treat each man at all times as if he were a human being. Time has proved the wisdom of our method by the effort each man makes to make things move during the ten hours of work.

Of course, our constant sifting has produced a gang of skilled labor that works smoothly under all conditions, because it is lubricated with the oil of unselfishness and increased and regular pay. Yes, sir, there is more accomplished by each man in our ten hours then there used to be in the old way in fifteen hours. False moves, no moves and misapplied energy cost money. Then, too, the yearly cost is less than it used to be. Our method is a money saver for each farmer.

Where do we get the teams? We encourage the boys to raise colts and break them and this provides extra teams to sell or use. Mr. Smith's teams are busy to-day, but Mr. Brown's teams are idle. Each team in the neighborhood is numbered, and a glance at the workboard will show its condition, while a telephone message will ascertain whether it can be hired. Town teamsters are eager to answer our telephone call and only by good work can they expect new calls.

We pay everybody in cash and at the time it should be paid. There is no exchange of labor allowed. A slow man gets paid according to his work, quantity and quality being considered. Short-time farmers are docked as quickly and surely as any laborer. Why not? In short, it is the effort of this committee to make this co-operative work a co-operative factory business; to gain time, stop leaks and have all work in harmony.

Can't be done on most farms? There's where you are wrong. The underlying principles of our method spell success on any farm if the manager is broad-minded enough to apply those principles. Unless he is able to forget that the help is present after work hours he will fail. It's the constant little requests here and there during the help's off hours that displease.

"THE CHALLENGE OF THE COUNTRY"

To the College Men and Women
Who Love Country Life
Enough to Resist the Lure of the City
And Invest Their Talents in
Rural Christian Leadership
We Offer This
CHALLENGE OF THE COUNTRY.

Thus is dedicated the latest volume appearing in the following list of books on rural interests—The Challenge of the Country, a Study of Country Life Opportunity by Prof. George Walter Fiske of Oberlin.

The opportunities for community building are put up to college men as a challenge both to service and to self-interest. Responsibilities and openings for rural leadership are pressed home to college women as a challenge to womanly capacity, devotion and self-advancement. Prof. Thomas Nixon Carver's appeal for "the productive life fellowship" is quoted from his volume on The Religion Worth Having as "the heroic appeal of country life, leadership and service":

> "It offers to young men days of toil and nights of study. It offers frugal fare and plain clothes. It offers lean bodies, hard muscles, horny hands, or furrowed brows. It offers wholesome recreation to the extent necessary to maintain the highest efficiency. It offers the burdens of bringing up large families and training them in the productive life. It offers the obligation of using all wealth as tools and not as means of self-gratification. It does not offer the insult of a life of ease, or aesthetic enjoyment, or graceful consumption, or emotional ecstasy. It offers, instead, the joy of productive achievement, or participating in the building of the Kingdom of God.
>
> "To young women it also offers toil, study, frugal fare, and plain clothes, such as befit those who are honored with a great and difficult task. It offers also the pains, the burdens and responsibilities of motherhood. It offers also the obligation and perpetuating in succeeding generations the principles of the productive life made manifest in themselves. It does not offer the insult of a life of pride and vanity. It offers the joys of achievement, of self-expression, not alone in dead marble and

canvas, but also in the plastic lives of children to be shaped and moulded into those ideal forms of mind and heart which their dreams have pictured. In these ways it offers to them also the joys of participating in the building of the Kingdom of God."

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GENERAL AND GOVERNMENTAL ASPECTS.

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The Rural Life Problem of the United States. By Sir Horace Plunkett. Macmillan Company.

The State and the Farmer. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan Company.

Report of Federal Commission on Country Life Appointed by President Roosevelt. Sturgis and Walton Company.

Rural Versus Urban. By John W. Bookwalter. Knickerbocker Press.

The Vision of a New Clairvoux. By Edward Pearson Pressey. Sherman, French & Company.

The Country Life Movement. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan Company.

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Country Life. American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Chapters in Rural Progress. By Kenyon L. Butterfield. University of Chicago Press.

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The Outlook to Nature. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan Company.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ASPECTS.

Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics. By Henry Charles Taylor. Macmillan Company.

Principles of Rural Economics. By T. N. Carver. Ginn and Company.

Constructive Rural Sociology. By John M. Gillette. Sturgis & Walton Company.

Farm Wages in the United States. United States Department of Agriculture. Bulletin No. 26, 1903.

Co-Operation in Agriculture. By G. Harold Powell. Macmillan Co.

Co-Operation in New England. By James Ford. Survey Associates, Inc.

The Social Center. By Edward J. Ward. D. Appleton & Co.

The Making of a Town. By Frank L. McVey. A. C. McClurg & Co.

Farm Boys and Girls. By William A. McKeever. Macmillan Company.

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HOME AND HYGIENIC ASPECTS.

Rural Hygiene. By H. M. Ogden. Macmillan Company.

Rural Hygiene. By J. M. Brewer. J. P. Lippincott Co.

Home Waterworks. By Carleton J. Lynde. Sturgis & Walton Company.

Sanitation of a Country Home. By H. B. Bashore. John Wiley Company.

From Kitchen to Garret. By Virginia Van de Water. Sturgis & Walton Company.

Bacteria in Relation to Country Life. By J. C. Lipman. Macmillan Company.

A Primer of Sanitation. By John O. Ritchie. World Book Company.

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Home Decorations. By Dorothy T. Priestman. Penn Publishing Company.

Civics and Health. By William H. Allen. Ginn & Company.

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Health on the Farm. By Dr. L. F. Harris. Sturgis & Walton Company.

Supplementary Analysis of the Twelfth Census.

COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

The Nature Study Idea. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan Company.

Among Country Schools. By O. J. Kern. Ginn & Company.

The American Rural School. By H. W. Foght. Macmillan Company.

Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities of the National Education Association, Annual Volume, 1906.

Among School Gardens. By M. Louise Green. Survey Associates, Inc.

A Model Rural School House. By Henry S. Curtis. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Education for Efficiency. By E. Davenport. D. C. Heath & Co.

Report of Committee to Investigate Rural School Conditions. By Superintendent E. T. Fairchild and others. Address Secretary N. E. A., Winona, Minn.

One Hundred Lessons in Agriculture. By Nolan. Row, Peterson & Co.

The Country School. By Homer H. Seerley, A. C. McClurg & Company.

Country Life and the Country School. By Mabel Carney. Row, Peterson & Co.

RURAL RECREATION.

Holiday Plays. By Marguerite Merington. Duffield & Co.

Neighborhood Entertainments. By Renée B. Stern. Sturgis & Walton Company.

Education by Plays and Games. By G. E. Johnson. Ginn & Co.

Games for the Playhouse, Home, School and Gymnasium. By Jessie H. Bancroft. Macmillan Company.

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The Country Church and the Rural Problem. By Kenyon L. Butterfield. University of Chicago Press.

The Day of the Country Church. By Rev. J. O. Ashenhurst. Funk & Wagnalls Company.

Rural Christendom. By Charles Roads, American Sunday School Union, Philadelphia.

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Proceedings of the Country Church Conference, held under auspices of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association, 1910-1911-1912. Association Press.

The Rural Church. Vol. VI. in Messages of the Men and Religion Movement. Association Press.

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[1] Any of these books can be secured from the Survey Associates, Inc., at the publisher's price, plus postage.

HEALTH

RURAL health problems are becoming more and more a subject for discussion, not so much apparently because the health of our country communities is deteriorating, but rather because the sanitation standard is rising. Of late quite a number of careful surveys have been made of conditions in small towns and country communities. THE SURVEY has already discussed the Public Health Bulletin on trachoma among the mountain people, which is fortunately but a local problem.[1] More general in its application is a study of tuberculosis in a typical semi-rural community in Wisconsin which was made by Drs. Susanne Orton and Jean Cook. An outline of the study was published in the *Crusader* of the Wisconsin Tuberculosis Association from which the following facts are taken.

Lafayette County is largely rural with only two towns of more than 1,000 inhabitants, the largest of which has but 1,800. It is a farming community with no manufacturing interests. The women are employed in their homes, the men in farming. Most of them are American born, and the foreigners are Scandinavians, Swiss, English, Irish and German. In short, it is a typical country community of the north Middle West, fairly prosperous, with good housing, plenty of fresh air and sunshine and almost no poverty. Yet in this county the death rate from tuberculosis was equal to the average for the state; in eight townships it was even higher and in six the rate has at times exceeded that of Milwaukee.

Ignorance, on the part of physicians, of state officials charged with carrying out Wisconsin's health laws, and of the sick person and the family, is responsible for this high rate in what one would expect to be a fairly healthful community.

The report calls attention to some features that may have a bearing on this condition. In Wisconsin there has been an enormous development of the dairy industry. It is quite likely that the diet of the farmer's family has suffered in consequence; for now the milk goes to the cheese and butter factories, and the family depends on condensed milk. Malnutrition is common even though the people are not poor. Also badly ventilated farm houses are as productive of tuberculosis as badly ventilated tenements.

The authors point out the great difficulty in enforcing sanitary legislation in a country community, because of the personal element which hardly exists in the city. The patient is a friend and neighbor. If the doctor reports the case, he refers it to another neighbor. A third neighbor is the officer who must see that the sanitary regulations are obeyed, and still another neighbor must enforce the penalty if the laws are disobeyed. It certainly takes more courage, intelligence and sense of duty to enforce the laws among neighbors than among strangers.

[1]See THE SURVEY for February 15, 1913, p. 679

* * *

ANOTHER interesting study of rural health problems is an intensive investigation of the practice of midwifery in Anne Arundel County, Md., by Drs. Helmine Jeidell and Willa M. Fricke, under the direction of Dr. Mary Sherwood. The results have been summarized in the Johns Hopkins Hospital Bulletin. We have had several reports on midwifery in large cities (New York, Chicago, Boston), but this is the first one which has dealt with a country district. The region studied is inhabited by native whites, foreign whites and Negroes. The main industries are agriculture, canning and oystering. The county is almost entirely dependent on horse transportation.

The method of investigation employed was the same as that used in both the New York and Chicago inquiries. The report treats of 119 midwives practicing in the county, seventeen of whom were white Americans, ninety-five colored and seven foreign-born. It is said that two-fifths of the births recorded by the health department are attended by midwives, but this means little, as only thirty-three of the 119 ever sent in reports. Their training for their work was found to be slight. Only four had ever attended a school for midwives; the rest were self-taught or had assisted physicians. Two colored midwives had "responded to the call of the Good Spirit." Seventy-seven could neither read nor write. Only twenty-two ever claimed to use antiseptics for cleansing the hands, and of these only two had any comprehension of their significance. One only carried a bag with the necessary supplies and even this was not clean. The majority content themselves with vaseline, a ball of twine and scissors. It is even said that many go directly from field work to an obstetrical case. On the whole, the colored midwives were found to be the best, for they showed less self-confidence, were more under the guidance of physicians and less apt to interfere with normal labor.

It is easy to see why the services of a midwife are preferred to those of a physician, for the midwife either comes every day after confinement for about two weeks or, if the distance is too great, she remains in her patient's home and takes full charge of the household. The investigators conclude that the midwife is at present a necessity in southern rural communities where the distances are great, physicians few and the fees so small that a larger number of

physicians could not be supported. Better training for these women is urgent but it is difficult to see how it can be provided.

* * *

IN outlining measures for the eradication of trachoma in the mountain districts, Dr. Alfred C. Reed emphasized the need of dispensaries and of movable hospitals for the surgical and medical care of these cases. C. W. Stiles who has seen much of rural health conditions in his hook-worm investigations also finds that there is great need of hospitals for gynecologic, orthopedic and eye cases, for the removal of adenoids and enlarged tonsils, and for instruction in the rudiments of sick nursing. He has an interesting scheme, modelled upon the methods which agricultural colleges have adopted in getting instruction directly to the farmer. The plan is to equip a hospital train with facilities for minor surgical work, eye treatments and for post-graduate instruction in medicine and instruction in cooking, housekeeping, infant feeding, sick nursing, etc. This train would be taken to districts which have no hospitals. Dr. Stiles' suggestion is based on his experience on laboratory trains in rural districts while searching for hook-worm among school children. This has made him a believer in the practicability and the possibilities of such a hospital train.

Another evidence of the attention which is being paid to rural health conditions is the newly organized department of the National Red Cross Society which undertakes to furnish a nursing service for country communities analogous to that maintained in Great Britain and Canada.[1]

* * *

DUST and Its Effect on Health was the subject of an interesting symposium last fall at the International Congress of Hygiene. The chief contributors to the discussion were from the University of Pittsburgh. One of them, Professor White, established a direct connection between smoky air and the city death rate, showing by topographical charts of smoke density and pneumonia mortality that there is a close relation between soot in the air and the development of a peculiarly virulent form of pneumonia in this city.[2] In a paper recently published in the *Industrial World*, John O'Connor of the Department of Industrial Research of the University of Pittsburgh takes up the history of the smoke nuisance and of smoke abatement in the "Smoky City" which, as he says, "has done more than any city on the globe to make smoke and prosperity synonymous in the minds of a great host of people."

Mr. O'Connor finds that the smoke nuisance in Pittsburgh was a problem over one hundred years ago. In a letter from Gen. Presley Neville, Burgess, to George Stevenson, president of the council in 1804, we read: "The general dissatisfaction which prevails and the frequent complaints which are exhibited in consequence of the Coal Smoke from many buildings in the Borough, particularly from Smithies and Blacksmith Shops, compels me to address you on this occasion." It seems that not only the comfort and health and the "consequence" of the place were threatened, but also the peace and harmony of the inhabitants. Pittsburgh apparently had not then acquired a feeling of pride in smoke as a symbol of industrial activity. Mr. O'Connor cites many passages from the writings of early visitors to Pittsburgh describing the dense smoke which gave "to the town and its inhabitants a very sombre aspect."

* * *

PITTSBURGH seems to have awakened to a realization of the magnitude of the smoke nuisance during the brief period between 1885 and 1890 when coal for a while was largely replaced by natural gas, and the city became comparatively clean. When coal again resumed its sway, the protest against the smoke and soot was first voiced as one would expect by the women's associations, and within short time smoke abatement ordinances of the usual type were passed. That was in 1892, and yet in 1913 we find the mayor calling the attention of the Council to the fact that the city lighting plants and pumping stations are among the worst offenders against the smoke ordinance.

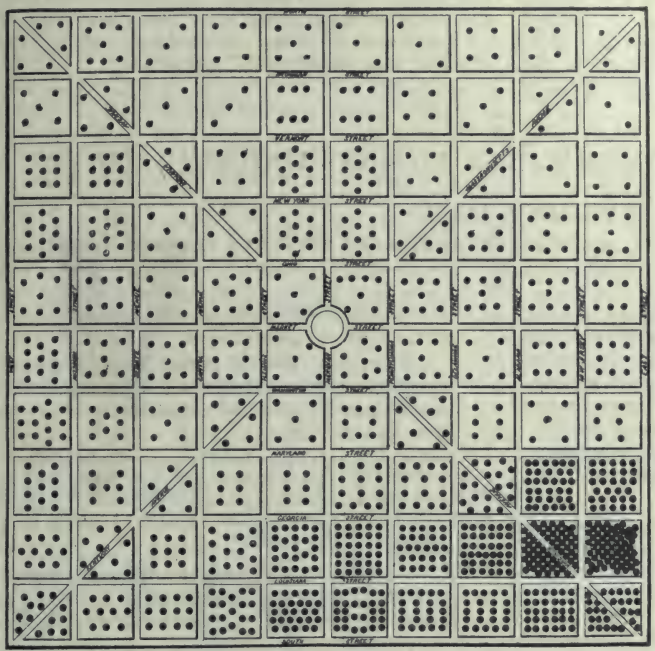
The history of the fight against smoke in Pittsburgh is a history of ineffective legislation. There has been no mechanism for proper inspection and enforcement. The attitude of the people has been one of "blind opposition toward anything which seems to threaten in even a remote way that which is termed prosperity." At present, however, the more far-seeing inhabitants have come to look upon the smoke nuisance as "the greatest hindrance to Pittsburgh's economic progress," and a number of forces are at work to find a solution for this difficult problem. The Chamber of Commerce, the Industrial Research Department of the university, and the United States Bureau of Mines are all attacking it from different angles. "It is reasonable to suppose that some time in the very near future Pittsburgh's smoke nuisance will only be a topic for such a paper as this. It will be a matter of history."

* * *

INDIANAPOLIS is not a conspicuously smoky city and yet, in the course of a year, 1,200 tons of soot are deposited on a certain square mile in that city. H. E. Barnard and W. D. McAbee of the Indiana State Board of Health in the *American Journal of Public Health* describe a test they made of the soot which fell with the snow in the course of twenty-four hours in March of last year. The samples were collected from the business district, which includes the Union Station, from residential districts and from the vicinity of the City Hospital.

It has often been held that particles of carbon are almost harmless to human lungs. Whether or not this belief is well founded it does not apply to the soot of Indianapolis which was found to have an ash (mineral) content of

[1] See THE SURVEY of January 18, 1913, p. 517.
[2] See THE SURVEY for November 2, 1912, p. 152.



SOOT DEPOSITS IN INDIANAPOLIS

This map was prepared by W. D. McAbee of the Indiana State Board of Health to show the relative cleanliness of various parts of the downtown section of Indianapolis. The thick spots indicate soot deposits. The number to the square was estimated from actual calculations of the amounts of soot deposited on snow during fixed periods and over definite areas in different parts of the section. The snow and coal carbon over the areas tested were scraped together into receptacles, and then the water was eliminated, showing how much dirt was deposited on that area. The section of the map representing the vicinity of the railroad tracks and the Union Railway Station proved to be the depository for the most grime.

56.96 per cent. This it is claimed was undoubtedly due to improper methods of stoking and the forced draughts that carry out of the flue the ash which properly should fall into the ash pit.

The railroads were found to be the greatest offenders and the deposition of soot near the tracks averaged forty-seven pounds per acre per day as compared with the average for the entire district of 10.28 pounds. One of the worst conditions was in territory contiguous to the City Hospital where the deposition was 65.97 pounds per acre per day.

* * *

HOW widely is tuberculosis spread within the family by the carelessness or ignorance of an affected person is the question considered in a study recently issued by the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis. This report on the Spread of Infection in Tuberculous Families was prepared especially as a brief to the Minnesota Legislature in an argument for county care of advanced consumptives.

Dr. H. G. Lampson for two years conducted an investigation into this problem under the direction of a sub-committee of which Dr. George Douglas Head is chairman. The conclusions of the study are based upon a detailed study of forty families and 234 individuals, 207 of whom were given a physical examination. In each of these families one or more members were or had been positively tuberculous.

Dr. Lampson's method of diagnosing tuberculosis by the von Pirquet or "skin" test is questioned by many physicians who claim that this is not an infallible index of the presence of tuberculous disease, especially in the case of adults.

Of the 207 members of the forty families who were examined and studied, 138 or 66.7 per cent gave a positive reaction to the von Pirquet test. Contrasted with this group, Dr. Lampson selected a "central" group of fifteen healthy families where no tuberculosis was manifestly present and found that among the eighty individuals examined, only 2.5 per cent showed evidences of tuberculous infection. Of the forty tuberculous families there were ten containing fifty-four members all of whom gave this evidence of infection.

Dr. Lampson concludes from the mass of evidence collected: "In no case where there has been proven definite exposure of a family to an open case of tuberculosis, no matter what precautions have been taken, have I failed to find a spread of infection." Contrasting eleven families in one group who had not had any supervision by visiting nurses or others (or at most supervision for only a month) with nineteen families which had been supervised for an average of twelve months, he found that in the former unsupervised group 78.2 of those examined gave the positive test, while in the latter 74 per cent gave it.

In other words, the difference in the amount of infection between the supervised and unsupervised groups (4.2 per cent) appeared to Dr. Lampson to be so small as to be negligible.

"It would appear from my study of these families that the only effective means of preventing the spread of tuberculosis in families is to take the open cases out of the homes and segregate them," Dr. Lampson says. "Instruction by nurses has been practised in this city for over seven years, and during the last three years difference in the percentage of tuberculous infection in the supervised and instructed families, as compared to those which have not had this care, is apparently very slight."

OUR EQUIPMENT FOR SUCCESS AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

PHILIP P. JACOBS
ASSISTANT SECRETARY NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE PREVENTIOH OF TUBERCULOSIS

Never before has the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis met under such interesting circumstances as those attending its recent annual meeting in Washington, May 8. All were anxious to know whether the association or the government authorities would make some official announcement concerning the widely heralded Friedmann treatment.

At the business meeting of the association, by direction of the secretary of the treasury, Dr. John F. Anderson, director of the United States Hygienic Laboratory, presented a tentative report for the United States Public Health Service on the government tests of the Friedmann cure. Dr. Anderson's statement may be summed up in this quotation:

"Without presenting in detail the condition of patients under observation, we are in a position to state that the facts thus far observed do not justify that confidence in the remedy which has been inspired by widespread publicity. In our opinion, harm may have been done by its undue publicity, in so far as it has lessened the confidence of tuberculous persons in well-recognized methods of treatment or interrupted their use, and we are constrained to advise against any lessening of those well-known measures which not only have effected cures, but which have reduced the incidence of the disease."

Dr. Anderson explained the negotiations with Dr. Friedmann which began even before he came to this country. Dr. Friedmann's failure to furnish the government authorities sufficient data concerning the preparation of his vaccine has seriously hampered their efforts. Bacteriological tests, however, are being made in the hygienic laboratory at Washington, as well as clinical tests of ninety-four patients in four hospitals in New York.

Following the presentation of the government's statement by Dr. Anderson, the following resolution was offered:

> WHEREAS, widespread publicity has been given to the claims of an alleged cure for tuberculosis,
>
> RESOLVED, That there is no information before the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis to justify the belief that any specific cure for tuberculosis has been discovered which deserves the confidence of the medical profession or of the people, and
>
> RESOLVED, That it is the duty of the public to continue unabated all the present well-tried agencies for the treatment and prevention of tuberculosis.

Dr. Charles L. Minor of Asheville, N. C., a member of the Board of Directors opposed the resolution, because, in his opinion, it did not go far enough. He said:

"We must not be too radical. We must investigate. I know all these things, and I do not want radical action. But I do not want weak action, and I consider this resolution a weak action. . . . Many people will be greatly moved by what we pass here. In what we have said in that resolution there is nothing more than has been said in the government report. It is too late now to take any further steps; the directors have acted, but I felt it was due to my conscience and to what I know of the facts—of actually ascertained facts—that I rise to protest against the adoption of the resolution."

The resolution, however, was adopted, which closed discussion of the Friedmann cure.

Aside from this somewhat sensational incident, the meeting afforded an inventory of the present equipment in the anti-tuberculosis movement. A frank review was made of the fighting methods now in use and of the relations of the tuberculosis campaign to the various other public health and social propaganda.

In his opening address, President Homer Folks discussed a number of the adverse factors which seem to be retarding the progress of the anti-tuberculosis movement. Some of these are inadequate hospital provision, administrative difficulty in the management of hospitals for advanced cases, and the vexing problem of employment for arrested and apparently cured cases. Interest in some of the former well-tried methods of education, such as the exhibit, it was explained, has waned. The claim of Dr. Karl Pearson of London, that there is no correlation between the fall in the tuberculosis death rate and the institution of preventive measures, and popular impatience at the slow gain in the war on tuberculosis are other factors that retard the campaign. While Mr. Folk's address candidly recognized the difficulties of the situation, it was full of hopefulness.

Frederick L. Hoffman of Newark, N. J., in the sociological section, presented a paper showing the reduction in the tuberculosis death rate in New York, Philadelphia and Boston from 1812 to 1912. Apparently, because of the anti-tuberculosis campaign, the death rate has declined more rapidly during the last two decades than in previous years.

In eighty years the death rate from tuberculosis in these three cities fell only from 418.6 per 100,000 to 389.6. The next twenty years witnessed a decline to 180.1. "These figures present," said Mr. Hoffman, "the most conclusive evidence on record that the deliberate, thoroughly intelligent, nation-wide campaign against tuberculosis on the principle of its being an infectious disease and transmissable from man to man has been successful beyond expectations."

The relation of the anti-tuberculosis campaign to other public health and social movements was brought out at the meeting of the Advisory Council, which was addressed by Dr. Hermann M. Biggs of New York and at the Joint Session of the clinical and sociological sections through papers by Prof. John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin, Dr. William Charles White of Pittsburgh, and Dr. H. R. M. Landis of Philadelphia. Particularly significant were some of the remarks of Professor Commons. He said:

"The physician starts with the individual. The sociologist starts with his institutions. The physician looks on other individuals as sources of contagion or infection. The sociologist looks on them as owners of property. The one sees them as physiological units; the other as possessors of power or of that intangible property which we call opportunity.

"Tuberculosis and occupational disease, safety and sanitation, infant mortality, hours of labor of women and children, these are some of the fields of scientific research and governmental administration where the physician and the sociologist meet. Here the physician must get beyond physiology, contagion and infection, and deal with the institutions of property, the family and the state, that make environment what it is. Here the sociologist must get into physiology and pathology if he would not go wrong in dealing with institutions."

Emphasizing the medical side of the tuberculosis problem, Dr. White may possibly have minimized the significance of the social worker in the following statement:

"The social worker may be called the drum beater before the door of the booth. He shouts to the program ready prepared. He shifts his work from tuberculosis to child hygiene, social diseases, and associated charities, as readily as the stock company actor changes his play; and yet that man has no message who is too fastidious to beat the drum at the door of his booth. The reason for the social worker in tuberculosis will be found in the exclusion of tuberculosis from the general hospitals and other places of medical teaching, and the consequent ignorance of doctors and nurses on the whole question of this malady as a public health problem."

One of the most interesting papers presented at the meeting was that by Dr. Edward C. Brenner, attending physician at the Home Hospital in the East River Homes at 78th Street and East River, New York, giving one year's results of the work at that institution. The Home Hospital was established a little more than a year ago by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.[1]

"The results obtained with the adult consumptives compare favorably with reports of the leading sanatoria. Sixty-one per cent have become apparently cured, 22 per cent have had their disease arrested, and 11 per cent are much improved. And these astonishing results have been obtained in the very heart of New York city!

"The most careful comparison of the cost of the Home Hospital with various country sanatoria, hospitals, and preventoria, reveals the fact that the Home Hospital treatment costs only 40 to 50 per cent as much as the ordinary methods of treatment. It would seem, therefore, that the opening of the Home Hospital in New York marks an epoch in the practical and humane treatment of tuberculosis among the poor."

Dr. Harry Lee Barnes, superintendent of the Rhode Island State Sanatorium, in a paper on the method of finding early cases of tuberculosis, urged sanatoria and anti-tuberculosis associations to use display advertising in newspapers and magazines. Dr. Albert T. Francine showed from a study of patients discharged from the Mont Alto State Sanatorium that the majority of these cases are able after a stay of six months at the institution to return to their regular work at full time and full pay. The paper of Surgeon B. S. Warren of the United States Public Health Service on the relation of industries to tuberculosis, declared that the good wages, short hours and liberal holidays granted by the government to its employes have a vital effect in the reduction of tuberculosis mortality among such workers, even in spite of unsanitary working conditions.

The annual report of the executive secretary, Dr. Livingston Farrand, showed that the equipment of the present anti-tuberculosis campaign in two years had increased from 1,325 agencies to over 2,000, a gain of more than 50 per cent. At the present time there are 577 sanatoria and hospitals; 1,049 associations and committees; 400 dispensaries and clinics; and 169 open air schools and fresh air classes engaged in the anti-tuberculosis campaign in the United States.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: president, Dr. John H. Lowman of Cleveland; vice-presidents, Mabel T. Boardman, Washington, and Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, Chicago; treasurer, William H. Baldwin, Washington; secretary, Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs, Baltimore.

[1]See THE SURVEY for March 23, 1912, page 1967.

(*Continued on page 296.*)



THE SPREAD OF CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS

CIVICS

NATIONALIZING THE CHILD WELFARE FORCES

Since the first Child Welfare Exhibit, that held in New York in January, 1911, this particular method of taking a "cross-section of civilization" has been closely copied in the following eleven cities: Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis, Buffalo, Montreal, Northampton, Mass., Stamford, Conn., Louisville, Providence, Rochester and New Britain, Conn. One of the most recent of these exhibits was held in the armory in Rochester last month. Here more than 250 screens, four by eight feet, representing different phases of the work for the child, were displayed. The exhibits were arranged in the order which has become standard for child welfare exhibits: health, schools, recreation, library, clubs, settlements, churches, housing, homes, law and philanthropy.

The more striking part of the exhibit was that devoted to health, housing and homes. The health exhibit was arranged so as to present some of the needs of the child. Marriage, sex knowledge, eugenics and "the bookkeeping of humanity" were strongly emphasized. Some of the cartoons have been widely reproduced, as, for instance, that entitled "the path of motherhood is beset with thorns" which is reproduced on this page. The cartoon representing the evolution of the nursing bottle into a baby killer was a long-tubed nursing bottle, the tube representing a snake and the nipple a snake's head. Germs, represented as little devils, danced at the bottom of the bottle and wandered through the tube and out through the snake's mouth.

Infectious diseases were exhibited in their order of attack: whooping cough, scarlet fever, measles, bronchitis, diphtheria and pneumonia. Medical school inspection—what needs to be done: what is being done for neglected, delinquent and backward children; the relation of medical school inspection and nursing to illness and growth and to child labor—was shown not only by screens, but by actual demonstrations in the ex-



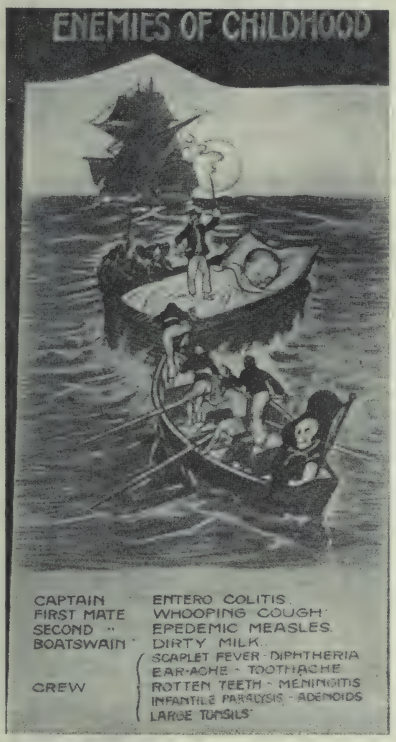
THIS CARTOON STIRRED ROCHESTER.



BIG CITIES AND SMALL FELL IN LINE

amination of children. The hospital and private health organizations co-operated in exhibiting screens and models to show the work they are doing and their needs.

A portion of the housing exhibit listed some of the conditions which a modern housing law, if it deals only with the erection of new buildings, fails to correct. Homes were represented by good and bad rooms, illustrating graphically the need of better education in planning the home as well as in the expenditure of money for food and furniture. The whole exhibit was planned to make the visitors ask whether we are now working for child welfare or child farewell, and whether, as shown on one of the screens in the home section, we would have a coming generation or degeneration.



CALLING THE ROLL OF ENEMIES

The exhibit recently held in Rochester is deemed by many to have been the best of the kind yet conducted. One explanation which has been given for this is that the organizers in Rochester were able to profit by the experience gained in New York, Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis and other cities. The New York and Chicago Child Welfare Exhibit Committees in co-operation have responded to requests for material aid from ten cities. In the case of most of these cities, upon the recommendation of the New York and Chicago Child Welfare Committees, Anna Louise Strong has been selected to direct the exhibits. The growing number of demands for information as to the proper organization of exhibits and for trained directors to take charge of them has called into being a National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee. This body intends to act in an advisory capacity in promoting a standardized program of child welfare education through exhibits. In this way it was thought that the danger of exhibits being held in many cities without proper utilization of the accumulated experience gained in other cities would be avoided.

The immediate work which the national committee plans to undertake is to assist communities intending to give child welfare exhibits by supplying them with information about past exhibits, by recommending directors of exhibits and by training men and women for this kind of work. The committee will collect and send out samples of literature published by national societies which can be used for child welfare exhibits. It will in addition serve as a clearing-house for information as to where further material of a similar character may be secured. It is also planned to spread abroad through exhibits the ideas and results of the researches made by the Children's Bureau and the national children's societies.

The National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee is to be directed by a general committee

representing different cities throughout the country. This governing committee already includes representatives from New York, Louisville, St. Louis, Providence, Kansas City, Denver, Boston, Washington, Baltimore, Rochester, Philadelphia and San Diego, Cal. The temporary committee now consists of William M. Kingsley, New York; Robert Garrett, Baltimore; Amos L. Prescott, New York; George W. Goler, Rochester; C. C. Carstens, Boston; Carl Kelsey, Philadelphia; and Henry W. Thurston, New York. Charles F. Powlison is the general secretary and Anna Louise Strong director of exhibits.

The committee has prepared a dozen preliminary bulletins outlining the methods followed in the child welfare exhibits up to the present time which have proved most effective and is now engaged in preparing material for the first national child welfare exhibit. This will be used during September and October at the National Conservation Exhibition, Knoxville, Tenn. The exposition management, which includes Gifford Pinchot, Philander Claxton and Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, asked Julia C. Lathrop to undertake the chairmanship of the Child Welfare Building.

The plans for this building include a public clinic which shall run for the entire two months and shall be open to all mothers with babies. An attempt will be made to put the baby health contests, which have been carried on at county and state fairs, on a dignified and scientific basis. Another feature of the exhibit will be a playground outside of the Child Welfare Building. Anna Louise Strong, as secretary of Miss Lathrop's committee and director of exhibits of the National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, is collecting material from national societies. The exhibit will be supplemented by one on local Knoxville conditions.

Among the national organizations which will co-operate are the Recreation Division and Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, the Boy Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls and the North American Civic League. After November 1 the exhibit will leave Knoxville and be used at state fairs and other expositions. Some of the material also may be used as a nucleus of city exhibits.

LEISURE TIME AND THE RECREATION CONGRESS

Every day we have 500,000,000 hours of leisure, counting an average of about five hours for each of the 100,000,000 "we" in this country. What shall we do with them? No small problem, but it was tackled more systematically than ever before when the Recreation Congress, meeting in Richmond, Va., May 6-10 devoted itself to a consideration of the "use of leisure time."

If any phase of the problem or of the means for helping us to get happiness and value out of leisure failed to receive attention, it was not the fault of those who arranged the program and packed it with eighty-two scheduled papers and addresses to be presented in four days. Practically everything, from boys' corn growing contests to motion-picture shows, and from a country fair to amateur dramatics, was discussed.

A school principal, Frank L. Boyden of Deerfield, Mass., told how trench digging, lumber cutting and cement work became as recreational as baseball and dancing parties, and how the sort of community spirit which vitalized this village high school had dethroned the local political boss.

A fatherly park superintendent, George A. Parker of Hartford, Conn., diffidently explained that he had not chosen the topic on which he spoke. But the simple, human and intimate way in which he discussed courting as a leisure occupation, the tenderness with which he referred to his personal "qualifications to speak not without authority" on the subject, and the emphasis he laid upon the importance of assuring to every girl the right to be courted under decent conditions, gripped his audience. Those who smiled at the kindly humor of his opening remarks realized the seriousness of his message when he pictured the crowded tenements of our great cities and then pointed out what our parks and playgrounds can do to provide wholesome surroundings for that which leads up to the most important of our human institutions.

Not less throbbing with human interest was the vivid account by Clifford W. Beers, author of The Mind That Found Itself, of the value of play and recreation in awakening the minds of the insane.

Joseph Lee, president of the Playground and Recreation Association, made it evident that we have had a loss of the play tradition in which America was especially rich decades ago. Modern farm machinery, he thought, had contributed in some degree to this decadence by reducing the proportionate number of farm hands necessary. Rural communities have thus become too sparsely, and cities too closely, settled. The games of today, he said, are a heritage from bygone civilizations. To have them die out would be a calamity as great as would be the loss of the inherited accumulation of good poetry and music. Children inherit the instinct to play, but they do not inherit knowledge of baseball any more than of the Lord's Prayer. There must be teaching, leadership and encouragement of game playing, and this is one of the prime purposes of the association. America must parallel its emphasis on the serious ideals of work with a new emphasis on the value of play and recreation.

This "seriousness" was declared by Dr. Richard C. Cabot of Boston, who delivered one of the principal addresses at the congress, to be undermining national vigor. His subject was The Relation of Play to a Civilization of Power.

"Seriousness," he said, "is a residual state into which adults lapse when they haven't energy enough to do anything else." Grown folks, he went on, take themselves too seriously—they have forgotten how to play. Play should not be regarded merely as a child's preparation for the seriousness of adult life; it affords the invigorating spirit by which a man and a nation stay young. There has arisen a false notion, according to Dr. Cabot, that seriousness and morality are inseparable. The man who preserves a love for play and sports is looked at askance. The notion is a false one. "God never put seriousness and morality together," said Dr. Cabot, "and I think it should be the duty of man to keep them asunder. When the grown man divorces himself from play he divorces himself from what is best in life—he begins to die."

How this play spirit in self-expression may find an avenue through dramatics was described by Mrs. August Belmont, president of the Educational Dramatic League of New York. She instanced illustrations to show that the misdeeds of "bad boys" are often due only to "misplaced dramatic instinct." This instinct is in all of us. She advocates amateur dramatics, because they develop the player in imagination, ideals, self-expression and morals. Her address contained much practical suggestion as to the kinds of plays to be selected and the most effective way of conducting the work so as to carry out the purposes she outlined.

The progress of the recreation movement is indicated by the advance along the lines of rural and small town recreation. At last year's congress, when the subject was first given attention in a comprehensive way, the discussion was chiefly confined to a statement of needs, problems and opportunities. This year it moved on to concrete description of work in many localities and definite suggestions as to what can be done.

Prof. J. F. Taintor of Ripon College, Ripon, Wis., told of a historical pageant in that town of 4,000 inhabitants. There were 500 participants and the occasion paid all the expenses or $600.

How Bennington, Vt., through the organization of practically the whole town in a comprehensive recreation program; how Lebanon, Ohio, through the work of a civic trust founded by a former citizen of the place[1]; and how Princeton, N. J., through the establishment of a neighborhood social center, had all rallied community spirit as a result of recreation was described by those actually leading or familiar with these separate activities.

The Amenia Play Festival, in the New York village of that name; Boy Scout activities in suburban and rural districts; Recreation Through the Grange, Rural Recreation and Rural Health —these are only a few of the topics on which speakers offered suggestions for those who are eager to make the recreation movement vital in the regions outside of the cities.

Evening recreation and the activities of city social centers among young people and adults afforded a range of topics for addresses by people who are leading work of this sort in many communities. Their interchange of experiences showed how municipal effort has developed to provide more adequately for adult recreation. How to make the recreation center fill a large place in neighborhood needs was discussed by such speakers as John Elliott of the Hudson Guild, New York; Mrs. Desha Breckinridge of Lexington, Ky.; and a group of others. The practical bearing of many of these contributions is indicated by the fact that attention was given to such detailed and technical matters as the sort of class-room furniture which may be adapted best to social uses.

This emphasis on practical technique was one of the important features of the whole congress. Experts outlined definite programs of athletics for girls and boys; covered the details of Boy Scout and Camp Fire Girl activities; gave illustrated talks on how swimming may be taught to women and girls, and discussed ways for securing public appropriations and private support for recreation work. An important part of this practical side of the congress was the week of actual class work which preceded the main gathering. No less than thirty-five recreation workers, twenty of them from out of town, regularly enrolled for courses which took up seven hours a day. These were conducted by E. B. DeGroot of the Playground Association of Chicago, formerly director of Chicago's South Park Playgrounds and Field Houses; George W. Ehler, director of the Department of Physical Education at the University of Wisconsin; Lee F. Hanmer, director of the Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation; Rowland Haynes, field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association; George E. Johnson, superintendent of Pittsburgh Playgrounds; Julia Schoenfeld, field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association; and Bernadine Yunck of Teachers' College, New York. Supplementing this thoroughness with reference to playground administration were such broad discussions as that by Austin E. Griffiths of Seattle on recreation and city planning.

Commercial recreation received attention at the hands of Miss Schoenfeld, who has been making special studies of dance halls and motion-picture shows and the ways to regulate them. She discussed some of the points which must be guarded against in drafting ordinances, and outlined a program for improving the facilities commercially provided. Especial points of attack were the lighting, ventilation and other physical conditions in motion-picture theaters, and the need for eliminating the sale of liquor in public dance halls. Her consideration of motion-picture regulation was supplemented by Ralph Folks who told of his efforts as a New York city alderman to get a motion-picture ordinance passed.

After all these addresses on what we shall do with our leisure, it remained for Mary McDowell of Chicago to ask how are the masses of the people to secure leisure. She pointed out

[1] See THE SURVEY for March 1, 1913, page 749.

that not only long hours but other conditions in industry have a direct bearing upon the very possibility of leisure. Monotony and fatigue, she declared, beget recklessness in free time. Miss McDowell urged recreation workers generally to unite toward bringing about the shorter work day, the weekly half holiday, and the rational use of Sunday for country outings and other recreational activities.

Rev. J. J. Curran, pastor of a Catholic church in Wilkesbarre, Pa., spoke on the valuable influence which playgrounds have among the work people of the coal regions.

Recreation in the mill towns of New England was discussed by Bertha Freeman of Boston who presented the results of some field observations. The present lack and the importance of planning for recreation in industrial communities was discussed by Graham Romeyn Taylor of the staff of THE SURVEY. He sought to point out the value of play and recreation as a factor in educating working people for organized effort and co-operative activities, and expressed the hope that through recreation a spirit of friendly relationship and fair play between employers and employes might be stimulated.

The out-of-town attendance at the Richmond congress was less than at Cleveland last year, but twenty-eight states and 121 cities were represented. President Joseph Lee, Treasurer Gustavus Kirby, Secretary H. S. Braucher and other executive officers were re-elected.

NEW OPPORTUNITIES OF THE SETTLEMENT[1]

SEBA ELDRIDGE

LENOX HILL HOUSE, NEW YORK

The function of settlements has often been defined as being to know their neighborhoods and to unite the forces working for their improvement. Among the pathological conditions characteristic of the neighborhoods of most settlements are the following: family incomes are in general below the level compatible with the maintenance of health and strength; housing conditions are such that home life in the best sense is difficult or impossible; the lack of facilities for the wholesome employment of leisure drives boys and girls and even men and women into pastimes destructive of character and social usefulness; forced unemployment and uncompensated industrial accidents contribute to the low standard of living; too great a consumption of spirituous liquors does the same, besides producing disease and degeneracy; untoward labor conditions deplete the physical strength of children, women and men and contribute to their premature industrial incapacitation; rents uncheckable in their rise by those who bear their burden drain from the toilers a large part of their earnings; boys and girls drift upon leaving school into employment, without being industrially prepared, vocationally guided or having any definite aim in life; organized immorality flourishes.

Working alone, settlements can do but an infinitesimal part of the work needed to correct these conditions. Estimate in your own mind the number of people living within striking distance of any settlement. Set over against that figure the number of people the settlement, the churches and the other social agencies in the neighborhood reach in any real way. The vast portion untouched tells its own story. Of course, the work done for those who come within the doors of the settlement is not to be deprecated. Ethical training through club work, furnishing decent recreation for a few individuals through dances and athletics, the better knowledge of homemaking that comes to those attending domestic science classes, the care given to the sick, providing vacations in the country for convalescent or debilitated persons who cannot pay for them, securing jobs for those out of work and the good produced by religious activity—all these are important and ought to be continued.

But settlements should do much more than help the people that come within their own doors. They ought to affect vitally the life of all the people in the neighborhood. Settlements ought to get an ideal of community and individual life, continually test conditions in their neighborhoods to see where they fall short, and make their efforts at improvement as nearly commensurate with the needs thus discovered as they know how to make them.

The settlement can best do this by giving active local support to many of the movements, city, nation or world wide in extent, which are combatting poverty, ignorance, degeneracy, inefficiency, and misery. These movements are either seeking to extend their propaganda or, if not propagandists, need local co-operation in other ways in the sections in which they operate. A few organizations carrying on such work in New York are the New York Congestion Committee, the Committee on Amusement Resources for Working Girls, Recreation Commission, Vocational Education Survey, Women's Trade Union League, New York Probation Association, Naturalization Bureau, and the several city departments. The movements national or world-wide in scope include the labor, conservation, and peace movements, and others comprised in the great modern trend toward democracy, both industrial and political.

To furnish to these constructive forces—forces that have for their aim the abolition of the conditions that called settlements into being—to furnish these movements the local co-operation and support which they require is the work to which settlements should in an increasing measure devote themselves. In addition, settlements

[1]This paper was prepared while the author was living at the Union Settlement in New York and was read at a meeting of the residents.

can and should contribute their quota to the knowledge which society has and needs about itself, the conditions of life and labor in it. In the usual settlement neighborhood the larger community life is epitomized. Settlements ought to gather up their knowledge and experience, put it into literary form, and make it available to those who may be seeking the light which they might thus furnish. They would in this way be feeding fuel to the socially purifying flame which must be made strong enough to consume all the rubbish that hinders the humanization and progress of society.

What shall be the methods of this work? Every settlement ought to make continuous systematic studies of its neighborhood to familiarize itself with conditions in it, especially those of a local character. It ought to keep in touch with all the social movements needing local co-operation. It should study and take definite attitudes toward all the other movements and tendencies of the time, both those which should be encouraged and those which should be resisted, and attempt to enlighten those it can reach about them.

It ought also to maintain a forum for the discussion of subjects of a political, economic and social nature, particularly those of special interest to the neighborhood and to the city.

In these ways it can become an experiment station, a political educator, a teacher of democracy, a center of influence, a social dynamic. It can thus be making the best use of its social laboratory facilities, its first-hand knowledge, its point of vantage.

A plan of organization which may be found helpful for this work is an advisory board to consult with the person charged with the executive responsibility; co-operative relations with the social agencies of the neighborhood to secure correlation of activities and concerted action where advantageous; a membership comprising all the intelligent people in the neighborhood who are in sympathy with the aims of the proposal; a director giving a large share of his time and attention to the work.

The results of any such effort, it need scarcely be said, will be directly proportioned to the time, labor and intelligence given to it. A paper organization will have paper results; a virile organization will have virile results.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

May and June Conferences

Christian Citizenship Conference, World's. Portland, Ore. June 29-July 6, 1913. Chairman, Rev. James S. Martin, 209 9th St., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Home Economics. American Association of. Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913. Information may be secured from Marguerite B. Lake, Forest Hill, Md.

Jewish Social Workers, Third Informal Conference, National Association of. Atlantic City, N. J. May 29-30, 1913.

Medicine, American Academy of. Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913. June 24-26, 1913. Sec'y, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.

Officials of Charities and Correction, American Association of. Fourth Annual Meeting. Springfield, Ill. June 24-26, 1913. Sec'y, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.

Social Insurance. First American Conference on. Chicago, Ill., June 6-7, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d St., New York.

Student Christian Federation, World's, Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

Women's Trade Union League of America. Fourth biennial convention. St. Louis, Mo., June 1-7. Nat'l Sec'y, Miss S. M. Franklin, 127 No. Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.

Workers for the Blind. National Association of. Jacksonville, Fla., June 24-27 inclusive. Exec. Sec'y, Mrs. E. B. Palmer, 612 St. Clair Avenue, N. E., Cleveland, O.

LATER MEETINGS

International

Blind, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, June, 1914. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

Child Welfare, International Congress of. Brussels, July 23-26, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing M. Paul Otlet, 3 Rue de la Regence, Brussels.

Children's Welfare, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam.

Consumers' League Conference, International. Antwerp, Belgium, September 26-28, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing Miss Pauline Goldmark, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

Farm Women, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

Foodstuffs, International Congress for the Fight against Deterioration and the Adulteration of. Ghent, August 1-3, 1913. Sec'y, M. Antony Neuckens, Hotel de Ville, Brussels.

Housing, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

Infant Mortality, English-speaking conference on. London, England, August 4 and 5, 1913. Under auspices of the British National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, London.

Prison Congress, Quinquennial. London, England, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

Students ("Corda Fratres"), Eighth International Congress of. Ithaca, N. Y., August 29-September 13, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing the Cornell Cosmopolitan Club, Ithaca, N. Y.

Town Planning and Organization of Municipal Life, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, summer 1913. General Sec'y Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

Unemployment, International Association on. Ghent, Belgium, September 3-6, 1913. American Section secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d St., New York.

National

Charities and Correction, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

Infant Mortality, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Kansas City, Mo., Oct. 23-25, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore.

Prison Association, American, Indianapolis Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

State and Local

Charities and Correction, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

EXHIBITIONS

International

Panama-Pacific Exposition. San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, Washington, D. C.

Panama-California Exposition, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego.

Student Christian Federation World's, Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Exhibits including "social study and service." Gen. Sec'y John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

National

Conservation Exhibition, National, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

HEALTH

(*Continued from page 289.*)

LONDON CONFERENCE ON INFANT MORTALITY

An English-speaking conference on the prevention of infant mortality is being organized in London under royal patronage. The sessions of the conference, for which arrangements are being made by the National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, will be held at Caxton Hall, Westminster, on August 4 and 5, 1913, immediately before the International Medical Congress.

The conference will be held in two sections—administrative and medical—which will sit simultaneously. The provisional program follows:

The administrative section on August 4 will discuss the responsibility of central and local authorities in the matter of infant and child hygiene. On the following day the topic is the administrative control of the milk supply.

The medical section on the first day will discuss the necessity for special education in infant hygiene and medical milk problems. The next day is to be devoted to ante-natal hygiene.

NEW HEALTH CODE FOR NEW YORK

In response to Governor Sulzer's effort to make New York the "healthiest state in the Union," the Legislature passed two acts, one amending the public health law generally and the other placing on the statute books the model vital statistics law recommended by the federal Census Bureau. It is expected that the acts will be signed by the governor. The first of these two acts creates a health council, consisting of the commissioner of health and six members appointed by the governor, of whom at least three shall be physicians and one a sanitary expert. This council is to enact and amend from time to time a sanitary code to apply to all portions of the state except New York city. But each city and town may enact additional regulations not inconsistent with the state code.

Three new divisions, child hygiene, public health nursing and tuberculosis, are added to the Department of Health. Each is to be in the charge of a special director. The six divisions already established in the department—those of administration, sanitary engineering, laboratories and research, communicable diseases, vital statistics, and publicity and education—are written into the statute. The law also provides for dividing the state into twenty sanitary districts for each of which there is to be a supervisor. The sanitary supervisors are to make an annual survey of their districts. Among their other duties are the organization of district conferences of health officers, promotion of the registration of births and deaths, inspection of labor camps and enforcement of the sanitary code, and the promotion of educational campaigns on public health.

Physicians and laymen who have studied this law declare that it gives the New York State Department of Health the authority and machinery necessary for effective work in the prevention of disease and reduction of the death rate.

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Suggestions for the maintenance of healthful schools, factories and other buildings

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

THE PITH OF IT

PENNSYLVANIA is making one more effort to abolish night work for children under sixteen in the glass factories with prospects of success. To meet the opposition to this proposal and to that of an eight-hour day for children under sixteen the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association has made a successful attempt by personal appeal to enlist support for the Walnut child labor bill throughout the state. P. 297.

MUNICIPAL needs and recreation received particular attention at the New York City Conference of Charities. P. 298.

FOLLOWING the election of Charles R. Henderson as president, the United Charities of Chicago issued a strong reply to the attacks which have been made upon it by the Illinois legislative investigating committee. P. 299.

LATEST developments of a strike that has practically kept the entire silk industry of Paterson, N. J., at a standstill for three months. P. 300.

AMID the confusion of "chance and change" which he deems characteristic of our social fabric today John Haynes Holmes declares that the "guarantee of security" is to be found in the fact that effective social workers in their proposals for reform are following the method of observation and experiment of the exact sciences. P. 303.

LOUIS C. AGER, M.D., tells of the need for a sane system for regulating the traffic in cocaine. P. 305.

DRAMATIZING a strike while it is still in progress will be attempted for the first time in New York, where a pageant based on the industrial war now waging in the silk industry in Paterson, N. J., is to be staged on June 7. P. 316.

CITY planning which, in its infancy in this country, captured our imagination through spectacular schemes for reconstructing the hearts of cities has now "arrived" as a science for controling and governing the every-day living conditions of city dwellers. Evidence of this was given at Chicago at the Fifth National Conference on City Planning. P. 301.

IN the present state of the relief operations in the entire flooded district and since the flood in the lower Mississippi is now receding, the Red Cross believes that the funds now in its custody and in that of local relief agencies will be sufficient to complete the work of rehabilitation as at present planned. This does not mean that the money available is all that could be used to advantage nor that the flood sufferers will be reimbursed for their entire losses. But the fund is believed to be sufficient to assist the flood sufferers back to a normal life and the Red Cross therefore wishes to announce that no further contributions are requested.

THE SURVEY

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THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION FIGHT IN PENNSYLVANIA

More children are employed in factories and mills under sixteen years of age in Pennsylvania than in any other state. For years efforts have been made to get better legislation to protect child workers, but every step has been won only after a determined fight.

This year the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association and the National Child Labor Committee have worked together to get a law that would put Pennsylvania on a par with the more advanced industrial state. The Walnut child labor bill drafted by the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association and sponsored by the Republican State Committee is based upon the uniform law adopted by the American Bar Association. The principal new features of this act are that no child under sixteen is permitted to work more than eight hours a day; all night work is prohibited for children under sixteen, whereas at present glass factories are exempt; provision is made for the regulation of street trading; and the age limit for night messenger service is put at twenty-one years. The age at which children may go to work still remains fourteen, but certain dangerous occupations are prohibited for children under sixteen.

So powerful has been the pressure to eliminate important features of the proposed law, that the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association has felt compelled to appeal for popular support. Herschel H. Jones of the National Child Labor Committee has spent most of the last two months traveling throughout the state, holding public meetings and interesting individually the influential people of the larger cities. With few exceptions the newspapers have taken up the campaign enthusiastically.

The opposition has come chiefly from two industries. The textile manufacturers complain that eight hours a day for children will disorganize their plants and compel the discharge of those under sixteen. This they assert would put them at a disadvantage with Massachusetts. In the Legislature in Massachusetts they are saying the same thing about Pennsylvania. The experience of New York, the largest manufacturing state and the third in textile production where no child under sixteen has been permitted to work before eight in the morning or after five in the evening since 1907, does not bear out this claim. In both Ohio and Illinois children are being used in certain industries in groups or shifts so as to keep the maximum amount of machinery in operation the full working time. The eight-hour provision in Illinois has been in force since 1903; in Ohio since 1908.

In the textile industry alone in Pennsylvania there are over 15,000 children under sixteen. Of this number, two-thirds are girls. Pennsylvania permits girls of fourteen and fifteen to work fifty-eight hours a week, or longer than most states permit adult women to labor.

The glass manufacturers assert that they must have boys on the night shifts else the men can not work. Advocates of the proposed law point out that in Ohio, Illinois, New Jersey and every other glass manufacturing state except West Virginia older boys and men are employed for the night work.

In an investigation of glass factories in western Pennsylvania made by Mr. Jones for the National Child Labor Committee in 1912 it was found that in many towns large numbers of boys between sixteen and eighteen were loafing until they grew big enough to work in the mines or coke ovens. At the same time the glass factories were taking boys of fourteen and using them on both night and day shifts.

Effort is being exerted to weaken the bill before it gets out of the Judiciary Special Committee of the Senate. This committee held a public hearing on May 14 on three important labor bills: the Bigger minimum wage bill which establishes a board to determine on a minimum wage for women; the Walnut woman's bill drafted by the Consumers' League and restricting employment of women to nine hours a day and fifty hours a week; and the Walnut child labor bill. Over 2,000 manufacturers came to Harrisburg for this hearing. The State Federation of Labor came to Harrisburg in a body to urge the passage of these bills.

In addition to the efforts to get better laws a step toward better enforcement has been taken by the passage of the law which establishes a new department of labor and industry. It resembles closely the law passed by the New York Legislature this year. The Bureau of Factory Inspection comes under the department. An industrial board is established to make rules and regulations and the inspectors are graded and required to have special qualifications.

NEW YORK CHARITIES IN CONFERENCE

Once more the May meetings of the New York City Conference of Charities were divided between Manhattan, Brooklyn and the country. The Colored Orphan Asylum at Riverdale was chosen this time for the final session.

Municipal needs was the first topic of discussion, and the speakers were O. F. Lewis and Frederick C. Howe, chairman of the committee appointed to study this subject. The latter dwelt particularly on the use of the school as a center for leisure. Edward M. Bassett and George B. Ford, lecturer on city planning at Columbia University, spoke on subways as a factor in distributing the population of a city. Mr. Ford suggested as a substitute for subways on some thoroughfares the noiseless elevated railroads found in Paris and Berlin. These, he said, should be placed only in the center of streets from 130 to 180 feet wide. Trees could be planted on either side to screen the structures.

Families, public institutions and the sick were the subjects on the following day. The chairman of the committee on families, Mrs. William Grant Brown, recommended the removing of one great cause of family pauperism by "following in the path already blazed by some of our western states, and legally restraining the marriage of those mentally deficient, delinquent or tainted by hereditary disease or crime." One of the other speakers, Porter R. Lee, gave a good illustration of overlapping in relief work in a story of a poor woman in Chicago, who after receiving her fourth consecutive visitor in one afternoon went to the nearest settlement to express her gratitude because no one had called from there, remarking: "There doesn't seem to be anything for the poor to do but to have office hours!"

On the live subject of widows' pensions there was no discussion this year beyond the statement in Mrs. Florence Kelley's address, which was read in her absence:

> "Private charity having cut off public outdoor relief has never been able to accomplish the task which it rashly undertook. We have a monument to its failure—38,000 children in New York state institutions paid for out of taxes because their natural guardians have, through death or disability, failed to meet the requirements which the law establishes for children in this city. Few of these institutions are schools in the true sense. They are in the main free municipal boarding-houses. They are communist institutions in which the city attempts, chiefly through the intervention of various religious sects, the task of bringing up children away from their mothers, by wholesale, out of the public funds."

The discussion of public institutions centered around those for the sick. Sidney E. Goldstein, chairman of the committee on this subject, dwelt especially on the fact that while government, church and school are more and more affected by the social movement, the hospital and dispensary are as yet but dimly aware of the larger work that society can rightfully expect of them. Mr. Goldstein questioned whether the dispensary is organized and administered with the needs of the community foremost in mind, and stated that the time is not distant when neither hospital nor dispensary will be reception houses for the sick, experiment stations in medicine or apprentice shops for medical students.

After care and the prevention of insanity were treated in a paper by Everett S. Ellwood of the State Charities Aid Association. Fred M. Stein of the Montefiore Home showed by statistics that the large percentage of "graduates" of tuberculosis sanatoria die or become worse, and urged after care of patients in their homes by social workers connected with sanatoria as an essential part of the work of such institutions.

The session on the sick carried on the same themes. Louis C. Ager, chief of the medical staff of the Brooklyn Home for Consumptives, showed the inadequacy of present hospital facilities, especially those for contagious diseases. Richard C. Cabot discussed the "efficiency and deficiencies" of the hospitals and dispensaries, and Isabel Stewart of Teachers College spoke of the social service work in the homes done by these institutions, as a logical and necessary supplement to their indoor work. She recommended courses on the "sociology" of disease as part of a nurse's training.

In her report for the Committee on Children Carolena M. Wood, president of the Colored Orphan Asylum of Riverdale, called attention to the fact that of the 25,000 city children in institutions, many are kept there for years so as to be near their parents when often their parents show no interest or are unsuitable because of health or morals to exercise any influence over them. The committee advised that such children be given a fresh start by being placed with families that can train them to be worthy members of the future state, even though this involves the dissolving of the family tie. Charles D. Hilles, president of the Board of Managers of the New York Juvenile Asylum, and Robert W. Hebberd spoke on various aspects of education as a preparation for life. The report of the Committee on Delinquency, read by Patrick A. Whitney, commissioner of corrections, was an appeal for more and better institutions.

Throughout the sessions the subject of recreation came up, as when, for instance, Mrs. Brown supplemented the usual recommendation for recreational use of the school house by the suggestion that the armories could be used as music centers. Ernest A. Coulter, formerly clerk of the Children's Court, held that the failure to pro-

vide opportunities for play was largely the cause of juvenile delinquency.

One method of treatment of adult delinquency, the farm colony, was the subject of a paper by Franklin H. Briggs, superintendent of the New York Training School for Boys at Yorktown. Said Professor Briggs:

"The farm colony treatment substitutes an appeal to the best that is in a delinquent. It seeks to develop self control in the individual. It endeavors to build up, not break down, the delinquent's self respect. In large masses delinquents must do the things which they are ordered to do, while in the small group of the farm colony, the individuals are encouraged to do things upon their own initiative. One most important feature of farm colony life is the almost numberless healthful interests with which it surrounds those for whom it cares."

PROF. HENDERSON NOW HEADS CHICAGO'S UNITED CHARITIES

The United Charities of Chicago has made a strong rejoinder to the persistent attacks of the "investigating" committee of the Illinois Legislature which have included other philanthropic agencies and institutions as well as prominent individuals. In an editorial, How Not to Investigate, the Chicago *Evening Post* describes the methods pursued by this committee:

> "A new standard of efficiency in judicial investigation has been set by the Curran legislative committee now sitting in judgment upon certain of Chicago's charitable agencies which have been selected as the object of its displeasure.
>
> "It used to be that an inquiry the purpose of which was to decide upon the social value of an institution or individual was carried on by an impartial group to which the pros and cons of evidence were submitted for its careful and conscientious sifting. Due allowance had to be made for personal bias or selfish motive of the witness, and care had to be used to make a just decision. But we are learning that this is an outgrown custom. The examiner of the future will know from the fullness of his own personal knowledge the agency that is ineffective or the individual that is guilty. This settled in advance, he will summon before him whosoever is known to be at odds with the condemned, and his vilifications will be solemnly taken down as the findings of the examiner. The condemned, under this system, stripped of counsel, will be brought in only to receive the gibes of his inquisitor.
>
> "This method may insure a remarkable number of convictions, but are its results of any value? . . .
>
> "Anyone who has followed the rise of social work as a profession looks in vain for the introduction into the examination of that sort of trained and expert testimony which would lend to it some claim to the consideration of thoughtful people."

Accompanying the announcement of Prof. Charles R. Henderson's election as president of the United Charities of Chicago the directors in a signed statement gave their answer to this method of attack. This defense applies also to other institutions and individuals now under fire. The value of the personal and social service rendered by modern philanthropy and the economy of present methods are summarized in this statement:

> "First as to money matters: It cost the United Charities last year less than 2 per cent to collect $271,000.
>
> "We employ no solicitors and pay no commissions.
>
> "A summary of the divisions of our expenditures for the year is as follows: 76 per cent for direct assistance, 10 per cent for administration salaries, 14 per cent for provision of relief centers and equipment plus $1,000 payment on land at Algonquin.
>
> "Of the 76 per cent for direct assistance in the various departments 62 per cent went for material aid in cash, groceries, etc. This does not include approximately $20,000 worth of such aid which it is estimated our visitors secured from relatives, friends, etc., and which does not show on our books.
>
> "The remainder of the expenditures for relief was for such personal services (to mention only a few) as led to the securing of employment, to the reconciliation with relatives, to the keeping of families together, to the saving of lives through instructions in the care of babies and procuring of expert medical and nursing aid, to the developing of competency, ambition, and a sense of responsibility in people who showed tendencies toward pauperism and crime. If the economic value of restoring all the poor to self-support, who were restored through the ministrations of our employes, could be computed, it would mount into hundreds of thousands of dollars.
>
> "We have included under administration also the salaries of the general superintendent, the general district secretary, and the nine district superintendents—persons of the highest qualifications and of long practical experience, who train and direct the daily work of many younger agents, labor constantly to secure prompt and harmonious charitable action throughout the city, and encourage and guide the benevolent impulses of hundreds of kind volunteers.
>
> "Strictly speaking the cost of such service is no more 'administration expense' than

the salaries of superintendents and assistant superintendents of school who do not teach, but who improve the efficiency of all teachers under them.

"The average salary of our workers is $684 per year (123 out of 156 receiving less than $900, while the average salary of the county relief department is $1,332 per year. Every one of our employes is carefully selected and most of them specially trained for their duties. . . .

"The United Charities is putting at the disposal of the community the services of 750 volunteers, in many different capacities, in addition to its paid staff."

Professor Henderson's acceptance of the presidency and the removal of the central office from the old outgrown building, to an entire floor in the advantageously located new Federal Life Insurance Building, 163 N. Michigan Avenue, is expected to effect a new era of progress in the Chicago United Charities under the superintendency of Eugene T. Lies.

THE STRIKE OF THE JERSEY SILK WEAVERS

The strike of silk workers in Paterson, N. J., which was chronicled in THE SURVEY of April 19, is still in progress. There has been very little breaking away on the part of the strikers, nor have the manufacturers on the other hand made any serious attempt to bring in strike breakers. The entire industry in this city of silk manufacturers has been practically at a standstill for three months.

Recently there have been some indications on both sides of a willingness to compromise. A number of the important mills have made direct overtures to their employes, and one small mill has actually effected a settlement and is in operation. In some of the outlying New Jersey towns where the Paterson strike has been duplicated on a smaller scale, temporary settlements, pending an agreement in Paterson, have been made including an eight-hour day, an increase in wages and non-recognition of the Industrial Workers of the World. In Paterson efforts to bring the manufacturers and the strike committee together have continued without avail. The most recent move was the appointment by Mayor Andrew McBride of a committee of twenty-five citizens with John W. Griggs, formerly attorney general of the United States, as chairman.

The grand jury, some weeks ago, returned indictments against the strike leaders, William D. Haywood, Elizabeth Gurley Flynn, Carlo Tresca and Patrick Quinlan, charging Haywood with unlawful assemblage and the others with inciting to riot. On May 7 the trials began, and, it having been agreed that the defendants should be tried separately, the case of Patrick Quinlan was the first to go before the jury. Quinlan was charged with having urged the strikers on the first day of the strike to go to the mills and get the remaining workers out and with using physical violence to accomplish that end. The jury reported on May 10 that they were unable to agree and were dismissed. Two days later, a new jury was secured and Quinlan's second trial followed. Before the week was out, he was found guilty by this second jury on a charge of inciting to riot. It has been announced that sentence will not be pronounced upon him until after the trials of the other leaders. The maximum sentence which could be pronounced in this case is said to be seven years in the penitentiary.

The conviction of Quinlan has stirred up bitterness among the strikers. Their feeling against the police, upon whose testimony alone Quinlan was convicted, has run especially high. The week following the trial, some plain-clothes detectives and a court stenographer attending a meeting of the strikers in Turn Hall were threatened with summary violence if they did not leave. That evening the Board of Police and Fire Commissioners of the city of Paterson decided to close Turn and Helvetia Halls, the two meeting places of the strikers. Information received from the city authorities of Paterson is to the effect that the strikers will not be permitted to hold meetings in any hall in Paterson, but that they may hold out-of-door meetings on private property if they can secure the consent of the owners. Strike meetings, meanwhile, are being held in Haledon, a borough adjoining Paterson, where the Socialist mayor stands for "free speech."

The trials of the other strike leaders have been delayed pending an appeal on the part of the strikers' counsel to have a jury selected from outside Passaic county, because of the present feeling against the Industrial Workers of the World. On May 22 this appeal was granted by Justice Minturn, who decided that at the present time it would be impossible to secure a fair trial from a jury made up of citizens of the community.

Many arrests have been made by the police recently on account of the picketing of the Price mill, where a settlement has been made. Although the strikers on the picket line were not guilty of any violence eighty-five of them were arrested on Monday, May 19, and fifty-seven on the following day. Some of them were charged with disorderly conduct and were sentenced by Recorder Carroll to a fine of $5 or ten days in jail. Others were charged with unlawful assemblage and were held for action by the grand jury.

CITY PLANNING AS A CIVIC ASSET

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

That the city planning idea has gotten beyond the experts and has "arrived" in the mind of the average citizen became evident at the Fifth National Conference on City Planning, held in Chicago May 5-7. The delegates, representing seventy or eighty cities and towns and a score of different states, included not only students and experts but real estate operators and business men. City planning as a civic asset was shown to have gained recognition when twelve important cities made earnest appeals for the conference next May.

It is significant that this new grip of the idea on the country accompanied an important shift of emphasis—from spectacular and elaborate schemes for reconstructing the heart of the city to practical details of city building. As Dr. Werner Hegemann of Berlin, whose stimulating contribution from European city planning proved a distinct feature of the conference, put it: "City planning should not be primarily for attracting the traveler, but for the people who live in the city. The spectacular captured our imaginations; we must turn the resultant impulse into the work of planning the every day living conditions of city dwellers." "Psychologically it is quite justifiable," said George B. Ford, "that American city planning began with the 'City Beautiful.' The 'City Scientific' would never have aroused such enthusiasm. However, after floundering around for a number of years we have now got our perspective and a sense of the proportion of things, and we know that considerations of health, convenience and efficiency are of fundamental importance."

The emphasis on guiding the normal growth of cities was shown particularly in the report of the committee which has been at work a year on plans for the development of a typical tract on the outskirts of a growing city, and also in the discussion of transportation problems. The committee started with certain "given conditions." The tract was assumed to be four miles from the center of a city having a population of 500,000; land cost was put at $2,500 an acre; costs of sewers and other fundamental improvements were fixed on the basis of business experience; and the topography, country roads, railroads and rapid transit lines were mapped. The development was assumed to be for a factory population. The committee presented nine plans prepared by nine groups of participants and these were accompanied by detailed figures covering all costs, interest on capital, profits and selling prices. In this careful attention to costs and financing of the development, the work of the committee has an especial value beyond the city planning competition of the Chicago City Club which also concerned the development of a residential tract in an outlying portion of the city. The prize plans in this competition were shown to the conference when it visited the Chicago City Club.

"No city can afford to build subways"—this was the bomb thrown into the discussion of transportation. And there was a surprising consensus of opinion that American cities have gone subway-mad. This point of view came out at a discussion at which the leading paper, written by Milo R. Maltbie of the New York Public Service Commission, was read and commented on by E. P. Goodrich, consulting engineer of the Borough of Manhattan.

Henry C. Wright of New York showed graphically that subways are predicated upon extreme congestion. The high cost of construction as compared with other methods of rapid transit does not warrant investment unless heavy traffic is assured by crowded tenements of three to four stories or more in height throughout the region served by the subway. He strongly recommended elevated structures or rapid transit lines running in open cuts, except in the most crowded down town sections of large cities. This point of view was reinforced by Dr. Hegemann who cited the experience with subways in English and continental as well as American cities.

Cheap land values and the consequent possibility of low rents were shown to depend upon cheap, though rapid and good and ramifying transportation. Without this factor it is impossible to secure a wholesome spread of city population.

How to pay the costs of the local improvements which city planning suggests received special attention in a paper by George E. Kessler, upon the development of parks in Kansas City. The system of local assessments was shown to secure practically all the results which could be obtained through the use of "excess condemnation," with less trouble and with better co-operation on the part of all citizens, including real estate men who so often object to excess condemnation. The success of the Kansas City method was attested by a leading real estate man of that city, J. C. Nichols, who said that despite the fact that park boulevards and similar local improvements are almost entirely paid by local assessments, the property owners who have to foot the bills are now the first to demand these improvements.

Whether through modification of systems of local assessment or through the direct application of excess condemnation, the principle of financing improvements through the increase in value of the areas benefiting was felt by all to be an essential in accomplishing the realization of

city plans. Two points in this connection were much discussed—first, the distance to which local assessment should go back from the improvements and the proportion in which it should diminish; and second, the question of paying locally for improvements in outlying unimproved land. The conference seemed to feel in regard to the first point that it is impossible to make any hard and fast rule and that each case could be decided on its own merits. With regard to the second point, opinion seemed to be that the local assessment should be paid in small installments over a long period and that a much larger portion should be assessed on the city as a whole than in the case of improvements in the built-up sections.

An important paper by Edward M. Bassett of New York discussed the legal powers which a city should have to enable it to carry out city planning successfully. He particularly sought to show the necessity for removing the legal wrappings which retard a city from applying the principle of "excess condemnation." Some of his illustrations of the way a real estate speculator can secure the values which ought to accrue to the whole city were most striking. In the Bronx, he said, a speculator obtained an award for a house lying in the way of a newly opened street, whereupon he moved it to the center of another street soon to be opened. He obtained another award, and so far as the law is concerned he may continue the process with each new street opened. The exercise of the police power was also shown by Mr. Bassett to be of the utmost importance in establishing regulations for public health and safety, and in dealing with such matters as the limitation of the height of buildings.

The National City Planning Conference, as its name implies, is not so much a convention for propaganda as a gathering of students. Each session was devoted to but one or two papers, of which advance copies were in the hands of delegates. There was thus opportunity for careful discussion.

The papers were characterized not so much by inspirational flights as by a hard-headed, common-sense attention to every-day facts and conditions, and the "humdrum human mechanism," to quote Chairman Frederick Law Olmsted, "by which city plan visions are to be realized." Mr. Olmsted's address on A City Planning Program dealt with such prosaic things as the system of records whereby a city should know all the essential facts about its sewers, conduits and subsurface pipes, its poles and wires, gutters, pavement, car lines, and character of buildings. He emphasized the importance of topographical, social, economic and legal surveys, and showed how a municipality's future city planning "office" should have an equipment of such information and a co-operative relation with all the agencies, public and private, whose activities affect the problems and efforts of city planning.

A similar point of view was displayed in the paper by George B. Ford on The City Scientific. He discussed the various types of surveys which should be undertaken and showed how a body of data can be secured, so as to reduce such matters as street widening and extension and transportation almost to an exact science. He advocated a program survey which would lay out in order of urgency the matters which the local commission should undertake. Especially he urged that it is futile to attempt to get planning results from one expert but that at least three—representing the engineering and economic side, the aesthetic side and the social side—should work together harmoniously, calling in specialists along particular lines.

The organization and functions of a city planning commission was a subject on which there was much discussion, following a paper by Mayor William A. Magee of Pittsburgh.

The Chicago plan appropriately came in for consideration, and at the banquet a toast was drunk to the memory of Daniel H. Burnham, a fine portrait of whom appeared back of the speakers' table. Charles H. Wacker, chairman of the Chicago Plan Commission, told of the efforts, methods and experience in rallying the whole citizenship of Chicago, even to the education of the school children through a manual on the plan. He referred to the wonderful civic spirit which reached a high tide when the western metropolis gave to the nation the glorious beauty of the World's Fair "White City"; and he expressed the firm faith that around the vision of the Chicago plan the people would again rise to a practical idealism expressed in a nobler conception of what their city might become. At a previous session Edward H. Bennett, who was associated with Mr. Burnham in the designing of the Chicago plan, discussed various aspects of a newer interest in the scientific study of such elements as transportation and housing.

Faith in the civic idealism of the average man and woman, as expressed by Mr. Wacker, was a note which well followed a noteworthy address by Lawson Purdy. Rarely does the economic and the spiritual blend as it did when he showed that so material a thing as land value becomes, when we try to distribute it equitably and for the community welfare, the vehicle for a larger brotherhood of neighbors and citizens. And in discussing the relation of the public rights to the liberty of the individual, he brought it all to the test of the law of love, so well expressed—and the reference went straight to the hearts of those who treasure the memories of personal friendship with one of the most lovable "people's men" of our generation—by Sam Jones, the "Golden Rule" mayor of Toledo.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE GUARANTEE OF SECURITY

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES
Church of the Messiah, New York

Amid such a confusion of "chance and change" as seems to be characteristic of our age in the various phases of its social life, it is not surprising perhaps to find that many persons, not over-given to timidity on ordinary occasions, are genuinely disturbed at the course which events are taking; and are asking of the agitators and reformers of the time, in terms more and more insistent, what guarantee they have to offer that their words and works do not spell destruction for the whole existing fabric of civilization.

Those of us who feel the thrill of the new movement of social transformation, and hail the advent of the new day with an exultation which leaves little place in our hearts for any regrets for the passing of the old, do not always realize, I imagine, how numerous are the revolutions of ancient custom which are involved in the demands which are being pressed upon every hand, and therefore fail to recognize the fears for the security of the nation, which are latent in many noble and devoted hearts. What with the indefinite extension of the machinery of our democracy by such devices as the initiative, the referendum and the recall, which may well seem subversive of that whole form of representative government which is at the bottom of our constitutional system; the multiplying assaults upon the integrity and authority of our courts, which have so long been regarded as the very bulwark of our institutions; the call for the active interference of the state with the administration of industry in such matters as workmen's compensation, the eight-hour day for women and children, the minimum wage, etc.; the rapidly growing sentiment of our people in favor of the socialization of the resources of nature and of the public; regulation, if not ownership, of all means of production and distribution—the whole great movement, in a word, for an unfettered democracy upon the one hand and an unlimited social control upon the other—what with all these startling innovations sweeping down upon us at once, it is not surprising that many an earnest soul is wondering as to what the outcome of it all is to be and is seeking rather vainly for any evidence that these cures, which are being offered for our ills, do not mean the dissolution rather than the healing of the patient.

What guarantee can you give us, amid the utter chaos in which we are involved, that there is any real security for the future?

What assurance can you offer that this flood of reform, which is certainly destined to "bear [us] far," will not break its bonds and thus sweep us to destruction?

What reasons can you present for believing that we may safely try these untested schemes of political and industrial revolution, and still have anything left of this great republic, which was founded in the blood and tears of the fathers, and was strengthened and extended by the undaunted labors of four generations of valiant sons? Is there anything which may even partially persuade us that this new movement really involves "the strength and stability of the times?"

These are the questions which are being asked today by many a restless heart, and they are questions which challenge a respectful answer.

There are some of us (of whom I beg to be counted one!) who find our all sufficient reply to these inquiries in our abounding faith in humanity. We believe that in a country where illiteracy is at a minimum, general education on the increase, caste barriers unknown, freedom of speech, press and assembly granted and practiced, religious liberty everywhere enjoyed, the people can be trusted to control their own affairs. This does not mean that the voice of the people is necessarily the voice of God in all places and under all conditions. But it does mean that the people, if given the privilege of responsibility and a due opportunity for self-knowledge and self-instruction, will quite as often decide for the right as for the wrong; and that in the latter case will learn from their experience of error the certain way of avoiding similar blunders in the future. Thus, by the very practice of their freedom do the people grow in wisdom and virtue. Thus, by the very fact of its operation does democracy perfect itself, as water purifies itself. Thus does the voice of the people become in course of time as if it were the voice of God. Which is all we mean by the ancient maxim that the cure for the ills of democracy is more democracy! It is such a faith in the people that gives to many of us, amid the political and industrial transformations of the time, the guarantee of security which must be had, and for any guarantee beyond this pledge of faith, we see no need.

It is obvious, however, that, to many minds, moral faith of any kind can give no guarantee of things material. Blind trust in human nature means nothing when we are talking about such matters as governments and economic systems. We must have something more tangible than this is the cry, if we are to believe that the new social movements of the age are anything more than so many heedless attacks upon the integrity of our civilization.

To this demand I am confident that a satisfactory answer can be given; and I find this answer, not in the field of ideals, but in the field

of method. The guarantee of security, amid the chaos about us, is to be found in the method of action characteristic of the true social reformer of the times, which is nothing less than the method of exact science. Visionaries, dreamers, agitators, blind propagandists, there are a-plenty in the social field today, and many are they who follow whithersoever they lead. But the reformer who really counts as an influence at this moment, and therefore may be regarded as typical of effective social progress, is nothing more, and certainly is nothing less, than a scientist who makes society his laboratory and who follows therein the expert's well-approved methods of observation and experiment. The social leader of this new age is primarily an investigator, and only secondarily a reformer. His first demand is for facts; and only when these are gathered in sufficient numbers, are classified and tabulated and compared, and then at last made to tell their tale, does he draw his inferences, formulate his doctrines and lay down his program of reform. There is much of the prophet in the true sociologist—much of the poet, much of the humanitarian and lover of mankind. These qualities must never disappear, if the social movement is to remain wholesome, idealistic and thus genuinely beneficent. But at bottom, at least for the present, must be the scientist as the perpetual guarantee of sanity and safety.

What Darwin did with his barnacles and earthworms; what De Vries did with his evening-primroses; what Professor Loeb is doing with his sea-urchins, and Dr. Carrel with his transplanted organs and revivified tissues; all this is the true social worker doing more and more with his tenement dwellers, child laborers, factory women, tuberculosis victims, immigrants, white slaves, and so on indefinitely through the social groups. More and more we have work which is primarily scientific, and which may fittingly be ranked, from the standpoint of scientific method, with any of the researches of the biologists, zoologists or astronomers of modern times. Well does a recent writer declare, "In recent years, this [altruistic] spirit, which began in a humanistic sentiment and hardly developed beyond the limits of kindliness, has become so infused with exact knowledge of social conditions . . . that it has assumed the dignity of a scientific pursuit."

Here now is the guarantee of security for which so many cautious persons of our time are vainly seeking. So long as we look upon the new moral and political movements, which are so characteristic of our age, as mere agitations, we may feel alarm for the future. It is when we look closer, and see that, behind the agitation for change, there is the accuracy, precision, and certainty of the scientific method, that we may feel that "all is well."

TEACHING SOCIOLOGY IN NORTH DAKOTA

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

The *Quarterly Journal* of the University of North Dakota has recently published a reprint of an article by Professor Gillette of the Department of Sociology which is an extremely useful and interesting document.

The state has a board of control which administers its state institutions, but like most such boards, pays little or no attention to the county and municipal charities and correction nor to the voluntary philanthropic agencies. To remedy this defect of the state government, the Department of Sociology of the university compiled a most valuable report on Poor Relief and Jails, and that report was spread broadcast in the form of a reprint.

Professor Gillette describes his experience on beginning as follows:

"The first endeavors to obtain information in a new state relative to such subjects as this paper treats are likely to prove far from satisfactory because of the non-existence of published information. Two years ago, after vainly endeavoring to obtain information on the state as a whole relative to the general subjects of poor-relief and conditions of jails, I began a personal investigation into those matters.

"Whenever I found myself in a county seat, I collected such facts as the county offices held, inspected the jails, visited the poor farms where they were accessible, and inquired into the workings of the poor-relief system. In this manner, seventeen counties were investigated. Eight counties were visited in connection with the occasional lectures I was called on to give in the state. Information from the other nine counties was obtained by means of field work which very meager departmental funds enabled me to make. It is one of the traditional conditions, which still persists in educational institutions that are supposed to foster research, that departments which use mechanical instruments to carry on experiment are given thousands of dollars, while departments whose field of research lies in the world outside are denied any investigative funds or given a mere pittance. I expected, therefore, to be able to report on conditions in those seventeen counties only.

"As an illustration of the inchoate conditions which may obtain in a civilized society it may be well to recount that while investigating the sixteenth county I fairly stumbled into evidence that, filed in the archives of the statehouse at Bismarck, lay unpublished data on the cost of poor-relief and to a less extent the cost of supporting the state insane and feeble-minded for all the counties of the state. For it appeared that county auditors and treasurers are required to file what is called Auditor and Treasurer's An-

nual Report to the State Examiner of North Dakota. Correspondence with the state examiner's office caused the compilation of such data as existed relative to the other thirty-one counties of the state. I give this experience to illustrate the need there is for gathering and publishing state-wide information on matters pertaining to the backward classes we know as paupers, criminals, and defectives."

The report shows many facts that needed airing, especially as to the conditions of the jails, and the rapid increase (for such a young and progressive state) of the amount of pauper relief.

"The cost of poor-relief in the state almost doubled in the five-year period, increasing from $128,917.15 in 1907 to $240,469.80 in 1911. The total population of the state in 1905 was 437,070; in 1910 it was 557,056. These figures approximately represent the years ending June 30, 1906 and 1911. That is, while the population was gaining 32 per cent the cost of maintaining the poor in the state enlarged 86.5 per cent. *In that time the expenditure for that purpose grew 2.7 times as fast as the population.*"

This it must be remembered is in a prohibition state, one in which probably one-half of the prisoners in the jail are "piggers," which is the picturesque vernacular for people convicted of violating the prohibition law, or "running a blind pig." In one jail, of twenty-four prisoners nineteen were "piggers."

Most of the poor relief is "outdoor." Only a few counties have poor farms, some of these being far from satisfactory. The county aids all poor and indigent who are in need according to laws of settlement, and the county commissioners levy a tax to this end. The overseers "allow and pay relief to needy persons of sound mind; also to poor parents of idiots and helpless children an amount common in such cases."

The provision to pay relief to parents of idiots and helpless children reminds one of the celebrated relief by the state to the parents of idiots in Kentucky, which has been described as an act "to promote the propagation of idiots and imbeciles." Since the report was issued, the Legislature of North Dakota has been in session. Among the new laws is one creating a state supervisory board to regulate the public relief of the poor. This is based on Professor Gillette's findings and is a copy of the Indiana law on the subject, which Professor Gillette recommended as being the best code of the kind in this country.

Next year the Department of Sociology will present a similar report on the insane and feebleminded. The University of North Dakota is only one of several—Wisconsin, Minnesota and Texas might be mentioned—in which the department of sociology is becoming an extremely practical and useful thing for the state.

CRIMINAL TRAFFIC IN COCAINE

LOUIS C. AGER, M. D.
Brooklyn, N. Y

We always have with us a considerable number of inhuman beings who are willing to make capital out of the weaknesses and sins of their neighbors. The illicit sale of cocaine is only one example of this fact. Similar conditions have always existed in the abuse of opium products, and the sale of alcohol to irresponsible persons has become so much a part of our vaunted civilization that we find it difficult to realize that this drug abuse dwarfs into insignificance all others combined.

We hear periodically of the "ether jag," the "cologne drunk" and the "coke fiend." It is the novelty of these habits that makes them good newspaper copy. The actual number of individuals addicted to these habits is exceedingly small, and their economic value to the community is practically nil. Normal, well balanced people do not acquire drug habits of any kind and it is only those of extreme mental instability who take to the more unusual practices.

Cocaine is at present receiving a large amount of advertising and its sale is therefore being boosted. Unfortunately there are always a number of people whose mental instability takes the form of having ready at a moment's notice a sure remedy for any social evil that may be under discussion. Such people are fully as harmful to the community as the drug users, and sooner or later a society will learn to ignore them.

What are the facts about the abuse of cocaine in this country, and what ought to be done to eradicate the evil? Users of this drug are not perhaps numerous, but the number has undoubtedly increased during the past five years. It is generally accepted as a fact that the proportion of mental deficients in our population is also on the increase and the two naturally go hand in hand. It is also true that debased individuals have lately made efforts to encourage the use of this drug habit for their own financial benefit, and as a result cocaine has become more widely known than ever before.

All this ought to be corrected, but legislation alone will not accomplish it. Numerous bills were introduced into the recent New York Legislature and at one time it looked as though the Walker bill would become a law—in spite of the opposition of all reputable physicians and the fact that its complicated provisions violated professional privilege.

The proposed federal law is a simple, sane regulation based upon the internal revenue system. It provides graded licenses for the sale of the habit-forming drugs, with a complete supervision of their distribution. The purchase of a large amount by one individual would at once be no-

ticed and his disposal of it followed up. If his explanation were not satisfactory his license could be revoked. It is to be hoped that Congress will enact this law.

FINGER PRINTS

A BIT OF EVIDENCE

SCOTT NEARING

James Rawley had come to a parting of the ways. Time after time the court had overlooked his truancy and misdoings, but James had taken the pitcher once too often to the well, and the open doors of the state reform school stared him grimly in the face.

"It will be best for him in the long run," commented the judge. "Each month of this wild life makes him a little less fit to keep his place in the community. He has had his last chance."

Yet there was one ray of hope, for James lived in and out of Boston, which is fortunate in having the Newton Technical High School. Here let me say, by way of explanation, that the Newton Technical High School is a part of the school system presided over by F. E. Spaulding,[1] a veritable wizard in the organization and direction of educational work. Among his many "queer" ideas, Mr. Spaulding believes that children of high school age should be in the high school, whether they have passed their eight years of grade work or not. An absurd theory? Well, perhaps; but the first year he put this theory into practice, Mr. Spaulding transferred seventy fifteen-year-old boys and girls from the seventh and eighth grades, where they had learned the art of failing, to the high school building, where they were to be taught success.

Grouped in special classes, these "grade-floaters" devoted more than half their time to technical work—cooking, sewing, shopwork and machine work—and the remainder to academic subjects. So prepared more than two-thirds of the youngsters entered the high school on probation in the same class with their former seventh and eighth grade school-fellows, who had spent all their time the previous year at academic work. Here was the test—could these children who had been devoting three-fifths of their time to technical activities keep pace with children from the regular grades?

At the end of the first quarter, when the marks of all the pupils in the school were analyzed, it was found that the 800 scholars had an average of .54 of one failure for each pupil. The twenty-seven girls who were promoted on probation had .17 of one failure each, only a third as many as the school at large. Of the seventeen boys promoted on trial, only one failed and in but one subject. The probationers had therefore made records which were, as a whole, far superior to the records made by the average pupils in the high school.

These facts, pretty generally known in educational circles in and around Boston, led James' custodians to propose to the judge that he give James one more trial, this time in the Newton Technical High School. The judge agreed to the suggestion, and James, a dismal eighth-grade failure, entered the Newton Technical High School in one of the special transfer classes.

James began life badly. His mother died when he was young, and his father, a rather indifferent man, boarded the boy out during his early years with an aunt. She first spoiled him through indulgence, and then, inconsistently enough, hated him because he was spoiled. Growing up in this uncongenial atmosphere, James became entirely uncontrollable. He was disagreeable in the extreme, wild and unmanageable.

The people with whom James was boarding grew tired of his continued truancy, and he was placed on a farm near Boston. There, too, he was discontented, dissatisfied and disobedient. Time after time he ran away to Boston. He went from bad to worse, falling in with vagrants, learning their talk and their ways, acquiring a love for wandering, and a distaste for regularity and direction. Taken into custody by the juvenile court and placed on probation with a family outside of Boston, James again ran away, mingling with a crowd of his old associates in Boston. It was at this point that the court decided to send him to the reform school. Then it was that an understanding friend took him in charge, found him a home in Newton, and started his life anew in the Technical High School.

That was how the record stood a while ago. How does it stand now? Promoted to the regular freshman class on trial, James has renewed his interest in education and shows an entirely new trait. He does not exactly dote on all his work, but he is doing it and doing it well. He hated school before. The new deal is different, he even likes it at times.

He has found something to interest him. The boy was just bursting with the need of expressing his self, his personality. The street gave his worst half its chance. Now the better stuff that is in him is getting its opportunity and he is taking it.

Good and evil are always contending for the boy as for the man, and the function of education is to give the good the better chance. If there be stale pedagogues who do not understand, let them take notice, for after all the boy is the one to be considered.

[1] See One Dollar in the Educational Market, THE SURVEY for May 24, 1913.

BOOKS

THE NECESSARY EVIL
By Charles Rann Kennedy. Harper and Brothers. 110 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08.

THE BLINDNESS OF VIRTUE
By Cosmo Hamilton. George H. Doran Co. 127 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.07.

Charles Rann Kennedy has again in The Necessary Evil given us a strong though unpleasant play. It is an appeal to the young girl growing into womanhood to consider what the desecration of that womanhood means, and a demand that she refuse to allow herself to be sold either into the prostitution of the street or that of a moneyed, loveless marriage.

John Heron, a composer, living in his music, his daughter and in the memory of his wife, is a man apart from the problems of the day. His daughter, just entering womanhood, has been for years an invalid, living in her father's music and her books.

We meet them on her birthday. They are waiting for her brother's return from the outside world in celebration of the day. The girl, filled with wonder at the beauty of life, with thankfulness for her recovered health, stands looking out of the window while her father plays Brahms' Intermezzo Op. 118, No. 6. A woman passing in the street attracted by the music looks up and their eyes meet. In the woman's eyes is the misery of all the fallen women since the creation, and it seems to the girl to carry a direct appeal for help. The music stops, and to her questioning the father tells her of her mother's life of sacrifice for these erring sisters and of her death from a broken heart. It is the girl's first knowledge of evil. Just here her brother comes.

In her joy over his return the woman is forgotten, but while they are at the birthday supper the woman comes in with her message of the misery of the lives of her lost sisters; her plea for a union between man and woman that is mental and spiritual, beyond the physical, and her demand for the love and pity of the girl's innocence for her companions.

Were this scene handled by any less masterly hand than Mr. Kennedy's it would be impossible; but in his messenger we find again that same note of mysticism that has characterized his other plays. We cannot, however, but sympathize with the girl's brother in his indignation that his sister should have the veil so ruthlessly torn from her eyes. Surely we can teach our girls the sanctity and beauty of marriage without taking away their joy in living.

Approach the problem, however, from whatever road we will, it always comes back to the one fundamental question—What right have parents to let their children grow to manhood or womanhood without the knowledge that is their right?

* * *

During the past few seasons we have had many plays on sex problems. Some of them have been strong, virile, excellently written, from both an acting and a literary point of view, but they have failed to waken in their hearers any sense of personal responsibility towards the problem presented. This is due mainly to the fact that they have dealt with unusual situations or a too sordid group. The average listener feels sorry for the victim with the same impersonal feeling that is aroused by the reading of similar horrors in the daily press.

But this is not so in Cosmo Hamilton's strong play—The Blindness of Virtue. The scene is laid in the vicarage of a small rural parish outside of London—but it might as truly be outside of New York. The Reverend Harry Pemberton and his wife, lovable examples of the broad human element of the church, in their zeal to do their duty by God's unfortunate children are leaving to a very lonely life their one child, a girl just reaching womanhood, anxious to try her wings, to be doing, to be helping, but sheltered by her parents from any conflict with the world and its problems.

Into this household comes young Archie Graham, sent down by his father, the minister of education, to read with the vicar. Archie is given a thoroughly bad character by this father, who has been too busy legislating for the education of the masses to have had time to help in the development of his motherless son.

By the second act a charming love interest has developed between the boy who, under the warmth of the vicar's trust and companionship, has grown every inch a man, and the girl—unconscious on her part, realized on his as something to be worthy of.

In this act, Mary Ann Lemmins, a village girl, who was lost eight months previous, comes to see the vicar.

The Vicar: "Why didn't he marry you, Mary Ann?"

Mary Ann: "'E 'a got a wife. I was to blame fer this, 'e said. Me knowing nothing —'e explained it all right to me—Me knowing nothing, and what it all meant—brought it about. If I'd a bin told when I was old enough to understand I should a sent him away 'e says, double quick, and saved 'im and me and the little one. 'E says as how if we was taught to think, and knew as much as the man, there'd be very little of this 'ere trouble fer us. It's the mother first, 'e says, and then us, who is ter blame."

With his eyes opened to what a parent's responsibilities should be, the vicar calls his wife and begs that she give Effie the knowledge which would protect her. The mother brings every old-time argument behind which false modesty has

hidden for years to prove that Effie should not be told. "Girls must learn for themselves. My mother never told me." Only when he insists that if she does not tell Effie he will, does she agree to do so that night. She delays, however, and a few mornings later the father finds Effie in Archie's bedroom, quite innocently come to hear of his trip to London the previous day. The vicar, refusing to believe that his daughter, knowing what he thinks her mother has told her, could have come to the room voluntarily, accuses the boy of having enticed her there. A violent quarrel between the two men ends the act. But in the last act the vicar learns that the young people have acted innocently, and it all ends happily.

The play is beautifully written, the characters so human, so lovable, that one feels grateful to Mr. Hamilton for having introduced us to them. It is by far the strongest and most convincing appeal for sex education that has yet been written for the stage. One cannot imagine any parent who has been blind to his duty, as had been the vicar, not crying with him, "My child might have been Mary Ann."

The Blindness of Virtue should do much good. It might be considered the cause to effect as shown in Brieux' Damaged Goods.

OLIVE CROSBY.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN BOSTON

The Women's Municipal League of Boston. 300 pp.

Some excitement has been aroused in the ranks of those who are interested in vocational guidance to youths by the conclusion of several students of the subject that young people between fourteen and sixteen need to be guided into further training rather than into gainful occupations. If this conclusion be correct a distinct service will be rendered by listing and analyzing existing opportunities for vocational training. Without committing itself to either point of view, the Women's Municipal League of Boston has pioneered by compiling a handbook of such opportunities in that city.

For the purposes of this book vocational training is defined as "any education the controlling purpose of which is to fit for profitable employment." It is obvious that in any attempt to analyze and discriminate among agencies offering vocational education, the value of the work will be determined largely by the manner in which it is conducted. The investigations for this treatise were done mainly by students from Harvard, Radcliffe and Wellesley Colleges, from the School for Social Workers, and from Boston University. Their work, says the preface, was closely supervised. A tentative chart made from the written reports of the students was subjected to the comparative scrutiny of the heads of all the schools concerned. Before the final charts were made conferences were held with experts in each type of education listed.

Besides an alphabetical list of 292 subjects taught in vocational schools and classes in Boston, the book contains classified information regarding professional schools, commercial schools, industrial schools and schools for training in the household arts. Both public and private schools are included. Among industrial schools are included pre-vocational, manual training, trade, technical and other improvement schools. With regard to each school the book tells briefly its purpose, courses, admission requirements, tuition, season, and what the school undertakes in the way of placing its students.

A supplement lists organized opportunities for training for the physically handicapped in Massachusetts, opportunities for vocational training in settlements and other social centers and organized opportunities for finding employment.

WINTHROP D. LANE.

SOCIALISM SUMMED UP

By MORRIS HILLQUIT. The H. K. Fly Co. 110 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.06.

THE TRUTH ABOUT SOCIALISM

By ALLAN L. BENSON. B. W. Huebsch. 188 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

SOCIALISM AND DEMOCRACY IN EUROPE

By SAMUEL P. ORTH. Henry Holt. 352 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

MY LIFE

By AUGUST BEBEL. The University of Chicago Press. 343 pp. Price $200; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.14.

FURTHER REMINISCENCES

By H. M. HYNDMAN. The Macmillan Co. 545 pp. Price $5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $5.20.

THE LARGER ASPECTS OF SOCIALISM

By WILLIAM ENGLISH WALLING. The Macmillan Co. 406 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.63.

The chapters of Mr. Hillquit's summary of the principles of Socialism and the industrial conditions, which, in his opinion, make its coming inevitable, appeared in the *Metropolitan Magazine*. As its name indicates, this little book of 110 pages makes no original contributions to the subject; in it one of the best known of American Socialists presents in a style which, though dry, is easy to understand, the forces that have made Socialists; their aims; the program of practical reform through legislation favored by the party; something of the accomplishments of international Socialism; and a short resume of its history in America. Socialism, as presented by Mr. Hillquit, is a purely political movement. The best presentation of its immediate aims and its methods of accomplishing them is given in the chapter entitled Political Program.

* * *

Mr. Benson's book, The Truth About Socialism, covers the same ground as Mr. Hillquit's and was written originally for *Pearson's Magazine*. It is more picturesque and readable in style, as Mr. Benson is magazine writer even before Socialist, and deals with the subject less methodically.

An introductory chapter covers the general principles of Socialism and succeeding chapters deal with the objections to Socialism. Further chapters take up its bearing on the vital questions of the day and contrast the radical and the Socialist plans of meeting these problems. As for

the practical method of attaining the industrial commonwealth, Mr. Benson appears to favor compensation for industries taken over by the government and the payment to employes in these industries of wages commensurate with their services.

Neither Mr. Hillquit's nor Mr. Benson's book are intended to cover the subject thoroughly or to do more than is the legitimate function of magazine articles—to arouse the reader's interest so that he will himself attempt to learn more.

* * *

Mr. Orth in Socialism and Democracy in Europe, has presented a good review of the accomplishments of international Socialism under the dominance of an opportunist parliamentarian policy. He has well presented the relations, conscious and unconscious, of the practical evolutionary Socialism of today with the radical or liberal movements of the various European countries. The mass of facts which he has gathered together into small compass bear careful study. They cover the development of radicalism, political Socialism and syndicalism in France; of the co-operative and political sides of the Belgian Socialist movement as well as their frequent use of the direct action of the general strike to gain political rights; the development of the German Socialist movement in the political field and the German trade union movement; and the history of the Independent Labor Party and of the liberalism of Lloyd-George in England.

Such a book as Mr. Orth's tends to confirm the more inflexible theorists of the class struggle in their contention that Socialism should, if it is to retain its separate existence as a revolutionary movement, be able to suggest the rough outlines of an industrial commonwealth of the future which shall be convincingly different from the bureaucratic "Socialistic" state toward which Mr. Orth evidently believes the Socialist and radical movements of the various European countries are moving. Constructive Socialism has, up to this time, meant the outlining of the successive steps in a program looking toward the Socialist state. Now that many of the "immediate demands" of Socialist platforms have been taken over by other parties, the next step for Socialists is to show what is the social structure toward which they are working.

* * *

In My Life, the first volume of his autobiography, August Bebel, the most prominent figure in the German Socialist movement, covers in Germany practically the same period that the first volume of H. M. Hyndman's reminiscences, reviewed on this page, covers in England. It stops in 1878 with the beginning of the persecution of Socialists and with reform legislation by the government, dictated by the ideas of the Socialist Lasalle and prompted partly by the fear of Socialism, then at their height.

Autobiography is not history, but it throws an invaluable sidelight on history. Supplemented by the compact review of the history of that period of German Socialism in Professor Orth's book. Bebel's life becomes absorbingly interesting. It tells of his own development, of his practical work in the non-Socialist German labor movement and of his conversion to Socialism. Last of all comes his subsequent part in the struggle between the opportunist Socialism of Lasalle and the revolutionary Socialism of Marx, ending in that compromise between the two wings in 1875 which made the modern German movement. Equally interesting is the story of the first acts of Bismarck's bitter persecution of Socialism, which had much to do with bringing these two wings together and which gave its greatest impetus to the growth of the party's membership in Germany.

Some of the details of the persecution are worth repeating. In 1878 two attempts were made on the emperor's life. Neither was by a Socialist but they were used, nevertheless, as an excuse for persecution. The first effort to suppress Socialism by legislation was a failure, but the government found other means of making it undesirable to belong to the party. Under laws of *lese majeste* and other laws, in the first half of 1878 the prison sentences of Socialists arrested in a certain section of North Germany amounted to 500 or 600 years. Bebel gives the following general account of conditions:

"Thousands and thousands of workers who were known to be Social Democrats were summarily dismissed. The newspapers published in their advertisement columns declarations signed by working-men who engaged themselves for the future not to join any Socialist organization, not to buy or read Social-Democratic papers, not to pay contributions for Social-Democratic purposes. This terrorism on the part of the employers became so violent that our papers advised members to sign anything they were asked to sign, but afterwards to do as they liked, because, in face of such terrorism, they were not bound to keep such pledges. This terrorism even went farther: patriotic houseowners gave notice to their Social-Democratic tenants, and restaurant-keepers who for years had been only too glad to have Social-Democrats for their customers asked them to keep off their premises."

The pre-Socialist period of Bebel's life is no less interesting than his part in the movement. His vivid account of the bitter poverty of his childhood—the days when his "highest ambition was to be able to eat his fill of bread and butter"—is almost enough to account for his subsequent development into a revolutionary Socialist. Throughout almost the whole period covered by this volume, indeed, Bebel combined a bitter struggle for the livelihood of his family with a keen and unrelenting fight to establish a state of society which should do away with poverty.

* * *

The second volume of the memoirs of that old warhorse of English Socialism, H. M. Hyndman, is as delightfully readable as was the first, published a year ago. It is not, like Bebel's life, an orderly record of his activities as a Socialist propagandist, for this is but one, though the most

important, side of Hyndman's life. From the time he lost his hereditary fortune because of his espousal of Socialism he has been a hard working but unfortunately not a very successful business man and at the same time an indefatigable Socialist agitator.

In his judgment of people and events he sometimes shows flashes of insight; though he is by no means judicial but always dogmatic, "opinionated," and not infrequently wrong-headed. In his facts, though he has a marvelous store of knowledge—frequently indeed, inside information—he is often inaccurate.

In no affairs but those of America, however, are his facts fundamentally wrong, and this complete and amusing ignorance of American affairs he shares with a large part of the English press. Of those few American Socialists whom he happens to know personally his characterizations are interesting. Among them is William D. Haywood, who in his opinion is the "most thorough-going and one of the most determined working-class leaders I have ever met, and I have come across a good many."

An illustration of Hyndman's tendency to be "opinionated" is his attitude toward the world-wide movement of which Haywood is the American representative. "Syndicalism," he says, "is scarcely worth criticizing," and his whole criticism of the philosophy of the new labor movement runs in this vein. Nevertheless, he is appreciative of the personality and influence of the leading exponent of syndicalism in England, Tom Mann, whom he regards "as the boldest, most vehement, and most stirring agitator and organiser" he has ever known.

In the great English strikes of the last two years Hyndman was evidently less impressed than most observers by the solidarity of the workers, and he even appears to criticize the democratic control of those strikes which was their other distinguishing characteristic. Perhaps this is because he himself has always been somewhat autocratic in his leadership of the Social-Democratic federation, and thus tends to regard leaders as unduly important.

Of late years Hyndman's name has been associated with his struggle, contrary to all Socialist precedent, for a large navy and a citizen army to handle a possible German attack on England. His defense of this stand, based largely on conditions existing at the time of the Franco-Prussian war, is not entirely convincing, especially in view of the aggressive action that the German Social Democracy has taken recently in preventing warlike preparations on the part of Germany. In this connection his appreciation of the leader of the German Social Democracy, who is the subject of the German autobiography just reviewed, is well worth quoting. "I have rarely met," he says of Bebel, "any one who had done so much to be proud of who was so simple and modest in his private conversation, or who took so little upon himself in his every-day intercourse with his fellows. His influence over his own party was obviously quite unbounded. The voluntary respect paid to Bebel was in fact a tribute paid through him to their own organization and themselves, of whom he was the acknowledged representative."

* * *

For the second time William English Walling has made a notable contribution to the literature of Socialism. In his earlier book, Socialism as It Is, he discussed the various and often contradictory lines of thought and policy which have crept in and divided the Socialist movement as organized in the political and economic fields. His contention there was that the struggle of Socialism today is not against capitalism but against bureaucratic State Socialism. Not the least important thing he attempts in the present volume, The Larger Aspects of Socialism, is to differentiate the philosophies underlying revolutionary Socialism and State Socialism.

This volume, like the earlier books, is not based so much on Mr. Walling's own interpretation of "all the great modern forces, thought, science, art, religion and humanity's conquest of the universe," as on quotations from recognized authorities on these subjects. Mr. Walling shows how all modern thought is tending toward a new philisophy of civilization, without which political and economic Socialism could never be attained. Socialism: a New Civilization is his subject. Throughout all aspects of this subject he identifies the pragmatic philosophy with Socialism. This identification he supports by quotations not only from pragmatic but from the writings of the fathers of Socialism. Briefly stated, this philosophy holds man to be, for human purposes, not for purposes of abstract thought, the centre of the universe. Society in its view is meant for the protection of man, so that each individual shall be enabled not to "serve the state"—this is the State Socialist philosophy—but to be free and to reach his own fullest development. The various aspects of this idea Mr. Walling considers under the headings science, evolution, biology, morality and various aspects of sex. What he regards as the chief reactionary influences of the present civilization he considers in chapters on religion, education and the abuse of history, and he brings out strongly the charge that the class education of the present day is the greatest of impediments to the new civilization, and that the invasion of education—that is, the invasion of the minds of the mass of the people—by the new ideas is necessary before Socialism can prevail.

With the dominance of this new philosophy in all lines of human thought Mr. Walling believes that for the first time human society, bent upon the perfection of the individual, will be guided by other than involuntary forces. It will be determined not by natural forces or by the brute force of class rule, but by the creative intelligence of humanity exercised on environment purposefully for the good of its members. "With socialism," he quotes Marx as saying, "real history begins." For its contribution of a new social philosophy he holds Socialism, not as it is generally regarded, constructive of the future on the foundation of the past, but rather creative of a future society which has nothing in common with the past.

MARY BROWN SUMNER.

A SUNNY LIFE: THE BIOGRAPHY OF SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS

By Isabel C. Barrows Little, Brown & Co. 323 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.62.

This is the story of a rarely beautiful and many-sided life. It shows us the little boy becoming a wage-earner at eight to help his widowed mother; joining the church at fifteen and doing volunteer religious work among the sailors on the docks, who mounted the boy on a barrel to talk to them, and loved "the little barrel preacher"; becoming one of New York's best short-hand reporters; at twenty-one taking the city editor's place on the *Tribune* during the regular editor's vacation; marrying at twenty-two; coming in close touch with great issues at the national capital as private secretary to William H. Seward, secretary of state; earning his way through the Harvard theological school by adventurous trips with General Custer and others as correspondent for the New York *Tribune;* pastor for four years of the historic First Congregational (Unitarian) Church of Dorchester, Mass.; editor for sixteen years of the *Christian Register;* congressman for one term, full of manifold service; finally secretary, for ten years, of the New York Prison Association, a leading penologist, securing important improvements in the laws, and doing more than any other one man toward changing American prisons from brutalizing dungeons to great reformatories.

The story of his life is vividly and lovingly told by the gifted wife who was the close associate of his labors for forty-three years. The book includes also extracts from his writings and letters; hymns that he composed, words and music; and a number of memorial tributes. It is enriched with sixteen photographs. This intimate narrative will have deep interest for all who knew and loved Mr. Barrows.

Mr. Barrows fought many good fights, but kept his sweetness and serenity through all. As Rabbi Wise said of him: "He was no man's foe, but always the foe of wrong." His legislative successes were won by hard, clean work.

"An acquaintance said to him, 'Mr. Barrows, if you want to get that [probation] bill made into a law, you will have to put your temperance scruples into your pocket and give the newspaper men a champagne supper.' . . . That was not the method of this hard-working total abstainer. Instead, he made eleven trips to the capital that winter, interviewed personally every member of the committees having the bill in charge, convinced each one individually of its importance, converted the governor, wrote editorials week after week for the leading papers in New York, and so directed public intelligence and sympathy that the bill was passed without a dissenting vote." He was wise enough to see that "the forces which develop virtue are more potent in reducing crime than the forces which suppress vice."

He had a singular catholicity. As national prison commissioner, as representative of the United States at the International Prison Congress and the Interparliamentary Union for Arbitration, as a student of foreign prisons and an attendant at many national and international gatherings, he traveled widely and met all sorts and conditions of men, and he met them all on the same simple human footing, from a king or president down to the street gamins to whom he taught new games of jackstones while waiting for a belated car. He had friends of all nationalities, and carried a brotherly heart toward all races and colors. He knew a dozen languages, and kept on learning fresh ones after he was sixty.

He was many-sided, not only in his accomplishments, but in his devotion to good causes—peace, equal suffrage, temperance, social purity, kindness to animals, and justice for the Indian, the Negro, the persecuted Armenian, the Russian struggling for freedom. Full of talent, he "never had time to make money"; and he was fortunate in having a wife as variously gifted and unconventional as himself—one who could aid him in every way, from making a complete suit of clothes for him when he was a poor theological student, or carpentering a drawer to hold his music, to taking his place at the editorial desk in his absence, and going, after his death, to Paris as the representative of the United States government to explain his plans for the great International Prison Congress of which he was the president-elect. Never a rich man, he always led a rich life; and this record of it will go on helping humanity long after he has passed away from earth.

Alice Stone Blackwell.

COMMUNICATIONS

WHO?

To the Editor:

(On seeing the White Slave by Abastenia St. Leger Eberle.)

This is the man that sells women's souls into hell fire. Who is the buyer?

Louise W. Kneeland.

THE WHITE SLAVE

[Concerning the reproduction, on the cover of the May magazine number of The Survey, *of Miss Eberle's sculpture of that name.]*

To the Editor:

I have to ask that you will remove my name and cancel my subscription to your publication, The Survey.

I was educated as an artist; have studied from the nude under Bonnat in Paris, and am by no means "squeamish;" but I am altogether unwilling to expose myself to the risk of having any such picture as appears upon the cover of The Survey for the week of May 3 sent into my home at the risk of its being seen by my four sons, the eldest of whom is a Methodist clergymen, and the three others of whom are under age.

I saw the statue of "a Gorilla carrying off a woman," when it was first exhibited and much criticized, even at the time, in Paris—when it was first exhibited in the Paris salon.

The "idea" of this cover is, evidently, taken from that statue, but for offensiveness this goes it 500 per cent better.

Woodbury G. Langdon.

Morristown, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR:

As a subscriber and one who highly appreciates the work of THE SURVEY, permit me to express my surprise and criticism on the lack of good judgment and good taste that permitted the design on the cover of the number just out, May 3. In my opinion, the aims and purposes of such a magazine as THE SURVEY in endeavoring to meet and counteract the evils of the day are not furthered by such sensational eye pictures as this, and moreover, it has the characteristics of brutality and indecency, I am sure, from the point of view of a large number of your readers, and might have the result of lessening their opinion of your good judgment and taste in your manner of approaching this subject and others you are dealing with. I will offer no excuse for thus expressing my opinion sincerely, as I will assume that you desire to have such from your subscribers and readers.

J. B. NOEL WYATT.

Baltimore.

TO THE EDITOR:

In addition to an unusually valuable list of articles, permit me to thank you for the cover of the issue of May 3. The picture is profoundly educational, and those who have had some dealing at close quarters see in this picture of the White Slave a finished sermon on the subject.

RUDOLPH I. COFFEE.

[Member Pittsburgh Morals Commission and Rabbi.]

Pittsburgh.

TO THE EDITOR:

For the enclosed, please send me a copy of your issue of May 3, with the White Slave picture on cover.

Allow me to congratulate you for giving that group just the prominent place you did.

[REV.] ELIOT WHITE.

Rahway, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR:

As a regular subscriber, reader and admirer of your magazine and its valued work, I must earnestly protest against the outside cover of your May 3 issue. With several boys in my family, the only way I could lay the issue on my library table was *after* tearing off the cover, which is certainly glaringly offensive. We oppose (or should do so) indecent bill-board, newspaper advertising, etc., and therefore should not offend ourselves, *no matter what the motive.* Trust thee will be guarded for the future.

WILLIAM HAGER.

Lancaster, Pa.

TO THE EDITOR:

As friends of THE SURVEY and of what it stands for, allow us to write our protest against placing such a subject as the White Slave on the outside cover of your issue of May 3, Vol. XXX, No. 5.

The publication of such a subject, treated in a sensational way with a conspicuous background, on the cover of any magazine seems to us ill-advised, and especially so on one which finds its way into private houses where decency and modesty are inculcated.

As your paper is to a certain degree technical, intended to be read chiefly by social workers who are cognizant of these conditions, the *inside* of its covers is excusable, but its *outside,* open to the observation of all, young and old, should to our minds be severely censured.

Please bring up this matter before your board of Survey Associates.

L. E. OPDYCKE and
EDITH OPDYCKE.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

Thank you for the frontispiece on THE SURVEY of May 3. The beast carrying the woman did effective service in the Atlanta campaign, but this picture of a low human brute hawking into slavery a poor little immature girl will, I believe, be yet more effective in rousing the sluggish consciences of our American people. If it is art to use the pencil or the graver's tool to portray sin in such a manner as to apply the lash to conscience, then I prefer this, under the existing dreadful conditions of tolerance of vice, to the Venus de Milo, and I thank the courageous artist who so consecrates her talents to the highest possible service of humanity.

A picture of this kind will do more to instruct my daughters and my sons as to the dangers which surround them and their obligations to help the down-trodden daughters of the poor than many arguments. Thank God we have brought these reptiles out into the open where we can handle them with due violence, and we can now place the responsibility where it belongs —on our churches.

Can you loan me the original to make a lantern slide to use in my public talks on vice?

HOWARD A. KELLY, M. D.

Baltimore.

TO THE EDITOR:

I cannot forbear making a protest against the horrible and suggestive picture, which you have printed on the cover of your issue of May 3, Vol. XXX, No. 5. It is a picture calculated to suggest ideas which the whole country nowadays is trying to suppress. Teaching young people the facts of life is one thing—doubtless necessary. Making public the fact that there are people wicked enough to pander to vicious men is also, I am sure, necessary for efforts to suppress this traffic; but it is very demoralizing to send out broadcast and publicly such pictures as this. It shows that the familiar speaking and writing of this white slave—so called—traffic has blunted the judgment as to fitness and decency that this picture is displayed in this public way.

Miss Robins' book, My Little Sister, is a true picture doubtless. She seems to affirm so with great confidence, but it will do more harm than good I fear in arousing evil thoughts and an unwholesome curiosity in the minds of young people in whose hands it falls. Published first in

a reputable magazine, and then hawked about in trains, etc., recommended in your magazine, which claims to be devoted to the improvement of morals, it will do a great deal of harm. At the rate you are going on in freedom of speech and discussion of filth which should not even be named when young and inexperienced people can hear, you will soon be advising a moving picture of what goes on in the dens of vice in order to teach young people what they should *not* do. . . . This artist must have allowed her imagination to go deep into the haunts of vice before she made this statue.—— ——

Newport, R. I.

To the Editor:

I do wish to express my extreme regret that you should have made public such a picture as appears on the cover of your issue of May 3. It ought never in my opinion to have been allowed to pass through the mail.

The readers of The Survey do not need any such reminder of the horrors of the white slave traffic, and to others, especially to young people and indifferent persons who are likely to pick up the magazine at random, such a picture with its unmistakable suggestions cannot fail to be demoralizing.

I find that other readers of The Survey here hold the same opinion.—— ——

Newport, R. I.

To the Editor:

As a subscriber to The Survey and as one who has always tried to further its influence and increase its circulation, I beg to gravely remonstrate against your cover design of the issue of May 3.

Had you seen fit to place this most loathsome picture within the pages of your magazine, it would possibly have served a sufficient purpose, but to place it where it cannot fail to be seen by innocent children makes this issue unfit to appear in any home and appears to be, therefore, not only an instance of bad taste, but of bad morals.

Such lurid and outrageous efforts to excite the hysterical side of public opinion, pitifully defeat their aims and appear to be most unworthy of The Survey's standards.

Lucia H. K. Sherman.

San Francisco.

To the Editor:

Kindly send to us C. O. D., twenty-five copies of The Survey, cover page of which contains the cut of a figure portraying the white slave traffic. The date and number cannot be furnished as the magazine has been loaned and we do not know to whom it was given.

We hope to secure, from the distribution of this issue among the ladies who are interested in social service, quite a number of subscriptions.

John L. Green.

[Superintendent Mississippi Children's Home Society.]

Jackson, Miss.

One or two of these protests are so unrestrained that the temptation is strong to reply without mincing matters. Others are so moderate that they must provoke the respect of people who hold different opinions. In the same way we trust that those who break with the editor of The Survey on the reproduction of Miss Eberle's statue, or on its use as a cover, will regard that use as a considered act.

Unquestionably there is a cleavage of judgment in the matter of public education as to the social evil and its prevention. It is not The Survey's purpose to overemphasize the vice situation. But it is a part of our regular service in the field of preventive social measures to keep our readers thoroughly alive to the movements to protect girls and boys from ruin and disease, for that, as we see it, is of the very essence of the present discussion of commercialized prostitution.

In Miss Eberle's statuette, the White Slave, and in Elizabeth Robins' book, My Little Sister, art and literature have this spring added fire and conviction to the abolition movement against prostitution—that "twin of slavery, as old and outrageous as slavery itself and even more persistent," to use Miss Addams' phrase.

So we printed a photograph of the White Slave on our cover as a challenge to public conscience searching. And we printed a review of My Little Sister, in which Mrs. Laidlaw brought out the American aspects of the story of the sheltered little English girl who was kidnapped.

In the same issue was a ringing report of how the newly enfranchised women of San Francisco forced a reluctant Legislature to pass a bill which will close the notorious "red light district." More than that, these women of the California Civic League and the Women's Christian Temperance Union are caring for the helpless girls thrown out of the segregated district, befriending them and putting them on their feet again. It was the kind of story that led a subscriber to write the other day: "Every time I read an issue of The Survey I feel like getting right up and *doing* something worth while for somebody."

On another page, A. Leo Weil, the militant president of the Pittsburgh Voters League, entered a plea for a special body of men in every city to deal with vice. And a physician in a New York village told how the local doctors, aghast at the amount of social disease among the young people of their little community—their own sons among the rest—banded together to wipe it out.

Up to the time of going to press it had been expected that Mr. Kneeland's incisive analysis of commercialized prostitution in New York, made for the Bureau of Social Hygiene, would have been released by the Century Company by May 3, so that his findings could be added to this group of articles.[1] All this was in The Survey's spirit of facing hard facts for the sake of the future, and in line with its editorial policy with respect to this special subject: i.e. of banking up material rather than stringing it along.

[1]See Rockefeller Report on Commercialized Vice. The Survey, May 24, p. 257.

Here, then, in a field to which THE SURVEY bears special obligation, at a time when we were handling a group of articles interpretative of that obligation, was a piece of sculpture with the same message—with a thought-compelling quality which "linked it as a social force," as Miss Merriman rightly pointed out, "with, say, the dispassionate but terrible report of the Chicago Vice Commission."

Of course, the strength in such a challenge to public conscience-searching lies in its exceptionalness—repetition would dull its edge. There is no prospect of another such cover in the months ahead; we know of no "sermon in stone" of like calibre. For the same reason, when such an exceptional work does appear, our course is clear: we should bring it out.

Those moralists who feel that the work was suggestive read into it something which is not there. It is not unclean.

Those artists who have criticised the group on the ground that the woman's figure alone should have been done—that, in other words, the sculptor should have abstracted all the pathos and beauty possible from the situation, but not the horror—miss its social message.

Those parents who protest against it as opening a dark world to sheltered members of their households must make the same protest against the sermon which would do more than skim the surface of the moral needs of a community; against the general periodical which would broach these things in ways specific enough to be helpful; against the play like Damaged Goods, which puts the consequences of evil living in human terms; for in all these audiences are there likely to be young people. And after all, in all these fields, we are not at this stage faced with the choice between home education and public education, but of rousing the home.

While the leaders in sex hygiene are bound to have a difficult task on their hands in restraining unscientific and slap-dash agencies who assume to give public instruction, the fact remains that the larger and most difficult task of those leaders is still that of arousing the public, a general and wide-spread process of education both as to the things that should be known and as to the need for knowing them. The reason for this is that the old policies of reticence have failed—failed so far that not only has America contributed nothing to the solution of a world-old problem, but has imported new commercialized phases of it and let them become rampant, to bring destruction and disease to thousands.

At such a juncture THE SURVEY must give respectful hearing to those whose outlook is personal, but must draw its counsels rather from those who bring larger measure of social experience to the question—from superintendents of orphanages,[1] who know what the old policies of ignorance have cost in the lives of boys and girls; from neurologists, who see the after consequences of that same ignorance; from reformatory heads; from educators; from physicians.

Without the fact of commercialized vice such a searching piece of work as Miss Eberle's would lack truth; without the added fact that such vice exists, not merely because of the greed and lust of men, but because of the inertia, the reticence, the acceptance of things as they are by people who, if they aroused themselves, could put an end to it, it would lack occasion.

If such conditions exist, then it has blazing truth and insistent occasion and like Nast's cartoons it may well be looked back upon as a crashing social force breaking through the crusts of toleration and neglect.

If such conditions exist—if they exist because the public does not know, or knowing, does not act; if the public's ignorance or inaction is due in whole or in part to the benumbing effects of these same policies on journalism, on the church, and on the other channels of enlightenment—then it is the part of THE SURVEY of all journals, standing as it does midway between the doctor, the social investigator, the criminologist and the general public, to bring out the truth and to bring it out in ways that will strike fire.

If under such promptings THE SURVEY uses the White Slave, then it should use it in such a way as to cleave through to the widest circle of its audience. Hence the cover. Probably in all his long pastorate, Henry Ward Beecher was never more criticized than when he emphasized the auction of two fugitive slave girls at the Broadway Tabernacle. Those who in his day were shocked at what they felt to be sensationalism and the desecration of God's temple have given way in the passage of time to those who see that the desecration was mankind's in the toleration of slavery itself.

Dr. Abbott in his life of Beecher says:

"He believed that thousands who would regard with apathy if not complacency the slave system at a distance, would regard with abhorrence the reform of an individual slave girl to a life of enforced sin and shame. . . .

"He said: 'The very men who give counsel and zeal and money *against* the unseen slave of the South irresistibly pity the particular fugitive whom they may *see* running through the North.'

"Had he been inclined to defend his method from those who criticized it as sensational, he might have referred them to the methods used by the Hebrew prophets, who taught so often and so effectually by dramatic object-lessons."

New times bring new needs.

Miss Eberle has modeled the auction block of a new slavery.

In the Brooklyn *Eagle* of April 21 appeared a powerful sermon by Dr. Hillis from Dr. Beecher's old pulpit on social diseases and heredity, in which such strong language as the following was used in speaking of the "conspiracy of silence": "It is a guilty, cruel, dastardly, damnable silence on the part of preacher, teacher and parent."—Ed.

[1]See Post-graduates of the Hired Man, by R. R. Reeder, superintendent of New York Orphanage, Hastings on Hudson, who is the educator and foster father to 250 boys and girls. THE SURVEY, March 8, p. 816.

THE PATERSON STRIKE

To the Editor:

For a number of years I have been a reader and subscriber of The Survey and it both shocks and pains me to find that The Survey has apparently taken a biased view of the strike here in Paterson. I understand that several Survey investigators have been to Paterson before preparing the news items on pages 81-82 and 83 in your issue of April 19. These investigators did not call upon those in our city to whom it seems to me they should naturally have turned, the Charity Organization Society. If they had, they would not have made some of the glaring and ill-advised statements contained in your editorial.

They would have been better posted as to the type of looms which they have called multiple or automatic looms throughout the article. Both names so far as applied to silk are erroneous. All broad silk looms with few exceptions are supplied with either side or center filling stop motions. This stops the loom when the thread in the shuttle breaks. This has been common for years and does not constitute an automatic loom. Some looms have been equipped with warp stop motions, stopping the loom when a warp end breaks. This does not constitute an automatic loom. An automatic loom is one in which either the shuttle, which has already been filled with new thread, or quill or bobbin changes automatically. It would also very likely be equipped with both warp and filling stop motions. Such looms as last mentioned have never proven satisfactory on silk.

In the article you make certain statements but have not made them clearly. As your paper is read by many charitable and philanthropic people, it is hardly fair to the charitable and philanthropic people of Paterson to have such statements as you have made concerning Paterson go forth to the world without objections on our part. You have not made clear the meaning of the three and four loom system. The word system, as used here, has an arbitrary meaning and means one weaver to three or four looms. You state that Paterson is "importing" the four loom system. This is not true because there is nothing to import.

You further made a statement that competition between Pennsylvania and New Jersey is over. This is not so, it is just as keen today as ever. You further make a statement that great factories are equipped with automatic looms in Pennsylvania, four of these looms being operated by one boy or girl.[1] Can you name a single mill where this is so? I have been fifteen years calling on the silk mills and I have yet to learn of an automatic loom being used to weave silk or where four looms are operated by a boy or girl. You further make a statement that weavers are required to tend three looms. I think this is wrong. There is no question but that they could operate three to four looms of their own free will, but there is no compulsion about it.[2]

In quoting from the *Paterson Evening News* you infer that an additional strain is placed on a weaver in taking care of three or four looms. If this is so, it remains to be proven. I have talked about this with a number of weavers and they state that they have not noticed this fact, if it is one. You further imply that it will change the character of work in Paterson if the three and four loom system is put in operation. I think this is a mis-apprehension because only about 40 per cent of the looms of Paterson, of which there are about 16,000 would be affected in any way by this so-called three and four loom system. As you quoted, in a statement made by the silk manufacturers, only a percentage of these would be affected because many plain looms have jacquards mounted over them and the manufacturers have never attempted to run more than two looms of this nature to one weaver, nor does the so-called three and four loom system reduce the wages. I know of one mill in this town that is in operation today despite the fact of the strike where sixteen looms are being operated by three weavers. One of these weavers in this particular mill has been operating four looms since last October and her earnings have averaged over $75 every two weeks.

Further along you say the multiple looms are large and equipped with automatic devices and can only be installed in large mills. This is absolutely incorrect. There is nothing to prevent a small mill from using any loom that is now manufactured. The smaller mill, in only a few cases, has so far taken over jacquard weaving which is the most intricate of all the weaving, and requires the most skill, and as intimated, is largely confined to the large factories. The smaller mills are mostly equipped with plain looms. Quite a few of these are mills running three to four looms to a weaver.

In making your contrast of the average wages paid in Paterson and the average paid in Pennsylvania, have you been fair? According to the reports which I have, the weavers of Paterson earn on an average about $12.55 a week and I am afraid in taking your Pennsylvania average you included all classes of textile workers, including the very low paid help in throwing mills, so cutting the average Pennsylvania wage down.[3]

The employers have not refused to confer with their employes except that they have rightly refused to treat with the Industrial Workers of the World agitators towards this settlement. You have not made clear the doctrines or propaganda of the Industrial Workers of the World whom you have called Industrial Socialists. The Socialists as you know have repudiated Haywood. Your statements in regard to the arrest of William D. Haywood and his subsequent release when arrested on March 30 are correct. I sincerely hope that you will immediately send other investigators to Paterson who will call on the Charity Organization Society and the ministers who formed the committee invited to the aldermanic meeting, Rev. A. H. Stein, Rev. D. S. Hamilton, Rev. W. C. Snodgrass, Rev. J. F. Shaw and Dr. Jones. I would also suggest some of the business men of the town whose stores you could enter along Main street or Market

[1] See Note A below.
[2] See Note B below.
[3] See Note C below.

street. I would suggest William Wieda; John C. Mason, Quackenbush & Co.; A. P. Van Saun, Van Dyk Furniture Co.; Ex-Judge Francis Scott; Ex-Judge James Inglis; John W. Ferguson; H. H. Parmelee; Hamilton Trust Co.; Edward T. Bell, First National Bank; and Wm. H. Blauvelt, Second National Bank.

I would suggest that you call attention to the articles in The Survey of May 4, 1912 and April 6, 1912 telling about the Industrial Workers of the World. I am also enclosing an article written by Lincoln Steffens in the Globe and Commercial Advertiser of March 29, 1912.

Will you kindly publish this letter in fairness not only to Paterson but to the "things" The Survey stands for, as your news items contain so many technical errors which have a vital bearing to a certain extent on this strike?

W. L. Kinkead.

[Secretary Central Charities Committee.]
Paterson, N. J.

[The Survey is more than willing to accept Mr. Kinkead's corrections as to looms and textile processes, for his business is mill machinery. It does not quite agree with him, however, as to the importance of the matter, since the technical terms were incidental merely to the subject of the strike.

Three points in Mr. Kinkead's letter should perhaps be footnoted:

A. The three and four loom systems are now in use in Pennsylvania. The federal report on the Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, says: "In Pennsylvania, where the broad silks manufactured are of the plainer grades, not requiring the skill, efficiency and attention given to the higher grades made in Paterson, woman and child weavers have the field practically to themselves."

B. Mr. Kinkead would certainly not wish to maintain that, when the change is made from a two to a four loom system, the earnings of weavers, who preferred to stick to two looms, would not be cut. If you cut a chair caner's wage from ten to eight cents a chair, there is no compulsion for him to make more chairs than before; but he does if he has a family hanging on his earnings. The silk manufacturer who, when he makes the change, pays a weaver more than before if he will work four looms instead of two, and less than before if he continues to work two is merely dodging if he claims there is no compulsion about it.

C. A more accurate analysis of the government figures would give the average wage of Paterson weavers as $11.80 instead of $11.69; that of the Pennsylvania weavers as $6.99 instead of $6.56. The error that Mr. Kinkead suggests was, however, not made.

As a matter of fact, such a staff inquiry as Mr. Kinkead suggests has been in progress and in the June magazine number The Survey will publish an article by John A. Fitch.—Ed.]

JOTTINGS

DRAMATIZING THE PATERSON STRIKE

Seizing on the suggestion that some master of pageantry ought to give symbolic expression to the mass strike, a leader of the Paterson strike proposed that the silk workers should themselves present to the public the meaning of its chief incidents. Within a few days Madison Square Garden had been rented for June 7, and large committees, composed in no small degree of volunteers from the 10,000 silk strikers in New York city, were at work on the details of the arrangements.

A pageant of six episodes has been planned by John Reed, a magazine writer who was himself arrested on the Paterson picket line a few weeks ago.

The episodes, as interpreted by the pageant committee, divide themselves into two groups: the one representing the struggle of the strikers against economic and legal tyranny; the other, the democratic government of the strike by the workers.

Brief titles of the episodes are: The Mills Alive—The People Dead—The Strike; The Mills Dead—The People Alive—The Picket Line and Arrests; Forty Pickets before an Irresponsible Judge; The Strike Victim's Funeral; The Striking Mothers Send their Children to Strike Mothers in New York; The Legislature of the Strikers in Helvetia Hall Passes the Eight Hour Law. The strike leaders, in this last scene, will give propaganda speeches addressed to the audience. Their speeches are to be the only monologues in the performance.

A thousand strikers will march from Paterson to New York to take part in the pageant. The music will be furnished by their mass singing and by their bands which now play at all large strike meetings. Both the actors and singers are being trained by John Reed.

CITY FATHERS TO FOREGATHER

At Binghamton on June 5-7 the mayors and other municipal officials of New York state are to hold their fourth annual conference. Each of the forty-eight mayors is to tell in five minutes what is the greatest problem of his city.

VACANT LOT GARDENING IN TORONTO

Toronto has joined the ranks of the cities in which there is an active vacant lot gardening movement. Over thirty parcels of vacant land in the business section of the city have been loaned to the Playgrounds Association and prepared for gardening by the Plowmen's Association of York Township.

Early in this month the actual tilling began and the start of the new venture was celebrated by a dinner to the plowmen on the evening of that day. Seeds and implements have been promised so that the children will have everything necessary for successful gardening.

VOLUME XXX, No. 10 WEEK OF JUNE 7, 1913

THE SURVEY

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No. III

REAL BALLOT REFORM AT LAST

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THE COMMON WELFARE

REFORMATORY INMATES SAVED TOWN FROM FLOOD

Baked chicken, sage dressing, giblet gravy, candied sweet potatoes, ice cream, assorted cakes, oranges, candy, apples, cheese and crackers, coffee—so ran the menu. Yet the occasion had nothing to do with launching a political boom nor with eulogizing a patriotic citizen for some public-spirited act. It was an entertainment and dinner given by the citizens of Jeffersonville, Ind., to the inmates of the Indiana Reformatory "in appreciation of the services rendered in preventing the inundation of their city by the flood." In return, the military band of the reformatory gave a concert to the citizens.

Perhaps no more significant scene was enacted during the recent flood in Ohio, Indiana, and neighboring states than that of from fifty to 200 inmates of this reformatory working day and night, under conditions that permitted of escape, to prevent the surging Ohio River from breaking through a railroad embankment. Had the embankment broken, the streets in the business and residential quarters would have been flooded from two to ten feet deep. But the fight was won by the lads from the reformatory and the grateful citizens responded with such a dinner as the institution had never seen. Incidentally the episode gave a hint as to how far convicted law-breakers can be trusted at large especially in times of public crisis.

The story of how the reformatory inmates working in relays, toiled away for a whole week at the task of strengthening the "fill," at one time in utter darkness, yet without attempt to escape, is here told for THE SURVEY by David C. Peyton, general superintendent of the reformatory. Major Peyton was for much of the time in personal command of the operations.

"It was on March 29 that I was appealed to by the mayor of Jeffersonville, who stated that a large section of the government levee was not high enough to protect the city if the water continued to rise. I marched sixty-eight reformatory inmates to the upper portion of the city, practically as free citizens, after a short talk appealing to their better manhood and their sense of right and duty. They loaded hundreds of wagons with clay and other material, which was hauled to the government levee. On Sunday, March 30, I had another large force at work in a similar way, and a squad of twenty of my men were set to work on that portion of the levee known as Cherry Alley, which is the Negro red light district of this city.

"Late Sunday afternoon I heard reports that the railroad fill was in a dangerous condition. By this time, there was great excitement among the residents, who remembered the damage which the city had suffered from floods in 1883 and 1884, from which it took Jeffersonville years to recover. They recalled also how, in 1907, this same railroad fill had almost given way before the rising Ohio.

"With this flood history running in our minds, J. A. Carter, chief engineer of the reformatory, and I made a careful examination Sunday afternoon and found that the water was several feet above the level of the old and more substantial fill and was therefore pressing hard on the new upper portion. In hundreds of places, the water was running through in small streams. The Pennsylvania Railroad was still running trains on half-hour schedules over the double tracks which traversed this fill. Mr. Carter decided that the fill would not hold twenty-four hours longer, especially if the railroad company continued to run trains over it.

"That night trains were stopped, but on Monday morning the company again began to run trains over the fill and a section about 100 feet long gave way as far as the middle of the outer track. Within thirty minutes I had seventy-five men on the fill. I called upon the aid and advice of the United States government depot quartermaster here and his chief engineer. It was the unanimous opinion of our engineers that it would require a great deal of hard, well-directed work to save the fill and we were furnished a large number of tarpaulins from the quartermaster's depot. These we began to place as a protection on the side of the embankment exposed to the water pres-



BUTTRESSING THE LEVEE

By throwing in bags of cement and sand practically a new embankment was built.



SAVING THE RAILROAD FILL

This fill protected the town. Tarpaulins were first spread on the side exposed to the water. Then the inmates threw in bags of sand.

sure. Large bags of sand were tied to each of the lower corners and the center of each tarpaulin and thrown well out into the water, so as to carry the end of the tarpaulin well over the embankment. This was to prevent further leakage through the fill.

"Bags of sand and of cement were thrown in until a veritable new fill or embankment was built in the water. Before we could build this tarpaulin protection and new embankment the entire distance of the first slide, a second of more than 150 feet took place. Work on this slide carried us into the night. Late in the afternoon, I had sent in the first lot of inmates and had taken on approximately 150 fresh men. These worked all night. In the afternoon the city strung a line of incandescent lights along the fill in order that our men might be able to see at night. As a precaution, I had also run a line for quite a distance from the reformatory to the immediate vicinity, as it was known that the city lights were liable to be flooded.

"With my 150 inmates scattered over a wide range of territory at nine o'clock Monday night, the city lights went out but every man continued to work as best he could until our own lights could be put in operation. This took half an hour, at the end of which I did not deem it necessary to line up our men and make a count because I felt sure of the situation.

"Our men continued to work through the night, and immediately after an early breakfast Tuesday morning, 200 fresh men were brought from the reformatory. This relaying of squads was continued day and night until April 5. Again on Tuesday afternoon a slide of over 250 feet took place and the water poured through. The vibration following this slide was so great that it seemed nothing could prevent complete destruction. It had occurred to me a short time before this to call out the reformatory band of forty pieces to furnish music and encourage the inmates during their hard work in the midst of great danger. Accordingly, fifteen minutes after this last slide, the band marched out on the fill and began to play a lively air. You never saw men march up and face real danger any better than did every one of those inmates.

"I happened to be in personal command of our men at the time of these two slides. Although others ran from the fill, believing that it was lost, not an officer or inmate of Indiana Reformatory ceased to work. The last slide carried away two telephone poles connecting the main cable with the city proper, and it seemed that all connection with the city would be snapped off. The telephone repair men who were at the other end of the fill refused to make the necessary repairs on account of the danger. I called for a half dozen or more volunteers from among our inmates, to go below on the lower side of the embankment and save this telephone cable. Immediately twenty-five or thirty men stepped forward, ready for the task. I assured them that I would stand guard personally and give all the warning possible in case of further evidence of a final break. They leaped overboard and never stopped until, at the end of two hours, they had completed the repairs.

"We continued the use of tarpaulins, sand bags and bags of cement until we had covered the entire water side of the embankment from one end to the other and had placed hundreds of thousands of bags of sand and cement. On Wednesday night we had a local cyclone with a terrific downpour of rain, but our inmates and officers did not cease working.

"From time to time, members of the non-commissioned officers among the inmates of the Military Department were doing picket duty, examining every inch of the fill day and night. Large numbers of our men were scattered up and down the railroad and a gravel road, digging and filling bags with sand and gravel, while others were hauling and throwing the bags. Trains were pulling in and out at each end of the fill day and night, and a great number of colored men employed by the railroad company mingled and inter-mixed with our inmates until it was impossible to keep track of the individual inmate. The men were entirely upon their honor.

"My associates and I went from place to place, encouraging the men and expressing our confidence in their faithfulness. I have never seen better evidence of the qualities which make for good citizenship than that displayed by these men during the trying days and nights of dangerous work. One night we had 198 inmates out at one time. In the day time, the number sometimes ran above 200. Every day many of the men who had been on duty all day long would ask me to let them continue through the night. This was true also of the night crews. In many instances, men stayed on duty twenty-four hours. Not one man made an escape, nor was there a single attempt to do so."

For the banquet given to the inmates in appreciation of their services, nearly $1,000 was raised in a few hours. Bankers, lawyers, physicians, business men and citizens generally joined in it. The women of the city contributed more than 300 "homemade cakes."

After it was all over, the inmates started to raise $100 to make Major Peyton a present. It was pointed out to them that their families needed and were entitled to whatever surplus money they had, and that a present from them to the general superintendent might be misunderstood on the outside. The form of their appreciation of the opportunity which had been vouchsafed them was then changed to a set of resolutions, the signatures to which made a double column twenty-one feet long. In these resolutions, each man signified his intention "to put forth his best efforts to maintain a clear record during his stay and to support the administration with splendid efforts for the best interests of the institution."

THE WAR ON OPIUM

Secretary of State Bryan recently recommended the immediate appropriation by Congress of $20,000 to enable this government to meet the expenses of its efforts to stamp out the opium evil. Unless Congress complies with the request of the administration, the United States will not be represented at the final opium conference at The Hague. In his statement to the President Mr. Bryan thus expressed the situation:

"I regret, however, that there is one feature of the international and national effort for the suppression of the opium evil that should be disquieting to the government and people of the United States. It has been stated that a reflex effect of the initiation by the United States of the international movement for the abatement of the opium evil took the form of improved domestic legislation in nearly all countries concerned, and of very drastic legislation in some. Yet, despite this, this government since February, 1909—the time of the passage of the federal opium exclusion act—has taken no further definitive action for federal control of the opium and allied traffics in the United States. The passage of the opium exclusion act was the first step which the Congress took to put our own house in order. There were three bills introduced in the last Congress which aim to supplement and perfect that act. I understand they are to be introduced in the early days of the present session and will be pressed to enactment, thus placing this government in a rightful position before the world. This is greatly to be desired."

In urging the necessity of action upon Congress, President Wilson disregarded his own previous statement that he would urge no legislation but the tariff and currency at the present session when he said:

"I therefore trust that there may be no delay in the enactment of the desired legislation, and the consequent mitigation if not suppression of the vice which has caused such world-wide misery and degradation."



THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE

THOMAS M. OSBORNE HEADS PRISON LABOR COMMITTEE

Thomas Mott Osborne, by becoming chairman of the National Committee on Prison Labor, adds to that association the advantage of years of experience in institutional problems and penal reform. A bill seeking national incorporation for the committee, which is now incorporated under the laws of New York state, has just been introduced into Congress by Senator O'Gorman. Mr. Osborne's first task will be to work for the passage of this measure, which is expected to add force and sweep to the propagandist work of the organization.

The committee was formed in 1910 and a book based on its findings, called Penal Servitude, has been prepared by E. Stagg Whitin, chairman of the executive committee.

Mr. Osborne is well known as an aggressive fighter against political corruption. He has been the friend of the boys of the George Junior Republic, over which he has been the supreme court, and has been active also in trying to secure honest prison administration in New York state.

Seven years ago Mr. Osborne formulated the principles of prison reform in words to which many practical penologists took exception. His

position is much more commonly held now than it was then and is, in fact, the basis of action for the reorganized committee which he is to head. At that time he declared that prisoners ought to have "liberty to remain idle if they so choose," but that they should be taught to prefer labor to idleness. He enforced the opinion thus:

"At the basis of our social structure lies the question of labor. If a man will not work neither should he eat; and, of course, it is recognized now clearly that in all our prisons men should learn to labor. But it is not so clearly recognized that when you force men to labor that is slave labor; and there are few people who learn to love work by being forced to do it. You are grating against all the grooves of human nature when you take such action. If you wish these men to work willingly when they come out of prison—and you do, for with many of them voluntary honest labor is the first necessity of their reformed life—then you should teach them while in the prison voluntarily to choose labor rather than idleness; and in order to do that you must give them liberty to remain idle if they so choose.

"But with idleness would come starvation; and with starvation would come crime within the prison.

"Exactly so, and why not? Outside the walls man must choose between work and idleness—between honesty and crime. Why not let him teach himself these lessons before he comes out? Such things are best learned from experience.

"So inside your walls you must have courts and laws to protect those who are working from the idle thief. And we may rest assured that the laws would be made and the laws would be enforced.

"The very foundation of our prison system needs to be rebuilt; and at the bottom must lie three principles:

> "First.—The law must decree not punishment, but temporary exile from society until the offender has proven by his conduct that he is fit to return.
>
> "Second.—Society must brand no man as a criminal; but aim solely to reform the mental conditions under which a criminal act has been committed.
>
> "Third.—The prison must be an institution where every inmate must have the largest practicable amount of individual freedom, because 'It is liberty alone that fits men for liberty.'"

Among the incorporators are R. Montgomery Schell, secretary-treasurer of the committee, Mrs. Ophelia A. Amigh, William S. Bennett William H. DeLacy, Bernard Flexner, Percy S. Grant, Hamilton Holt, Alexander Johnson, George W. Kirchwey, Samuel McCune Lindsay, F. Emory Lyon, Julian W. Mack, John Mitchell, Mrs. Philip N. Moore and Francis Lynde Stetson.

SOCIAL SURVEY URGED FOR WASHINGTON, D. C.

A program for a social survey of Washington, D. C., has been proposed by the Monday Evening Club, which recently met in special session in order to draw up a list of "things to be done." The recommendations adopted are classified under three heads and are as follows:

> First—A sufficient visitorial and inspection corps for the enforcement of school attendance laws; regulation of child labor; supervision of dependent and neglected children; sanitation and municipal tuberculosis and school nurses.
>
> Second—Efficiently organized and adequate governmental agencies to supply the need for a system of branch libraries and better support of the public library; a national training school for white girls; a modern municipal hospital; a modern municipal lodging house; a juvenile court building; provision for the care of feeble minded; provision for the treatment of dipsomaniacs and drug victims; a parental school; open-air schools; playground and recreation centers; public comfort stations; public baths and wash houses; provision for health supervision of schools; provision for social hygiene and for the employment of women police.
>
> Third—Legislation to accomplish the following ends: Use of school buildings as social and recreation centers; establishment of a social welfare department; compulsory removal of careless and dangerous tuberculosis patients; a revised child labor law; a revised school attendance law; amendments to the so-called loan shark law; elimination of all blind alleys; improved procedure for the commitment of the insane, and the adoption of an indeterminate sentence law.

The club refused to endorse a resolution favoring an investigation of the need for District suffrage and a teachers' retirement law. The recommendations were presented to President Wilson at the White House.

Since the presentation of this program social workers in the District of Columbia have developed plans for an amplification of the campaign against blind alleys which forms part of this larger scheme. In the past residents of Washington have asked Congress each year to eliminate certain of the alleys. This same request is to be repeated but in addition one plan is to ask for an appropriation of $25,000 for a special investigation of the alleys. With this sum it is thought that a comprehensive plan for linking all the alleys into a co-ordinated system of minor streets could be developed.

75 APPLICANTS AND ONE VACANCY

"Seventy-five applicants were interviewed for a recent vacancy in our typist force," Charles H. Luddington of the Curtis Publishing Company told an audience in Philadelphia recently. "At least fifty were obviously unfitted and about twenty-five were tested before one competent worker was secured."

Mr. Luddington, who was speaking on the question, "Do our public schools meet the needs of today?" strongly urged the responsibility of the educator for more effective vocational training.

One of the questions which his remarks raised in the minds of his hearers, who had come together to celebrate the twenty-second annual meeting of the Public Education Association, was whether many of the applicants of whom Mr. Luddington spoke, were not so obviously unfitted for becoming typists that they should have been induced at the outset of their wage-earning careers to enter some other vocation.

Mr. Luddington stated that:

"To fill the position of correspondent it is necessary for the Curtis Publishing Company to interview from ten to fifty persons; to find a stenographer, fifteen to twenty-five; a typist, twenty-five to fifty; a high grade clerk, twenty to twenty-five; an ordinary clerk, ten to fifteen. Whenever it is necessary to secure operators for our office appliances, which are generally used throughout the commercial world, we are obliged in 90 per cent of the cases to train them ourselves.

"If the community is seriously contemplating requiring that the employer pay every employe a full living wage, regardless of the economic value of his or her job (and I do not wish to be understood as standing against the principle) it should in fairness to all recognize its own responsibility to give the employe a more adequate and practical training."

Mr. Luddington remarked in passing that to meet the needs of its manufacturing department, his company was endeavoring to work out a plan for part-time apprenticeship courses in connection with the Philadelphia Trade School.

Morris Llewellyn Cooke, director of public works in Philadelphia, told of a committee of teachers appointed to aid municipal employes in planning for further instruction. Over one hundred employes, he said, had consulted this committee during the past year. "The problem of educating municipal employes becomes more acute," he pointed out, "as the belief spreads that all the functions of municipal government can be performed in a thoroughly technical and scientific way." He thought that the city should build up a "bureau of information on advanced training," in order to direct men and women in its employ who had special ambition.

SENATE VOTES TO STUDY WEST VIRGINIA MINING CONDITIONS

The strikes on Paint and Cabin Creeks in West Virginia which for more than a year kept portions of the state in a condition of actual warfare or bordering closely upon it, came to an end so far as the actual conflict between the mine owners and the miners is concerned, late in April. It left many of the issues still unsettled, however. Some of these were of a nature that could not be settled in an industrial conflict, because they bear an aspect both political and national. Among these unsettled questions is the charge of peonage.

Another has grown out of the declaring of martial law, the arrests by military officials and the trial by a military court, of persons charged with crime, who were thus denied the right to trial in a civil court by a jury of twelve men. Under this military regime, the governor is charged with having taken arbitrary action in the confiscation of certain periodicals that met with his disapproval.

At the present time, the editor of the industrialist publication, *Justice*, printed in Pittsburgh, is in a West Virginia jail.

On May 27, the Senate of the United States passed the Kern resolution calling for an investigation of conditions in the West Virginia field. The committee that is to conduct the inquiry consists of Senator Swanson of Virginia, chairman, and Senators Shields of Tennessee, Martine of New Jersey, Borah of Idaho, and Kenyon of Iowa.

The resoluton, in the form it finally passed, provides as follows:

> "For an investigation as to whether or not peonage exists in the coal fields.
>
> "Whether or not the postal facilities have been interfered with, and if so, by whom?
>
> "Whether or not the immigration laws have been violated, and whether or not there has been discrimination against the district in the administration of these laws.
>
> "For an investigation of and report on all facts and circumstances relating to the charge that citizens of the United States have been arrested, tried and convicted contrary to or in violation of the laws of the United States.
>
> "For an investigation of commercial conditions with a view to discovering possible infractions of the Sherman anti-trust law.
>
> "For an investigation and report as to whether or not firearms have been imported into the disaffected district for the purpose of excluding the products of said coal fields from competitive markets.
>
> "For an investigation of the causes leading up to the alleged conditions."

CONFERENCE ON NEGRO ADVANCEMENT

MARY WHITE OVINGTON
Executive Secretary National Association for the Advancement of Colored People

The most dramatic undertaking of the past year by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, as reported at the annual meeting held in Philadelphia recently, was its effort, through the employment of William J. Burns, to secure evidence sufficient to indict some of the leaders of the Coatesville lynching of August, 1911. Although the attempt was unsuccessful, the association has not allowed the matter to rest. Coatesville will not be permitted to forget that it has failed to indict any member of the mob that showed a cruelty quite as horrible as any torture chamber practice of the middle ages, a cruelty so terrible that no paper or magazine has found it possible to print an account of it.

The report of this effort was given by Oswald Garrison Villard, chairman of the executive committee, in a summary of the association's work for the year. He also described two important cases which the association is now undertaking, one to test the constitutionality of the grandfather clause which comes before the Supreme Court of the United States in October; and the second, a "jim crow" case, affecting the right of the colored man to the use of a Pullman sleeper.

Among the speakers at the Philadelphia Conference were Rudolph Blankenburg, mayor of Philadelphia, Rabbi Joseph Krauskopf, Henry W. Wilbur, Senator Moses Clapp of Minnesota, and Judge Wendell Phillips Stafford of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia.

For two years there has been a movement in the South to legalize the segregation of Negroes in towns and cities. The most important case that has arisen from these segregation ordinances has been in Baltimore, where the National Association and the Baltimore branch have been doing hard work. It was therefore a moment of triumph for the conference when the news came that the Baltimore ordinance had been declared invalid by Judge Elliott. W. Asbie Hawkins, a colored lawyer of Baltimore, who has been attorney for the Negro in this case, was present at the conference and received an ovation. He told simply and effectively the story of the attempt to compel Negroes to live in certain neighborhoods, of the bad effect such compulsion had upon real estate and of his desire to do all in his power to prevent legalized segregation. He did not say what the *Star* said in commenting on the decision: "A colored lawyer has knocked out the segregation law in the first round"; but the conference knew it and rejoiced with him.

One session was devoted to the New Southern Attitude and three representative southerners were present: Dr. James H. Dillard, president of the Jeanes fund; Dr. Howard Odum, author of Social and Mental Traits of the Negro; and Mrs. L. H. Hammond of Paine Memorial College, Augusta, Ga.

Dr. Dillard gave a warm tribute to the generosity of the North, especially as shown by the Jeanes fund. Dr. Odum told of the many influences now at work in the South for a careful, sympathetic study of the Negro problem; of the Southern Sociological Congress at its session in Atlanta; and the investigations of Negro conditions by students in various southern colleges.

Mrs. Hammond, who with her husband is in charge of a college for Negro girls, won the conference by her presentation of the new southern attitude. She showed the awakening of the South to a sense of social responsibility toward the Negro as well as the white. She said:

"We are children in our understanding of our social problems and in our feeling of responsibility toward them. You in the North have been thinking of these matters longer than we, but perhaps you are not quite grown up. We will call you big brothers, and big brothers, you know, are apt to be impatient with the younger members of the household. . . . We have seen the Negro problem as though it were something by itself. We looked at it as one looks at a single piece of a picture puzzle, and we failed to understand it. Now we are putting it in its relation to the rest of our world, in its rightful setting, and we are beginning to sympathize and to understand."

At the last meeting of the conference the gift of the Spingarn medal was announced. Prof. J. E. Spingarn, formerly of Columbia University, offers through the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, to furnish annually a gold medal, not to cost more than $100, to be awarded for the highest or noblest achievement by an American Negro during the preceding year in any field of honorable huaccepted. The board of directors of the National Association is to select five persons as the committee of award.

At the annual conference of the association, this medal is to be awarded, with appropriate ceremonies, to the man or woman of Negro descent, citizen of the United States, who shall have made the highest achievement during the preceding year in any field of honorable human endeavor; and the committee of award is to decide for itself in each year what particular act deserves the highest acclaim. Shall we not all look forward with deep interest next year to the awarding of Professor Spingarn's gift?

FINGER PRINTS

A MOMENT OF VISION[1]

BERNARDINE A. KEISER

Sophie ran the hem of her apron around the beer-mug she was carrying and set it down slowly on the table. Ignoring the overzealous arm of her fiery-mustached customer, she made her way past the nine well-filled small tables and three fiddlers that constituted the ensemble of Hodak's saloon. Only Hodak did not call it a saloon, but something far grander in Bohemian.

Hodak was a Bohemian, as were most of his customers—a lank, shriveled man with little pig eyes. He sat now at a corner table staring at the rings of smoke winding round and round the smoky lamp that hung from the beam. At the next table three men talked politics with much lifting up and setting down of tall glasses. Nearby a squat man held forth on "the union." There were several groups with their heads together talking low and smoking hard. Behind Hodak the three fiddlers whanged colorlessly.

Sophie by this time had returned with more beer. Her yellow hair glowed like a foggy sun amidst the smoke wraiths. It was smooth hair, parted in the exact middle and wound into a tight circle at the back of her head. Straight black eyebrows marked grey eyes set far apart.

Her mouth hung stupidly slack. The torn sleeves of her dirty calico laid bare her great white arms—arms that could have lifted and flung a man the length of the room. She moved about with a certain lumbering dignity and took notice of no one.

Presently, tray in hand, despite the following of Hodak's little pig eyes, Sophie pushed forward to the half-shuttered windows in the front of the room and stood looking out. In the narrow cobbled street one could almost have felt the darkness. From two pawn shops opposite trickled a dingy light. Between them was wedged a battered, sooty church, on whose steeple the cross glowed in a chill finger of orange light. Below, a heavy Italian woman, bambino in arms, labored up the steps and tugged open the grimy door. For one instant Sophie saw, at the end of a well of blackness, lighted candles and a white figure bearing tapers. Then the door banged.

Behind her, the smoke ceased wreathing and formed a dense fog. The beer-mugs clanked and the voices swelled to a hoarse clatter. Like arrows the flat whine of the fiddles pierced the curtain of smoke. A glass broke with a fine scream against an iron table top, but Sophie was far away.

At length the Italian woman crept forth and, muffling the bambino in a shawl, plodded up the street. Again, in the outswing of the door, Sophie saw the flickering candles and the figure of the crucifer kneeling before the altar. With the clang of the door the vision ended.

Sophie staring up, saw the slender cross, outlined blackly now. Above it in the chill, night-blue sky, hung five trembling stars. A sort of groan broke from the girl, and she flung one arm up in a fierce aimless gesture. Her big tin tray shivered against the floor, and brought Hodak's little pig eyes upon her.

[1]This sketch was written by a Cleveland high school girl, after work done and conditions studied in and about East End Neighborhood House, Cleveland.

THE EASTER HAT

NELLIE M. SMITH

There was unusual excitement in the tuberculosis ward when the nurse entered with a large bandbox in her hand, and stopping beside the bed of Maggie Dolan, said, "Well, Maggie, I suppose you've been buying an Easter hat."

"And what would the likes of me be doin' with an Easter hat? Sure, and it's a mistake; you had better be givin' it back to the boy," replied the sick woman.

It was the ward for the most advanced cases, and most of the patients were too weak to leave their beds. The few who were able to be up drew near, and the occupants of the beds near Maggie's craned their necks to see and hear what was going on.

"Anyway, open it and let's see it," insisted the nurse. "Here's your name written plain as can be, and besides the boy is gone." Poor Maggie tried to obey, but her hands trembled so that she could not untie the knot; so she pushed the box over to the nurse.

The group around the bed drew closer, and those in the near-by beds leaned farther out. All watched in silence as the nurse untied the string and lifted the cover—a silence broken only by the repeated exclamations of Maggie, "Who'd be sending me an Easter hat"—"What would I be doing with a hat for Easter?"

When the box was finally opened, the nurse pushed it back to Maggie, who drew from it, not an Easter hat, but a small down pillow, and then a cretonne cover gay with flowers.

"Oh, it's The Lady," exclaimed the sick woman, "the one what comes to see me sometimes. She asked me was I comfortable, and I told her yes, only the pillows were so hard they hurt my head. And now I've got this lovely soft one!"

The nurse began putting the cover on the pillow, but Maggie objected. "No, not here, I couldn't use this grand case here. Just let me put it in that bag beside my bed, and when I get well and have my own little room back in

the city, I'll use it there. An ordinary case is good enough for here. Anyway, I'm glad it wasn't no Easter hat."

It was not until several weeks later that The Lady visited the hospital again. Maggie's bed was occupied by another patient.

"Yes," said the nurse when questioned, "poor Maggie died day before yesterday. I only wish you could have seen the comfort that pillow gave her. But I think she derived more pleasure still from the cover. Many times a day she would take it out and admire it, and then carefully put it back into the bag again, talking all the time of how it would look when she got her own room. She had it in her hand when she died."

"Poor thing," replied The Lady, "she was like so many other hungry souls. Her bodily wants were cared for, but she needed something beautiful to admire and love."

As she spoke these lines came to her:

"When fortune favors thee no more,
And there are only in thy store
Two loaves;
Sell one, and with the dole
Buy hyacinths to feed thy soul."

PAYING THE FIDDLER

LOUISE DEKOVEN BOWEN

Freda and Hilda were the children of well-to-do German people who lived in a remote portion of the city in a small house which was slowly being paid for by the united efforts of every member of the family. The girls worked in a candy factory at a weekly wage of $5 which they were obliged to turn over in their unopened pay envelopes to their thrifty mother every Saturday night.

After the hard day's work Hilda and Freda were always tired and complained bitterly that they were not allowed to go to dance-halls or theaters; their too careful mother would not even permit their young friends to visit them for this interfered with the housework and sewing which she expected them to do. One visitor, however, was permitted—a cousin employed in the office of a dentist who came to dinner every Sunday when she would tell funny stories of the dentist's patients and their sufferings. She also told fabulous tales of the amount of gold used in the manufacture of artificial teeth and how very valuable these crowns must be since the dentist charged such enormous prices for them—one tooth sometimes costing $40! All day Sunday the talk would center about the dentist, the enormously valuable stuff with which he worked and the rich people downtown who could buy gold teeth at pleasure.

On their way to and from the factory Hilda and Freda would often stop in front of shop windows, longing for the pretty things which they could not have, and bitterly resenting the plain clothing their mother provided for them; or they would gaze at the fascinating posters which described the delights of the theater they had no money to enter.

One momentous day they decided that in one way or another they must get the money with which to pay for theater tickets. Their cousin, the dentist's assistant, was their one link with the gay world, and they remembered that she had often told them in case of toothache to come to her kind employer, that she was very sure he would be willing to treat free any member of her family. Around this offer the girls evolved a scheme that the next Saturday afternoon after work one of them would pretend to have a bad toothache. They would go to the dentist and ask to have the tooth pulled and while he was thus engaged the sister would steal all the gold crowns she could lay her hands on. But whose tooth should come out? At length they drew lots for it and the dubious opportunity fell to Hilda.

So it was that the next Saturday afternoon the girls set out for the dentist's office—Hilda a trifle lugubrious, Freda quite cheerful. When the dentist had placed Hilda in the chair and examined the tooth, he said he did not think it necessary that the tooth should come out. While she was pleading with him that she could not stand its aching another moment, Freda managed to steal a package of gold foil, also a few crowns which were evidently prepared for immediate use. The impatient dentist at last drew the tooth and the two girls left the office making their way directly to a pawnshop in order to turn the gold and crowns into fabulous sums of money. An officer of the Juvenile Protective Association, happened to see them enter the shop, and followed them in. When the pawnbroker hesitated to accept such unusual pledges, she persuaded the girls to come with her.

The sisters by this time had become rather frightened—Hilda possibly nervously upset by her recent experience—and the officer was able to extract the entire story from them. The facts learned, the stolen goods were returned to the dentist's office, the distracted cousin intervened and the dentist who was really "kind hearted," consented to overlook the theft. It proved easier to get the girls off from the rigors of the law than from the rigors of family discipline. This required many visits to the mother before she was persuaded that she must permit her children to have some recreation and must provide them with money to that end.

When a girl is willing to endure the torture of having a sound tooth extracted in order to go to a theater, does it not reveal once more youth's imperious claim to pleasure which will not be denied?



"THE HAMPTON SPIRIT OF SERVICE"
Hampton student reading the scriptures as a part of his missionary work.

HAMPTON: TRAINING STATION FOR TWO RACES

SYDNEY DODD FRISSELL

THE spread of the Hampton idea is worth study in this fiftieth year of emancipation. Hampton is itself forty-five years old, and the anniversary exercises a month ago afford occasion to pass it in review. This literally is what a train load of northerners did the latter part of April, after crossing Hampton Roads from Old Point Comfort on two small sailing vessels to the spot where the first English settlers met the Indians in Virginia. As their boats moved from the open roads into the Hampton River, they saw the tall church tower, the brick buildings of trades and the domestic arts, and the ivy-covered recitation halls and dormitories set off against the green lawns of Hampton Institute.

A band of blue-uniformed Negro boys and Indians played, as the two groups disembarked at the long wharf in front of a white-pillared plantation house. Through Virginia Hall, the dormitory of the girls, "sung up" a generation ago by Hampton choruses, the visitors passed. For a whole morning they saw girls—colored girls, Indian girls, girls in the kitchen, girls at the laundry—and the neat, scrupulously clean, white bedsteads and dustless wardrobes of girls' rooms.

In the laundry girls were washing clothes for the great Hampton family of more than a thousand. In the kitchens they were cooking a meal for this family. In the dining-rooms they were setting long tables for hungry tradesmen and students. Over the lawns and through the flower gardens the party moved to the Domestic Science Building. Here other girls were separating cream, making butter, judging stock and cooking another dinner. Still others were weaving rugs and making corn-shuck mats and split-oak baskets.

The on-lookers felt that amid these surroundings young women would learn to keep good homes, cook good meals, make good dresses and to teach others the tasks of carrying the gospel of cleanliness and order out from Hampton. When they watched the senior class conducting the crowded classes of Whittier, Hampton's primary school, they said that these women were teachers also.

When the tour of the morning ended, bugles sounded on the parade ground. Black boys and Indians ran across the lawns, fell into their military companies, answered the sharp roll call and moved forward into battalion formation. A moment's silence followed, then a clear command; the battalion wheeled and marched behind their band past the old plantation house, followed by the girls in white dresses, behind whom came a long line of little Negro school children. This company of more than a thousand, each with a place and task in the great family of Hampton, marched in orderly procession before the visitors. The girls marched into Virginia Hall, to take their places at kitchen and table; the little Negro children marched back to their school, the blue-clad companies of men paraded on the bright lawn and then marched to their seats at long tables in the dining hall.

The visitors returned to the building of domestic arts and found the meats and vegetables, the milk and butter, over which they had watched the girls laboring in the morning, now in new form upon a well-spread table.

The creamed potatoes and peas, hot rolls and salmon croquettes, asparagus salad, ice cream, oatmeal cake, cottage cheese and coffee which satisfied the keen appetites of sightseers were the products of the cooking and dairy lessons of the Negro and Indian girls.

In the afternoon the visitors drove out over Hampton's 600-acre dairy farm. Another voyage was made across Hampton Roads to the mouth of James River, and back to Old Point, while members of the allied Hampton Associations of Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia and Springfield met to plan future aid for the school.

Story of a Zulu Prince

In the warm evening, the guests sat before an open-air stage to see the story of a young Zulu prince at Hampton, himself the principal actor, portrayed by Hampton students. African customs, African dances, and the songs and chants of Zululand were a part of the scenes of tribal warfare and village life which unfolded a drama of the banishment of heathenism by Christianity.

Madikane Cele, who has learned the blacksmith's trade at Hampton, was the young Zulu prince in this vivid portrayal of African life. The scenes, for which he had trained the Hampton students in his native songs and customs, gave a vivid picture of the effect of Christianity on his own tribe and family. The future work of this chieftain's son promises to be another of the many transplantings of the Hampton idea to other lands. From Whittier School and classes of colored children taught by colored teachers from Hampton, the party advanced upon the large barns, the dairy herd and the fertile farm of the school where the men of Hampton learn orcharding, trucking and general farming by doing.

In the center of the school hundreds of colored and Indian youths were working at their trades. Carpenters, blacksmiths, bricklayers and wheelwrights were at bench, forge and drafting table.

The rows of trucks ready for shipment, the wagons building in the wheelwright shop, the uniforms of the battalion and the buildings upon the grounds, made by student labor, indicated that these young Negro and Indian tradesmen fill a large place in the work of Hampton.

In the old plantation house, where the head of Hampton lives, a reception followed another luncheon served by Hampton girls. The faculty and a few of the men and women who are giving their lives to this work met with the guests. Following the battalion of students the entire company marched to the school gymnasium where the exercises of the anniversary began.

A Strange Commencement

"Oh, Freedom! Oh, Freedom! over me!" A thousand black singers stood and sang these words; and the melody of their "freedom song" passed across the graves of 3,000 northern soldiers. A sea of black faces surrounded a little group of white workers and northern friends and peered up at trustees and speakers on the platform.

Two colored boys climbed the stage before their graduation. They wore no caps nor gowns; they made no attempt to save their race or country by oratory. With the sleeves of their blue work blouses rolled to the elbow, and wearing the apron of their trade, these young carpenters built the frame of a hip roof for a miniature house in ten minutes. One of the workers explained each step in the building of a roof, as he worked. When the two black builders leaped with their whole weight upon the tiny roof ridge and it held them firm, the audience applauded. It knew more about roof building than it had ten minutes before.

A tall, graceful colored girl walked to a bed on the stage. Quickly removing sheets and blankets, she aired the mattress and pillow case, dusted the iron bedstead and posts and made a model bed.

She explained the why and when of each movement. It was an old story to the thirty-one other girls of her class who had made such beds for four years and who, like her, wore dresses cut and sewed by their own hands. Simple lesson though it was, it will help more than one cabin home in the South.

The laying of bricks and mortar, the cooking of a breakfast, the story of a farm-demonstration agent, thirty years out of Hampton and a leader for better schools and better farming, followed in quick succession.

Then a student told the story of his life. Once a vagabond outcast, shiftless and worthless, abandoned when a boy by his people, he goes back to them this year a carpenter, to tear down the old cabin in South Carolina and to build a new home for his parents.

From the platform followed the message of white to black. The thunderous melody of a thousand voices in the old Negro "spirituals" was followed by speeches by Dr. Wilton Merle-Smith of New York, Starr J. Murphy of the General Education Board, and Job E. Hedges—earnest speeches, full of fire and wisdom and humor.

Two loved figures of other anniversary services were absent from the platform. Robert C. Ogden, president of Hampton's trustees, and H. B. Frissell, the principal, were missed on account of illness. In reply to a telegram sent to Mr. Ogden by the visiting party from the North, which he formerly conducted for many years, the following message from him was read: "In giving endowment to Hampton you help the institution that is doing the best work for peace in the country. There is vitality in its spirit and wisdom in its method."

Dr. Wallace Buttrick, secretary of the General Education Board, gave the message to the new company of young Negroes and Indians ready for service:

"Every time I think of Hampton, I get a new definition of education and a new ideal for human training. I believe that Hampton is, after all, the real American university. I believe that this institution comes nearer having found the clew to the maze in this great process of training for life, in life and by life, than any other institution in the world. I believe that here is embodied in a concrete way the very idea of God himself in the training of his only begotten Son for his life work of usefulness, of inspiration, and of leadership in the world, in placing him in the home of a carpenter."

A throng of three races passed out from the exercises of Hampton's forty-fifth anniversary. As they scattered over the lawns and gardens of this pioneer school of industry, they felt a keener zest for the life of service and labor among their fellowmen.

Hampton Afield

General Samuel Armstrong began a Negro school with two teachers and fifteen students of varying ages in a plantation house and army barracks at Hampton forty-five years ago.

Following a brilliant war record and the administration of a large territory at the close of the war, Armstrong chose to give his life to training leaders for a race. "We are here not merely to make students, but men and women; to build up character and fit teachers and leaders," he said. For twenty-five years he worked unsparingly and unceasingly until the old mansion house where Hampton Institute began was surrounded by shops, dormitories, recitation halls; until he saw the Hampton idea, carried by his students and teachers, taking firm root throughout the South—at Tuskegee, at Calhoun, at Mt. Meigs, and in scores of communities near and far.

With shattered health, exhausted from years of pleading for Hampton, worn out before his time, Armstrong literally gave his life for an idea of education and human training, when he died in his prime twenty years ago.

The 150 buildings, the thousand acres of land, the courses in fifteen trades, in teaching and home-making, in business and farming and the 800 students training for leadership are the physical growth of Hampton.

Eight thousand men and women have gone out from Hampton to South and West, trained in teaching, trained in home-building, trained in the trades. In taking their places in Negro industrial schools of the South and in hundreds of communities, this army of workers has helped to decrease the illiteracy of the Negro from approximately 100 to 30.4 per cent.

Through Hampton outposts and graduates, the method of industrial training has become thoroughly established as the educational solution of a race problem.

Hampton today has become the headquarters of an army of uplift. The class which graduates this year will take positions at strategic points in leading the effort for better schools, better farming and industrial training. Girls skillful as teachers and grounded in home arts and home industries will go from Hampton to supervise the Negro schools of whole counties in southern states. In Virginia alone, there are eighteen women graduates of Hampton, who are directing the instruction of Negro children in every country school of eighteen counties, under the direction of the state supervisor of rural schools. A Hampton graduate visits the Negro schools of the entire South studying the field.

Virginia Randolph was selected as the first into improvement leagues and soon the schools in Virginia, under the Jeanes Fund for Negro rural schools. In October, 1908, she began her



HAMPTON BOYS AT WORK MAKING WAGONS

work, meeting the people and teachers, and asking their co-operation. Patrons were organized into improvement leagues and soon the schools began to improve their appearance. Necessary repairs were made, windows were washed, floors scrubbed, flowers and shrubs were planted, and walks laid off.

Regular periods were set in the school program for sewing, shuck mat making, cooking and work with materials at hand. In the long vacation the girls were formed into garden clubs through which they learned from their supervising teacher to can fruits and vegetables.

The country school has become a center, the colored homes of entire counties have improved, and the benefit to character and community of training in simple industries has been clearly proved. The following summary of work done last year in eighteen counties of Virginia, with its story of struggle and achievement, is full of significance:

Schools visited regularly	299
Schools lengthening the term one month	121
New buildings erected	9
Old buildings enlarged	12
Buildings whitewashed	69
Buildings painted	12
Sanitary outhouses built	37
Schools using individual drinking cups	102
Improvement leagues	348
Money raised for improvement (cash)	$13,744

This was accomplished in one year and at an expenditure for supervisors' salaries of about $7,000.

These supervising teachers are chosen by the county superintendent. They work under his direction, in as many of the schools of a county as they can reach. Last year this work was carried on in 119 counties in the various southern states, through the Jeanes Fund.

Negro women trained by practice teaching, skilled in home industries, experienced as cooks, dressmakers and housekeepers, by four years' work and study in the Hampton family, are sent to officer these campaigns of education for their people in southern states. With them the leaders of education in state and county co-operate. From Hampton's laundry, kitchens and classrooms, the girls continue to go out, carrying the plan of Hampton farther afield each year.

Tradesmen in Demand

The South is an open field for the tradesmen and farmers trained at Hampton. More than 80 per cent of the tradesmen graduated from the school are engaged in trade work. The complete training as carpenters, bricklayers, blacksmiths or machinists, assures Hampton men a place in southern communities and leadership among their people.

Many Hampton tradesmen have taken places in the industrial training of their race by directing the trade training of other Negro schools. It is significant that more than a hundred tradesmen and teachers have gone from the parent school to help Booker Washington at Tuskegee alone. Fully 50 per cent of the Negro boys from the Hampton shops go out to teach others trades.

The success of Negro tradesmen in the competition of modern life in the South is no less striking and important than the teaching of trades to others. In Birmingham, Atlanta, Richmond, Norfolk and Danville Negro graduates of Hampton have become successful contractors.

The worth of the training of a trade student is evidenced by the recognition his work receives after graduation. When in a position of trust and responsibility or as an employer of other workers, he may give valuable aid to members



HAMPTON GIRLS PREPARING TURKEYS FOR THE OVEN

of his race who lack his advantages but are striving for a chance.

There is a graduate in Atlanta, Ga., who as a contractor has won the confidence of the people. He has the reputation of doing high-class work, equal to that of any contractor in the city. By employing a group of Negro mechanics whom he holds to a high standard, he proves that the Negro can do other than the rougher and cheaper work. The value of such a man to his race cannot be estimated.

Hampton's Trained Farmers

In the building up of worn-out lands, the Negro farmers from the fields and dairies of Hampton are filling a large need. Seven graduates of the school are supervising the Negro farmers of four counties in Virginia and in districts of South Carolina, under the Co-operative Farm Demonstration Work of the Department of Agriculture at Washington.

The farm demonstration work in the South among Negroes was started in Nottoway County, Va., by John B. Pierce, sent out by Hampton and working under the direction of Dr. Knapp of the Department of Agriculture. Poor corn lands doubled their yield; systematic crop rotation increased fertility and profits. The value of waste lands rapidly increased from $6 to $10 an acre. The gardens, yards and homes of Negro land owners quickly improved. So marked was the success of the demonstration work under Pierce, that six more Hampton men were sent into other districts and counties. The farm demonstration work for Negroes is spreading to every southern state.

Other farmer graduates are managing farms in southern states, teaching agriculture and cultivating their own land. Today Hampton cannot supply the demand for trained Negro farmers.

From the raw material of a backward race, strong men and women are made at Hampton. What is the process which moulds black men and women and Indian youths into successful leaders in the education, industry and agriculture of their people?

Learning by Doing at Hampton

Hampton is founded on the knowledge that the common task and daily round are a means of grace and a source of culture and intellectual development. Training there is modelled upon the most effective educational institution the world has produced—the home. Hampton, like the home, has daily problems to solve. Every Hampton student, like the member of a family in his home, must help to solve these problems daily.

Is a building needed? Masons and bricklayers must mix sand and cement; carpenters must make doors and window frames; painters, tinsmiths, plumbers, steamfitters, all must take their turns before the building is completed. The lessons of these Negro students stand in cement, brick, and plaster, in woodwork, tin, and iron. Theories learned in classroom these tradesmen apply at the building, and the facts gained at the building they carry to the classroom.

At Hampton there is no prejudice in favor of the classroom. The facts are considered as valuable as theories. Things are ranked with books. Each student has his work in the life of this great family, and every student must carry a vocation away with him.

This is the system of Hampton. The Negro boy who comes to the school with scanty knowledge of the three R's and geography, with scant-



WASHDAY IN THE KINDERGARTEN

ier funds, if possessed of credentials and character, is given a chance. He must win his spurs before he can choose his life's work or begin training as farmer, teacher, or tradesman. Few boys enter with sufficient knowledge or funds to begin their work for a life vocation. Yet no Negro boy is turned away from Hampton because of his poverty. A year on the large farm, a year in the offices or on the grounds of Hampton for the boys, or a year in laundry and kitchens for the girls, with careful coaching at night in reading, composition, arithmetic and geography, gain the funds and academic standards necessary to begin their special training as tradesmen, teachers or farmers.

This year of work in the intensely earnest family of Hampton, in contact with the faculty, in training under college men and women of the North and South, with daily drill upon the parade ground and a part in the practical religious life of Hampton, gives a Negro boy his right to train for a vocation.

The Training of Tradesmen

The bugles blow at 5:30 in the morning. In the day that follows, eleven hours of work and study are crowded into the lives of blacksmiths and carpenters, five days of the week. The day which is hailed as holiday or half-holiday in other schools, at Hampton is called "work day." Upon this day all boys and girls are given work outside their shops or fixed position in kitchen or laundry, to help them further in earning their way through the school. At Hampton, it is a punishment to deprive a boy or girl of work, for there all useful work is a means of support and advance.

As he enters upon his trade, a boy is given the subjects in shop and class which apply to his trade and increase his general knowledge and culture. In that first year, fifty-nine hours of shop practice are supplemented by hard-fought hours of night classes in applied mathematics, elementary science, English, literature and current events.

In the shops the boy receives mechanical drawing, training in mechanics and trade discussion, or an explanation of his daily work by his managing foreman.

With a grasp upon his trade after three years of hard labor and study, the man is given a year of broader culture for life. This fourth and last year of his training leads the trained artisan into practical economics and sociology, general history, literature, psychology and algebra, with more varied practice in his trade and all its allied branches.

The Training of Farmers

The boys who seek the land, like the workers in brick and iron, are given a course in field practice which places them for long periods of responsibility in dairy, poultry yards, orchards, horse barns and upon the fields. Fifty-one hours a week they labor at their tasks upon the farm. In addition to their work, they must have courses in dairying, farm crops, English, elementary science, and applied mathematics, in their first year. Like the boys of the shops, the men in the field are advanced in cultural subjects as they proceed in their four years of vocational training. Intensely practical coaching in the classrooms upon the management of a farm and every department of a farm is continued to the end.

From the shops and fields alike, men must run at the stroke of noon, for every farmer and tradesman has a place in his company of the school battalion. Fifteen minutes from the close of work at noon, each boy must answer to his name in company formation and march with the battalion to his place at luncheon. This military training is required of every boy as long as he remains in the Hampton family.

Training Teachers and Home Makers

Every Hampton girl graduate is a trained teacher. Every colored and Indian girl who leaves the school has had long practice in sewing, cooking, laundering, dairying, gardening, and housekeeping. The last half-year in the course of these future teachers is given to teaching in the Whittier School of Hampton, where classes among the 400 Negro children are managed by the graduating women of two races, who work under expert supervision.

A broader and higher range of academic study is given to these women leaders who must mould and direct the lives of many thousands of children of their race.

Earning their way by the continual practice and study of household arts, the girls are given at the same time such a broad training in pedagogy, sociology, psychology, history and literature as shall fit them firmly to hold the strategic

positions of leadership for which they are sought.

Struggling yearly to earn their way, and earning more each year as their work becomes more efficient or productive, these men and women of Hampton gain not only knowledge and character, but thrift and business training in the use of their meager earnings.

"The Greater Hampton"

A brief review of the methods and curricula of Hampton Institute can give no adequate conception of the life which moulds the crude youth of two races into strong men and women. The outline of a system or its results can give no true impression of the spirit of a place.

The lives given to the school, the ideal of service which Armstrong left, the devotion of other workers grown old in the service, have established a tradition and atmosphere at Hampton, creating spiritual power that no system or curriculum can give.

Outside of the confines of the school in Virginia, beyond the farthest outpost of Hampton's graduates, the benefit of Hampton has passed. For Hampton has become a demonstration station of industrial training and racial adjustment, not only for America, South and North, but for Africa, India and Macedonia.

Visitors from all parts of the globe have come with increasing frequency to this demonstration station of racial training.

The greatest national value of Hampton, in addition to the steady constructive work of forty-five years among two races, is in its benefit to America as the common platform where white and black man, Southerner and Northerner, meet each year with tolerance and constructive spirit.

Each year at Hampton there is a succession of conferences for constructive work in the South. In the past twelve months have been held the Sixteenth Annual Negro Conference, the meeting of the National Federation of Colored Women's Clubs, the annual Negro Farmers' Conference, a visit from the State Association of Colored Teachers, a two-weeks' special session of the eighteen Negro farm demonstration agents from Virginia, North Carolina and South Carolina, directed by the United States Department of Agriculture. Finally, on February 2, the day celebrating the birth of General Armstrong, state superintendents of public instruction from Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Virginia and West Virginia met at Hampton with the representatives and secretaries of the General Education Board, the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission, the Jeanes Fund Board and the United States Department of Agriculture who direct the most effective forces of uplift in constructive agriculture, sanitation and education now active in the South.

These officials of education in southern states met upon a common platform with Negro farm demonstration agents, colored women supervisors of rural schools and the directors of the great systems of practical education in agriculture and sanitation in America.

Who can gauge the benefit of a constructive meeting upon a common tolerant platform, where men of such power, men of different races and widely separate sections, meet for thought and effort directed to the common good?

Hampton has cost lives and money. Armstrong died in his prime. Alexander Purves, Frederick Gleason, and other officers and workers for the cause have died young, or have broken under the strain of raising funds to carry on the work.

Hampton is a work worthy of life sacrifice. It is supplied almost entirely by the individual gifts of public-spirited Americans. It has a wide constituency of loyal friends.

In this fiftieth year of the anniversary of emancipation, with more than $125,000 to raise from unassured sources, Hampton makes its plea to America.



NORTHERN VISITORS CROSSING HAMPTON ROADS

CALIFORNIA AND THE JAPANESE

H. A. MILLIS
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

[Does the California anti-alien land legislation represent the cave-in of American self-assurance and dependence when confronted by the individual and social efficiency of the Japanese? Or does it represent the recoil which a people of fair standards of living make when those standards for the family and home are undermined by another people willing to work on a "bunk-house" basis of subsistence?

Is it a righteous effort on the part of Californians to throttle agricultural sabotage on their fruit farms and keep the land of the Pacific Coast for the occident? Or is it a selfish effort to prohibit the Asiatics from owning land in order to keep them as a cheap, foot-loose, common labor force?

Is it an old, bitter, race antagonism which resents the effort of the under dog to rise? Or is it a clash between two kindred, up-looking social forces, both strong in ethical motive—the struggle of the Japanese to get on, to climb to higher standards; the struggle of the Americans to keep from being pulled down by a striving but laggard people?

These are some of the questions which social workers outside of California, dependent on press dispatches for their insight, have asked themselves this spring. For a distinctive interpretation of the social aspects of the situation, based on dispassionate and unexampled stores of information, THE SURVEY *has turned to Professor Millis, who was formerly a member of the faculty of Leland Stanford, Jr., University and who was in charge of the Asiatic immigration investigation made by the United States Commission of Immigration which was dissolved two years ago.*—Ed.]

WITH the enactment of an anti-alien land bill in California, the Japanese question has again come to the fore. The measure, just adopted by an almost unanimous vote of the Legislature, indirectly forbids to aliens ineligible to citizenship under the federal naturalization law the acquiring of land except for residential and mercantile or other business purposes; provides for the sale by the Probate Court of lands now held by such aliens upon their death; and limits the leases on such lands as they may not own to three years.

The measure is essentially anti-Japanese.

The average intelligent reader will at once challenge the wisdom of this legislation on the ground that it is unjust, unnecessary and impolitic. It will be challenged as unjust because it takes advantage of discrimination under the federal law to further discriminate between aliens of different races lawfully in this country. It limits the property rights of those who must remain aliens and safeguards those of others who might but do not become citizens. It will be challenged as unnecessary because there is no menace calling for drastic legislation. For six years we have had an agreement with Japan denying passports to intending immigrants of the laboring class except such as (1) have been residents of the United States and are returning here, (2) are parents, wives or children or residents of this country, or (3) have an already possessed right to agricultural land.

No restriction is placed upon the issue of passports to the members of other classes, but these have never come to this country in any considerable numbers. This informal agreement has been observed in good faith and passports have been carefully issued by the Japanese government. This has given us an exclusion of Japanese laborers far more effective than that of Chinese under our drastic Chinese exclusion law. Under this agreement the number of Japanese in continental United States as well as in the Hawaiian Islands has been slowly decreasing, and though there is a natural drift from the other states toward California, the number in that state has not increased in recent years.

The Japanese have made considerable headway as farmers in California and elsewhere, and were there no restrictions on further immigration, their competition in this role, as well as in the labor market and in certain city trades, would be keenly felt. Yet at the close of 1909 a careful estimate showed that the farmers of this race in California numbered only 4,500. Their 3,000 to 3,200 holdings embraced a little more than 150,000 acres, only some 16,000 of which were owned by them. More recently the number of such farmers has increased somewhat, but at present the Japanese farm on their own account an almost negligible part of the 11,000,000 acres of improved farm land in the state. With a decreasing Japanese population and Asiatic labor supply, their operations can not expand greatly beyond their present limit, in spite of the fact that a premium is placed upon independent farming because it makes provision for the wives.

The new legislation will be challenged as im-

politic for it is likely to raise again the question of immigration restriction, and this should be avoided. Moreover, it might lead to the undermining of the party in power in Japan and radically change the administration of the present agreement. Unless the bars are to be let down, and few would advocate it, such friction as has been incidental to the present legislation is not unlikely to lead to the necessity of exclusion by act of Congress. It is needless to say this would provoke much trouble. Finally, this legislation may well lead to commercial loss, for our Asiatic markets are quickly affected by resentment against what is regarded as unfair treatment.

These considerations lead logically to the conclusion that, as long as the present situation as regards immigration continued, the Asiatic problem should have been regarded as solved. Yet it must be said this legislation gives expression to the will of the great majority of western white men of all classes, who are independent, impatient and frank, and who react strongly and quickly when a stimulus is supplied. Moreover, had the Legislature not taken this action, the strong feeling against the Japanese would probably have led to more drastic legislation by the initiative of the electors. Indeed, the writer knows of several political leaders who favored the recent amendment of the state constitution so as to provide for direct legislation, in order that this new power might be employed to that end if the Legislature delayed. Were any anti-Asiatic measure at all, and especially one aimed against Japanese, put to a popular vote, it would carry by a tremendous majority.

The anti-alien land legislation in California is not to be explained in the light of reason. It follows other measures—such as the restriction upon Japanese immigration itself, the boycotting of restaurants, laundries and the like conducted by or with the aid of Japanese, the prohibition of marriage between Caucasians and Asiatics, and the attempted segregation of school children—and is to be interpreted chiefly as an incident in the struggle against the so-called "Asiatic invasion." Incidentally it is designed to meet some real and other fancied evils connected with the agricultural advance of the Japanese.

The deep-seated opposition to the Japanese grew largely out of differences in standards. More specifically, it developed out of prospective numbers, racial differences, contrast in mode of life, competition upon unequal terms, and the cleverness and ambition of the Japanese immigrants. It sprang into existence all the more quickly because of the successful fight which had been waged against the Chinese; it became more pronounced because of the grouping of the Japanese in restricted areas, and was fanned into a flame by the Asiatic Exclusion League and other organizations. Like causes have begotten the same opposition to some, if not to all, races of Asiatic immigrants in many parts of the world, with the result that they have been discriminated against in Australia, South Africa, Chile, Peru and Canada.

At the high-water mark, the number of Japanese in continental United States did not greatly exceed 100,000. Because of climatic and physiographic influences something more than one-half were in California. But even here, they constituted only a small percentage of the population which is still so sparse as to average only fifteen per square mile. But the opposition developed in advance of large numbers because of the many, who with poor resources and small earnings at home, would find great inducement to migrate to the Pacific states which offer much better opportunities and constitute their natural outlet, and because the movement was organized and the way made smooth by emigration companies in Japan and Japanese boarding-houses and contractors insuring employment on this side. In the absence of opposition and of discouragement by the Japanese government the fear of large numbers would with time have been realized, as it would be now were the immigration policy that expressed in our general immigration law.

In regard to competition upon unequal terms, experience has shown the result which would follow from this immigration.

The Japanese immigrants fell heir to the occupational and social position of the Chinese who preceded them. As a general rule the shopkeepers, professional men, students leaving high school and young men from the urban communities—constituting less than a third of the entire number—upon their arrival in this country started in domestic service and similar employments in cities, while the country folk and the manual laborers, constituting the majority, sought employment as construction laborers, section hands, farm laborers or as common laborers in other places, where they were sent by contractors and set at work in groups. With unimportant exceptions factory employment was denied them. One reason for this was the close contact with them thus enforced upon the white employes. Another was the general reaction against the Chinese who had preceded them. They, as a result of much friction and boycotting, had left the tradition for employers to heed that factory work was "white man's work." In some communities the Japanese were not permitted to work at all. But in maintenance of way on railroads, as laborers in railroad shops and about roundhouses, in lumber camps and to some extent in mines, as well as in seasonal agricultural work, they found a ready market for their labor.

This was not so much because of their effi-

ciency as because they were easily and conveniently secured through contractors of their race and because they were usually willing to accept a lower wage than white men could be obtained for. The contractors applied the principle of what the traffic would bear and made such terms as would create a demand for the laborers they had at their command. The employers followed the line of least resistance and of least inconvenience—as employers as a class are wont to do—and employed them because convenient and cheap at a time when white men were scarce at the ruling wage and under the conditions which obtained. Competing on these terms the Japanese tended strongly to replace the other races engaged in certain occupations.

In most branches of industrial employment, however, the Japanese were compelled to reside in isolated communities. Their living conditions were hard and their occupational advance slow as it generally is in the case of any "foreign race," however efficient its members may be, when they are employed in gangs to do unskilled work and accept relatively low wages. Such employment proved objectionable to the more capable Japanese who want work with a future and with social opportunities. Because of this fact and the very evident desire for change and variety, there has always been a strong back current toward agricultural or city employment on the part of all but the crudest of those engaged as laborers in industrial pursuits. Here in city or on farm the slow occupational advance and the relatively low wages combined with the desire for the distinction to be so gained, the willingness to take a chance, the wish to "settle down" and the desire for economic independence, to cause the Japanese to struggle to rise from the wage-earning class.

The number of Japanese railroad hands reached its maximum in 1906, and the numbers employed in most other industrial pursuits began to decrease before 1909. Of some 80,000 gainfully employed in 1909, 40,000 were normally employed in agricultural pursuits, 12,000 to 15,000 in domestic service and related employments, while 10,000 or 11,000 were engaged as employers or help in the 3,000 business establishments conducted by Japanese—a considerable and an increasing number of them primarily for the "white trade." The advance of the Japanese in petty business in recent years has been quite as rapid and as strongly opposed as their advance in agricultural pursuits, and in a general way the history has been much the same in the two cases. The story of this agricultural advance may be briefly stated for it brings to view the circumstances causing anti-Japanese legislation to take the form of an anti-alien land law.

California and certain other parts of the West, because of climatic conditions, soil and reliance upon irrigation, are peculiarly suited to the production of certain crops (such as fruit of various kinds, grapes, vegetables, sugar-beets and hops) which involve a great deal of hand labor, require an unusually large number of hands during the harvest season or at certain stages in cultivation, and present in extreme form the problem of lodging and boarding of the extra help, but which when the problem of labor can be conveniently solved, are most profitable. The land in many places is so well used for these crops, that specialization has developed until a community may be engaged chiefly in the production of one or of a few of them, frequently in advance of the sub-division of the land into small holdings and the development of a large resident population. As a result of this most of the communities engaged in the production of sugar beets, fruit and the like, must each year for a short time rely partly on laborers brought to them to do the necessary work. One small California community with possibly 2,000 residents available for employment, has required fully 2,000 more for a few weeks each year.

In the hand work, the problem of board and lodging, the seasonal employment and the sparse resident population lies the acute problem of farm labor in many of the western agricultural localities and especially in California, where such crops as have been mentioned constitute one-half of the total. White men are not easily secured at low wages for work of this kind in a country rapidly advancing, and their subsistence imposes a responsibility upon the farmer. The Asiatics, on the other hand, have been easily obtained and care for themselves. They are accustomed to hand work, are usually without family, are to be secured as needed through contractors or bosses, are migratory, will accept lodging in a "bunk-house," and prefer to provide their own subsistence. Naturally because they had these advantages and were cheap laborers, the farmers of California, acting individually, formerly turned to the Chinese for hand work, especially during the rush season. With their availability, however, the industries making use of them grew apace. A Chinese immigrant labor economy developed on the specialized farms, and white men became relatively more scarce as certain occupations were shunned.

The Japanese have served in these highly specialized industries in the same way the Chinese did before them, and as the Chinese still do to a certain extent. Migratory, organized under bosses, fairly efficient in hand work, cheaper than white laborers, and easily lodged and self-subsisting, they have fitted well into the requirements of such agricultural industries as have been mentioned.

In California for some years—and the same thing is now true in the growing of sugar-beets

in other western states—the Japanese have occupied a dominant position as laborers in most of the intensive, specialized agriculture which has come to prevail and especially in the occupations of a seasonal character. They have done practically all the hand work in the berry patches, two-thirds of that in the sugar-beet fields, perhaps one-half of that in the vineyards, a somewhat smaller part of that in raising vegetables and in the orchards. In the hop yards they have not generally predominated except in the training and care of the vines, while on general farms they have found little employment even in harvest work. A couple of years ago 30,000 were employed, chiefly in hand work, on California farms. In many localities it has been a problem to get on without them.

Undertaking agricultural work first in 1889, by 1895 the Japanese had appeared in every locality in California in which the Chinese had been employed. More recently they have found a place in every agricultural community in that state in which much hand work is required and in sugar-beet and vegetable growing in Colorado, Utah, Idaho, Washington, Oregon and Montana.

In some instances the Japanese were first employed where a new industry was being introduced; in others they took the place of the Chinese who were diminishing in number; while in still other cases they displaced Chinese or white men by underbidding or by their superior organization. In most of the localities where Chinese were employed at the time the Japanese came to the community, they were soon displaced by their rivals, who had the same organization, were younger, more adaptable and more agreeable, and who, when they did not work for a lower wage, did more work. In a few instances where white men had been employed to replace the Chinese, they also were displaced by the Japanese. Thus the dominant position of the Japanese in certain agricultural employments was gained as a result of the decreasing number of Chinese, and because of the fact that they, as cheap laborers—easily secured, easily cared for and easily disposed of when no longer needed—would maintain and extend the scheme of things developed as a result of natural conditions and the employment of Asiatics.

Underbidding was formerly a general fact, but the wages of Japanese laborers have everywhere advanced as they have come to occupy a more regular place in agricultural work. Now that they have a scarcity value, their piece wages are seldom less than those paid other races and their day wages differ from those of white men doing the same work by about the difference in the cost of subsistence, which for the Japanese has been from twenty-six to thirty cents per day as against fifty cents for white men. This approach to equality, however, is the product of recent years, and much of the difference which did obtain has disappeared with the restrictions placed upon immigration in 1907.

While the Japanese laborers have been eagerly sought by the farmers, they have very generally become unpopular, especially in California where they have become the dominant element in the farmer's labor supply. They are less experienced and have proved to be less careful workmen than the Chinese with whom they are generally compared. In non-technical matters, however, the chief reason for their unpopularity is found. The Japanese are good Yankees—intelligent and ambitious and clever in driving a bargain. Unlike the Chinese who think in terms of contract, the Japanese, for historical reasons, have only slowly and imperfectly developed the contractual sense so important in modern business relations. They frequently do not hesitate to charge all the traffic will bear at the time and frequently it will bear a great deal for the farmers' crops will not wait. Again, the contractors have frequently fixed prices and declined to bid against one another for work to be done.

Unlike the Chinese, the Japanese laborers move quickly from place to place in search of the greatest gain and follow their own interests rather than those of the boss and the farmer. Frequently this migration has led to the breaking of contracts when the boss could not secure laborers on the expected terms. Then, there have been other cases where the boss and the laborers have stood together to secure an advance in the rate to be paid. And, finally, much of the opposition is due to the fact that the Japanese do not remain satisfied with wage labor but are eager to secure control of land and establish themselves as farmers. Their advance as farmers in some localities has given the white population no little concern.

Independent farming by the Japanese, now attacked through legislation, is the product of the last ten or twelve years and most of it a product of the last six. A good share of this on leased land has resulted from their dominant position as laborers. There is a tendency everywhere for the farms to fall under the control of any capable race that predominates in the supply of labor, where much work is necessary, as it is in the growing of sugar-beets, berries and fruit of different kinds. Leasing helps the farmer to solve the problem of getting labor when needed, for it attaches a nucleus to the land. The dominant position of the Japanese as laborers is the most important factor in explaining their advance as tenants. But in many cases the leasing as well as the ownership of land is merely an index of the comparative ability and ambition of the Japanese and has no close relation to their position as farm laborers.

But there have been other factors. The Jap-

anese have had little opportunity to advance in the scale of occupations or to secure a settled residence and home for their families so long as they were laborers. This has placed a premium upon the securing of farms or engaging in business. Moreover, the Japanese find the wage relation distasteful; a position as tenant or as land-owner is distinctly one of honor. Closely connected with these facts is the further one that they, like the Chinese, have been willing to overbid the other races and have paid high rents. Instance after instance might be cited where they and the Chinese have offered 25 or even 50 per cent more than the customary amount. Hence, the farmers have found it both profitable and convenient to lease land to them. Moreover, as tenancy has spread in California, the farmer has complained that it became increasingly difficult to secure outside desirable Japanese hands, and this has constituted an additional reason why he should not farm the land himself. Again, here and there land-owners, not wishing to rent their farms, have been threatened with a labor boycott so great has been the desire of the Japanese to establish themselves as tenants. But to the advance of a foreign race made in this way the older element in the population naturally objects. Land ownership is, of course, the next step for those who are successful.

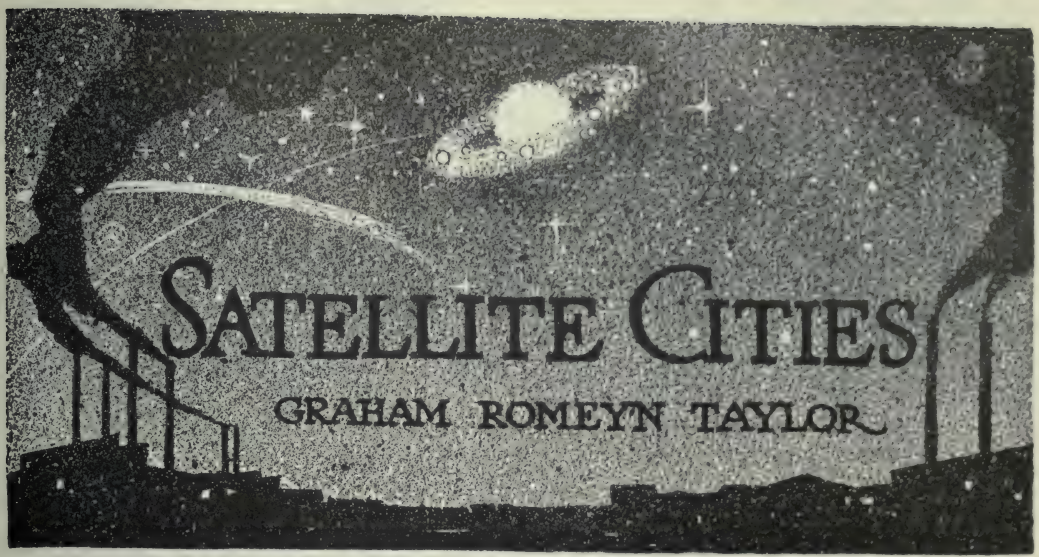
Because of favoritism or disinclination on the part of other races to work for the Japanese, they have employed their fellow countrymen almost to the exclusion of others and this has led to a further displacement of white farm laborers. Again, in a few instances, the Japanese in their enthusiasm and as a result of extreme specialization, as in growing strawberries and asparagus, have adversely affected prices for farm products having a local market. Both Japanese and white farmers complain of this. Finally, the presence of Japanese tenants—and the same was true of Chinese tenants—and the partial withdrawal of white owners to live elsewhere, the high rentals and the tendency on the part of some land-holders to divide their holdings into "camps" for the purpose of cultivation by tenants, has retarded the influx of other races to lease or to buy land. The subdivision and sale of land to small farmers, which we in this country believe important, has been delayed. In a few instances the white population of the prosperous agricultural districts has actually diminished as the Japanese gained firmer hold. For example, in one progressive community where 90 per cent of the farms are leased, the enrollment in the schools diminished until three of the four which had been maintained, were closed. This is what western people have in mind when they oppose Asiatic immigration as standing in the way of the development of the country along normal lines.

The essence of all this is that Japanese competition has been on a lower plane than that set by the white man's standard and that they are capable and desirous of more than common wage labor. It has been an unequal competition not limited to the field of labor. With time it has tended strongly to extend to farming and to certain branches of business as well, and the difference in standards has not been bridged. Of course, there have been other immigrant races, as for example the Greek and Italian, who have also competed on a lower scale, but the degree of difference has been less than in the case of the Japanese. Differences of degree lead to definition and discrimination.

As all who are informed with reference to the matter know, no case can be made against the Japanese on purely personal grounds. As a class they are intelligent, have great capacity for assimilation and desire to find a place in western civilization to the externals of which, at least, they conform. Though most of them adhere to their native faiths, many are professed Christians and their missions are well supported. As regards crimes and misdemeanors their record is good as compared to that of other races similarly circumstanced. But with the average American they do not stand upon their personal merit. Difference in color, language, point of view, thought, their thorough organization for various purposes and the paternalistic attitude exhibited by the Japanese government, tend to cause all to be lumped together and treated as a race. Being represented chiefly by laborers and following the Chinese in point of time and being forced in most employments to observe an inferior mode of living, these differences are regarded by the masses as marks of race inferiority. And once assigned to an inferior rank, any progress from the lowest scale of unskilled labor tends to arouse opposition rather than to beget toleration and respect for them.

Not a little of the continued opposition to the Japanese when there is no longer any menace, has been due to the activity of the Asiatic Exclusion League and related organizations such as the Anti-Jap Laundry League of San Francisco. The Exclusion League, after immigration was restricted, continued to agitate for exclusion by act of Congress and has employed "facts and figures" in an unfair way to accomplish that end. Much misinformation has as a result been accepted as fact. Moreover, pressure has been brought to bear upon the candidates for office to secure anti-Japanese legislation.

These are the main facts accounting for the enactment of the anti-alien land bill aimed directly at the Japanese—a measure which in the opinion of the writer, is unjust, unnecessary and highly impolitic.



VI

EFFICIENCY AND COMMUNITY LIFE[1]

THESE articles have brought us to a point where we see clearly that the suburb which the city dweller hits off as a "satellite" is more than a sporadic bit of civic cosmos. It is one manifestation, and the most easily seen, of the great concentric outer rings of industry which powerful economic forces are churning out from the congested centers.

It has been possible in this series to give close examination to only a few "satellite cities." Those selected have been of varied types—Pullman, as the most striking early example of the half-isolated paternalistic town, which has been overtaken and submerged by larger urban growth as well as by the democratic forces innate in municipal life; certain Cincinnati suburbs, where manufacturing plants have gained the advantages of the "open," while workers have largely been left behind in the big city's tenements; St. Louis' "east side," leaping into first rate industrial importance despite the barriers of a great river and a state boundary; and Gary, greatest instance of a made-to-order community, with an unhampered opportunity at the disposal of its creators.

The speed of it all stands out. Since the introductory article was published last fall plans have matured for a great industrial district across the river to the north of Kansas City, 3,500 acres in area. Already 2,509 acres have been allotted for factory sites. As this is written the Western Electric Company is moving its New York manufacturing department to the big plant on the outskirts of Chicago, thus concentrating all manufacturing in the huge shops at Hawthorne. So, too, the Crane Company is to concentrate its Chicago plants on the city's southwestern outskirts.

This rapidity partly explains why the movement goes ahead all but unnoticed by social workers, revolutionary though it is. A settlement leader of the middle West writes:

"I was surprised when I realized that I could not give you the slighest accurate information without a visit to some of our nearby towns. I have talked with some of our workers, but this problem which you are working on seems to be an entirely new thought to all of them as it was to me. You have brought out facts which are worthy of study here and which make us realize that we have never given consideration to this aspect of our city."

His reply is typical of others received in answer to inquiries addressed to civic leaders and has prompted explorations which have brought out situations resembling those to which these articles have directed attention.

From Harrisburg we learn that the "execrable housing conditions" of the lower reaches of the

[1]This is the last of the Satellite Cities series; previous articles were: I. The Outer Rings of Industry (introductory), October 5; II. Pullman, November 2; III. Norwood and Oakley, December 7; IV. Granite City, February 1; V. Gary, March 1.

capital city of Pennsylvania are being reproduced in the newer and adjacent Steelton which employs from 8,000 to 15,000 men. A social worker's observations beyond Cleveland's city boundaries show a town with meager planning and social equipment; some of the employes in the two industries living in monotonously similar company houses and some of them making the short trip out from Cleveland each day.

The region around Pittsburgh contains fifty towns which serve as examples of the absence of town planning. Vandergrift, forty miles away, shows well designed provision for the skilled, clerical and professional workers, the company getting all the increment of land values, while the unskilled are left to shift in an unplanned neighboring community. Two recent developments are Midland, where the Crucible Steel Company is laying out a model addition; and Aliquippa, where the Jones & Laughlin Company is building a brand new town. On the heels of the report that a new steel mill and town is to be built near Duluth, comes a rumor concerning another big plant to be located in Canada just across the river from Detroit.

From Seattle comes the information that newly arising industries are locating at the city's edge or beyond. A typical outlying settlement is Edmunds, eight miles out, which boasts at once of its nearness to Seattle and of its advantage in being outside the area of congestion. It already has many woodworking factories and a steel and bolt plant, and seems destined to be a city of manufactures and working people. Its slogans are "No saloons and an empty jail." "A chorus of factory whistles is the city's rising call."

To offer new industries the advantage of the city, with the low costs of outlying sites, the Seattle Chamber of Commerce has entered into an arrangement with the county officials whereby factory locations at moderate rental may be had on what was once the county farm.

Just outside the city limits of Portland, Ore., a beef packing plant was built four years ago. Connection was made with the street railway of Portland and a town has grown up. It had little planning beyond that which the average real estate dealer uses in plotting out lots. This opportunity for guiding city growth seems to have been missed by the Portland business men who have recently had a comprehensive city plan prepared suggesting the widening of several streets and the development of an extensive park system.

Rapid and far-flung, the movement of industry to city outskirts reaches deep into the common life—deeper than is as yet recognized. It has potencies for good and evil, lends itself as readily as a land boom to glowing images, and as readily tapers off into cold fact. At one pole we may put the point of view which, with much perception of the new methods of town planning, President Johnson of the Baldwin Locomotive Works displayed in a recent address to the people of Chester; at the other, may be set the plight in which the working people of a Standard Oil town found themselves during the past winter in Missouri. Mr. Johnson explained in detail the locomotive company's plan of development at Eddystone, which adjoins Chester and forms practically a part of it, where several departments of the works have been located. He said that the development at Eddystone

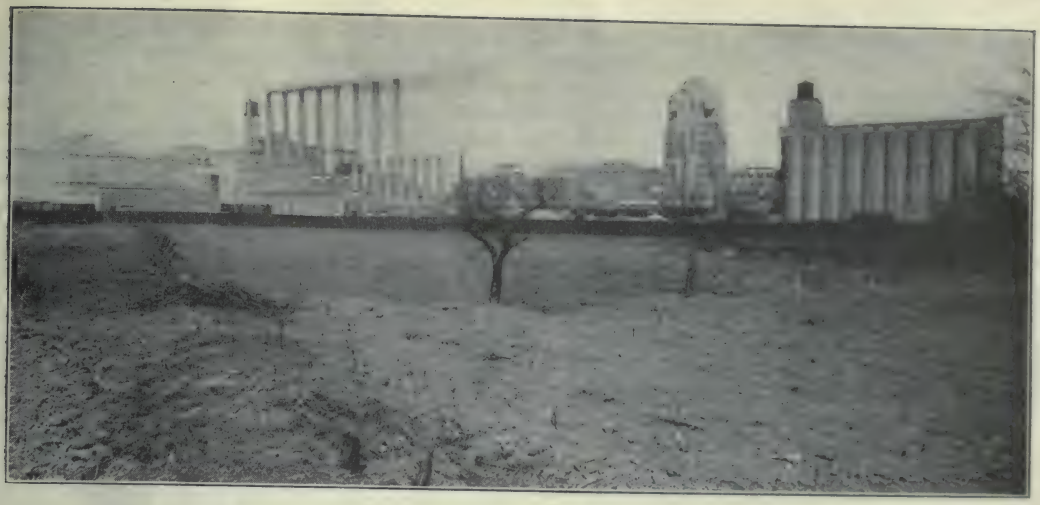
"has been quite as rapid as the supply of labor at Chester has justified. Of 6,840 men employed at Eddystone, it was ascertained that 3,555 were residents of Chester, 505 were residents of suburban districts between Chester and Philadelphia, and 2,780 were residents of Philadelphia, finding transportation to Eddystone over the Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia and Reading, and the trolley lines.

"The question is how to induce these 2,780 men, who are content to reside in Philadelphia, and travel back and forth daily, to move their homes to Chester and become a part with you in developing your city. To do this you must make your city attractive as a place of residence. You must curb the traffic in intoxicating drinks . . . you must cultivate a spirit of obedience to the laws, which would make impossible the conditions which brought the name of Chester unfavorably before the entire community during your trolley strike. You must elect to your public offices, men of the highest type, who will place the public interest before any private interest. You must make your city beautiful and attractive; you cannot leave this to the unrestricted enterprise of the individual. You must join in the awakening which is taking place all over America for improvements in town planning, in housing, in schools, parks and other things contributing to the public welfare. . . .

"I would like to see a carefully considered plan of development for both the cities of Philadelphia and Chester; and for the entire district between them, defining their street planning, roads, parks and docks so that it may all be developed as one whole, rather than as a group of independent, segregated boroughs."

The other side of the picture shows the risk and uncertainty which a workman assumes in taking a home owner's stake in an industrial community. The insecurity of community life based on the prosperity of one concern or even of one industry stands out when towns are stranded through accident, as in the case of Cherry, Ill., or through the decline of an industry, as in the case of some Michigan lumber towns, or through the abandonment of a plant.

It was last February that a Missouri court room witnessed a plea for the life of the Standard Oil Company in that state, made on behalf of the work people of Sugar Creek, its made-



AT THE CITY'S RIM

Industry profits by escape from congestion. Shall the nearby open fields free the workers from crowded tenements?

to-order town on the bank of the Missouri River. The existence of the town was threatened by the campaign to "oust the monopoly" from Missouri. It was stated in the court that "most of the employes built cottages for themselves ranging in value between $500 and $3,500." "The wealthy Standard Oil Company," said one inhabitant, "will not feel the court's decision nearly as much as we, who built our little homes here and are trying to rear our children properly. If the plant closes, property in this town will not be worth ten cents on the dollar." "It isn't easy," said another, "to sit still and see the savings of years swept away." A third inhabitant added:

"And now the insurance companies are talking of taking away our insurance. They are afraid some workman who is going to lose his place will set it afire to get the insurance and the town might burn. The Standard Oil Company has been good to us, it paid for the piano in the school house and furnished the school with fuel the first year after it was built. It pays $200 a year toward the salary of the Methodist preacher and gave a stove and the fuel to the church. For seven years the company has kept a large hack with two horses, and twice a week it sends it to Independence with all the women who want to go shopping there and it hauls them back."

The problem, then, is one not merely of scientific physical planning but also of civic independence and the whole social scheme of an industrial people. For the most part, as our study of these expanding industrial areas has shown, we have left this intricate problem to the industrial captains, who frankly say that their interest in the civic side of their concerns is incidental, and to real estate speculation. The type of development produced by these forces has usually proved inadequate and socially unintelligent.

The hand to mouth methods of real estate speculation, with immediate profits as the main object, are analogous to the wastefulness with which our forests in pioneer days were despoiled. At its worst this exploitation gives us the hideous shacks at Gary, with their profits of 50 per cent squeezed out of immigrants packed two and three and even more to the room. Little better are the "builders' rows" of flimsy frame boxes, which every industrial suburb and the outskirts of every large city can show. Even at their best, the ordinary real estate methods either fail to serve the workers because larger profits may be made in supplying homes to other classes, or else heap middlemen's profits on the home buyer who can least afford to pay them.

In a Cincinnati suburb we have seen vacant land around factories which had moved out from the city's center, used not for homes for the workers in these factories but for the dwellings of people whose work is in the heart of the city. At Corey, with all its excellent town planning, the company which developed the place for the steel corporation urged upon Birmingham investors the advantage of buying property in the town which could be sold at a good profit when the workingman should come to live in it.

This same piling up of profits for the workingman to pay crops out in connection with a new suburb of Los Angeles. Finely laid out on a 3,000 acre tract, with advice from a city planner of national prominence, it is designed to provide for a large expected manufacturing development. Circulars to Los Angeles investors describe it as "the city with the pay roll," and they are informed of the "profits to be derived

from an investment in that growing city." For "during the present year industries have been secured, assuring a working force of 3,000 men and a population conservatively placed at 10,000 within a few years, and it is fair to assume that factories providing employment for an equal number of skilled mechanics and laborers will be secured for 1913 and 1914."

The factory gains by this transfer to the city's edge. We know that because the outward movement gathers force. The city gains in the relief the movement brings to its arteries of trade; industrial freight does not have to be handled through its central valves. The social problem then is whether community interests receive attention commensurate with the foresight, skill and ingenuity devoted to securing the utmost industrial advantage; whether the shift for the thousands of working people away from the city pressure is to bring an increment of better living, easier living,—a lifting of the standards of industrial civilization; or whether, for the great mass, it is merely a fresh swapping of the frying pan for the fire.

It has, of course, been impossible to attempt answers to the searching questions put in the introductory article. If this series of papers has led to a sharper and clearer definition of the problems involved, it will have served its purpose. These problems can be recapitulated briefly. They relate to:

(1) Public control over the industrial frontiers of a modern city.

(2) City planning—streets, parks, playgrounds, etc.—as it applies to these suburban divisions individually and as part of the greater city.

(3) Taxation and the private exploitation of leaping land values.

(4) Demand for capital for home building at low rates of interest.

(5) Home ownership and the workers' mobility.

(6) Recreational and social requirements of the outlying communities.

(7) Unemployment as affected by isolated industries.

(8) Perplexing questions of social self-dependence and industrial autocracy.

(9) The relation between the satellite and the common civic and community purpose of the industrial district.

While in the large, these problems are all but untapped, the investigations carried on for this series revealed large constructive forces at work. Not the least of these are the industrial forces themselves.

Enterprises like the "factory colony" on the outskirts of Cincinnati,[1] the Clearing-Argo factory district on the outskirts of Chicago[1] and the ingenious Bush Terminal plant in New York show the imagination and building genius that manufacturers and engineers are applying to escape from city congestion and to gain efficient and economical factory conditions beyond the cluttered core of the great city; and these cannot fail to have many favorable social advantages.

Similarly, the beginning of large vision and social appreciation is being manifested at the hands of the other great economic interests. The haphazard and socially unintelligent methods of many real estate operators have been vigorously discussed by a real estate operator himself.

In an address[2] before the National Association of Real Estate Exchanges, J. C. Nichols of Kansas City said:

"The subdividing of land for city purposes in practically all American cities is generally left to chance and private and selfish interests. City authorities have to some extent made certain general requirements as to a reasonable continuity and regularity of streets; but little has been done toward a good, wholesome, general city plan of subdivision.

"The best manner of subdividing land should not necessarily mean the quickest sale. The destiny and growth of your town is largely affected by the foresight of the man who subdivides the land upon which you live.

"It is easy enough to name your addition, file your plat, take your lots and advertise them for sale to those who may wish to buy; but it is a more difficult matter to decide just what should be within that property, not only today but twenty-five years from today—the class of houses, their architectural design, distance from the street, what character of outbuildings, location of telephone poles, location of churches and schools, provision of playgrounds, open centers for flowers and shrubbery, concealing of the street-car lines in parkways, and erection of suitable shelters along the line, the decoration of the streets with ornamental lights, placing of neighborhood stores in unobjectionable points, selection of the best type of street improvements for residence streets, and the creation of civic and local improvement associations that will be sufficiently alert to protect every restriction and keep alive the interest and enthusiasm that exists in the addition when new."

Referring to his own development of a thousand-acre residential tract in Kansas City, Mr. Nichols explained the many restrictions exacted in the arrangement of houses and use of lots. These are welcomed by individual purchasers as a protection to their best interests rather than an invasion of their rights. "In the early days,"

[1]See THE SURVEY for December 7, 1912, p. 287.

[1]See THE SURVEY for October 5, 1912, p. 12.

[2]This address has been published in pamphlet form by the American Civic Association, Washington, D. C.

said Mr. Nichols, "I was afraid to suggest restrictions; now I can not sell a lot without them."

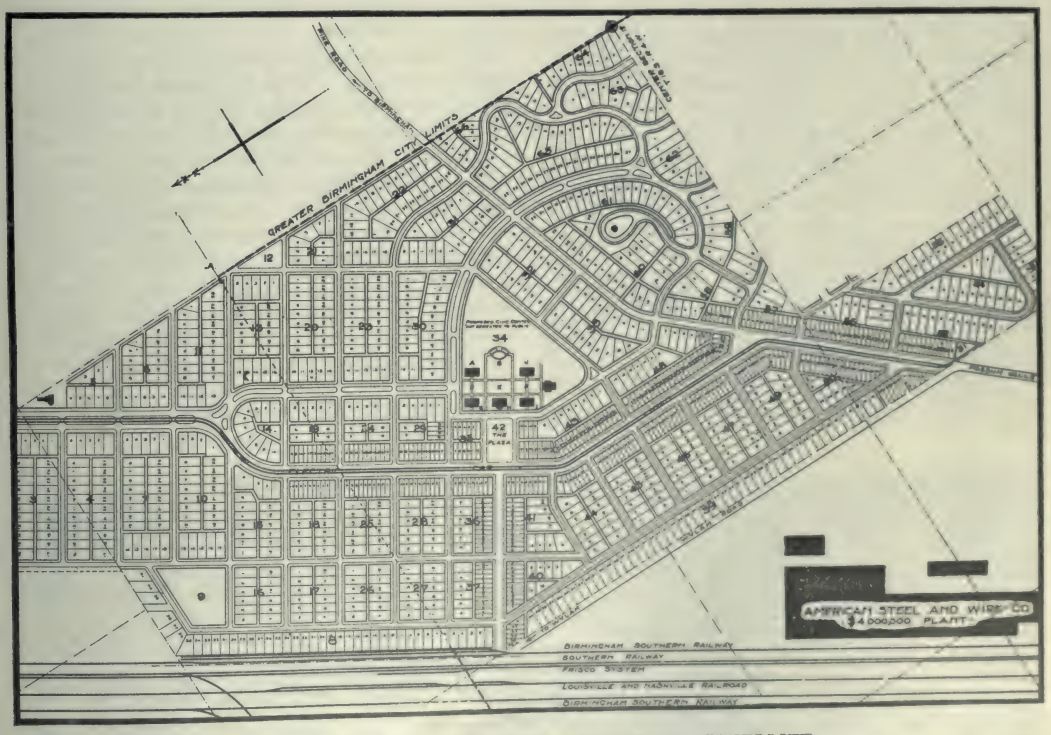
When we turn to the exercise of public authority, Canada and the United States have both begun to apply the principle of the British Town Planning Act, which extends government supervision, control and guidance to the development of residential additions and city expansion. Under the British Act, town-planning schemes may, subject to the approval of the local government board, be prepared by the local authority or the landowners "as respects any land likely to be used for building purposes" or any neighboring land. A way is provided under the local government board for giving proper consideration and adjustment to objections. On the other hand, land owners whose schemes have failed of adoption by the local authorities may appeal to the board. And the board, if satisfied that local authorities have failed to take the requisite steps for a town-planning scheme, may order one to be prepared. The board is also given large power to prescribe the provisions of town-planning schemes and the number of houses per acre may be limited.

On this side of the water, Ontario has adopted a "city and suburbs plans act." Plans for subdividing an area within five miles of a city of 50,000 or more must be submitted to the Ontario Railway and Municipal Board, which is thus given a position corresponding in some degree to that of the local government board under the British Act. This Railway and Municipal Board may require changes in the plan to make it accord with any general scheme the city may



ONE OF COREY'S LARGER HOUSES

Well designed and inexpensive bungalows for skilled and semi-skilled workmen have equally attractive surroundings.



TOWN PLAN OF A SOUTHERN INDUSTRIAL SATELLITE

On the outskirts of Birmingham, Ala., Corey is one of the best planned industrial towns in America so far as physical arrangement is concerned. The town has not been fully developed, owing to the fact that the steel and wire mill, although built two years ago, has not been put into operation by the United States Steel Corporation. The Corporation, however, has announced that work will now begin to complete the plant and start it running. There are other manufacturing establishments on the other side of the railroad tracks. The postmaster general has been asked to approve a change of the town's name to Fairfield.

have adopted. Provision is made for hearings, should a city object to any plan proposed by the land owners, before the board can give its approval.[1]

The Ontario act was hailed by the *Canadian Municipal Journal* as "a great advance in municipal planning," whose provisions "will prevent the unreasonable plans which real estate speculators have been in the habit of providing outside city limits. . . . Fortunately in Ontario such over-riding of public rights by private whims is now stopped." The Legislature of New Brunswick this year passed a town-planning act along similar lines.

In our own country some degree of control over the platting of outlying land has been given to cities in Michigan, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey and Wisconsin. In the latter state this authority extends to all territory within a mile and a half of the city boundary, and in Michigan to land within three miles of the limits of the municipality.

Under legislation enacted only last month, Massachusetts cities and towns of more than 10,000 population are authorized and directed to create a local planning board not only to plan for the future but to study the present situation. These boards will make social surveys of their communities and use the information not only to guide town planning but to remedy existing evils. All the work of the local boards will be carried on under the general supervision of the Massachusetts Homestead Commission.

A bill has passed the New York state Legislature giving cities and villages power to appoint planning commissions, with authority, however, only to investigate and report. On a few matters other bodies may be required to suspend action until after such reports are received. In about fifteen other states city-planning legislation of one sort or another is being considered.

The last Pennsylvania Legislature authorized a city-planning commission for Pittsburgh with power to recommend new streets and highways, changes in existing ones and locations for public buildings, playgrounds, boulevards and civic centers. All plots or replots of land laid out for residential subdivisions are to be submitted to it for approval before they can be recorded. An effort was made to give this commission power to prescribe new streets three miles beyond the city's limits, but the Legislature refused to grant this.

The present session of the Pennsylvania Legislature has enacted a law providing for the creation of "metropolitan planning districts" embracing the territory within twenty-five miles of cities of the first and second classes (Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and Scranton). By the terms of this measure each district is to have a "metropolitan planning commission" on which, either directly or indirectly, each political unit shall be represented. Each commission is to plan for its metropolitan area such facilities of common concern as water, sewage disposal, main highways and park systems.

The example, of course, for this sort of collective action by a group of cities and towns is to be found in the commission government of Boston's metropolitan district. Some of the advocates of this legislation feel that through it better results can be secured than through the annexation of suburbs. It is a fair question whether the advantages claimed for local autonomy—that some things can be done better by the progressive small community than by the big unwieldy city, and that local loyalties are worth conserving—outweigh the disadvantages when one laggard small community obstructs the best interests of the group as a whole. The problem is not dissimilar to that involved in getting uniform legislation in several states. Even under

[1]One important restriction is that the board is not permitted to authorize the laying out of any road or street less than sixty-six feet in width. If this curtails freedom to make the paving narrow it is most unfortunate. For, as has already been pointed out, an important factor in the success of the English garden suburbs is the careful study of each street's function as determining the pavement width so as to economize in the cost of development and keep down rents. By an adequate minimum distance between houses on different sides of a street, plenty of space may be left to widen a narrow street pavement if the future use of the street should make that necessary, and meanwhile the initial cost of greensward is decidedly less than that of macadam.



SCIENTIFIC FREIGHT HANDLING SUCH AS THE BUSH TERMINAL AFFORDS



POWER, RAIL AND WATER UNITED FOR FACTORY EFFICIENCY
The Bush Terminal, Brooklyn, gives small manufacturers the advantage of wholesale provision of space, power and shipping facilities.

the group action of metropolitan commissions, the inclination to shirk a part in the responsibilities of the district as a whole, while sharing the advantages of the proximity to a larger city, has been very clearly manifest in the attitude of Brookline and many another suburb which has fought annexation.

The emphasis which American town planners are beginning to put on definite schemes for the development of outlying neighborhoods—for constructive city building—is especially encouraging. They have heretofore concerned themselves chiefly with elaborate schemes for reconstructing the congested centers of our cities, widening streets and cutting new avenues, providing extensive boulevard and park systems, and capturing our imaginations with magnificent groupings of public buildings. Such plans are now being supplemented with the even more necessary efforts to guide natural expansion at the rim of the cities.

A competition recently held by the City Club of Chicago and the study conducted the past year by a special committee of the National Conference on City Planning have given stimulus to this trend, as did also the notable annual meeting of the conference held in Chicago May 5-7 of this year.[1]

The conditions in the Chicago competition made it bear very directly and practically on the problem of developing unimproved residential property for people of small or moderate means on the outskirts of the city. Each competing city planner was "given" a quarter section—160 acres—on level treeless prairie, with street-cars on two sides making the eight mile trip "downtown" in forty-five minutes; surrounding property subdivided in the prevailing gridiron fashion; scattered groups of frame and brick houses within a mile; large industrial plants half a mile to four miles distant, many of them within twenty minutes by foot or street-car. Each plan was to show street arrangement and width, grass plots, fore-gardens or planting of trees along them;

[1]See THE SURVEY for May 31, 1913, p. 301.



REMEDIES WASTE AND INEFFICIENCY DUE TO CONGESTION IN THE CITY'S CENTER.

size and arrangement of lots; location of dwellings; gardens; open spaces other than streets; and spaces for business, recreational, educational, religious, administrative and other social needs.

The hope was expressly stated that some of the plans might be adopted as the basis for actual developments. Thirty-nine plans were submitted from competitors in fourteen different cities. The first prize was won by Wilhelm Bernhard of Chicago (his plan is reproduced on another page); the second prize by Arthur C. Comey of Cambridge, Mass., and the third by Albert Lilienberg, chief of the town-planning department, Gottenberg, Sweden, and his wife, Siegrid Lilienberg. An especially hopeful result of the competition is the fact that the City Club has received many inquiries from manufacturers in various parts of the country desirous of getting information on practical plans for housing workmen in sanitary, attractive and inexpensive cottages.

The study conducted by the National Conference on City Planning represents a year's work by a committee which rendered its report, with nine plans from nine groups of participants in the study, at the Chicago meeting. The conditions laid down for this study were similar to those of the Chicago City Club competition as regards the character of the site and the broad lines of development, but they go much further in specifying the cost of the land at $2,500 an acre, the cost of such fundamental utilities as sewers, the provision of lighting and other public service facilities, and the rent to be expected from the prospective inhabitants. "The majority of the families will occupy dwellings commercially rentable at from $15 to $30 a month, while there must be provision for some families who can not afford to pay $15, and for a considerable minority who will demand residences rentable at from $30 to $100 a month or occasionally even higher." It was stipulated that developments were to be governed by the requirements defined in the building code approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and also in the model housing law as proposed by the National Housing Association. The plans were accompanied by detailed figures covering construction costs, interest on capital, profits and selling prices.

While such efforts are crystalizing our ideas of what ought to be, and a start has been made toward public supervision and control, we have yet to see an adequate concrete achievement. The "country club district," developed by Mr. Nichols in Kansas City, and Roland Park in Baltimore are among the admirable private efforts, but they are high-class residential neighborhoods. Forest Hills Gardens, the suburb built for investment purposes by the Russell Sage Foundation, is valuable as showing what can be done for middle-class or more prosperous residents, but almost unfortunate in the impression that has spread throughout the country that it shows "how to house the masses."

The English garden suburbs and the first garden city of Letchworth, developed as co-partnership associations of tenants, are most suggestive of success for us. These have been so often described[1] that it is scarcely necessary here to do more than restate their essentials, indicate their extent, and point out their recent application to the needs of low-paid workingmen, following their successful use for artisans.

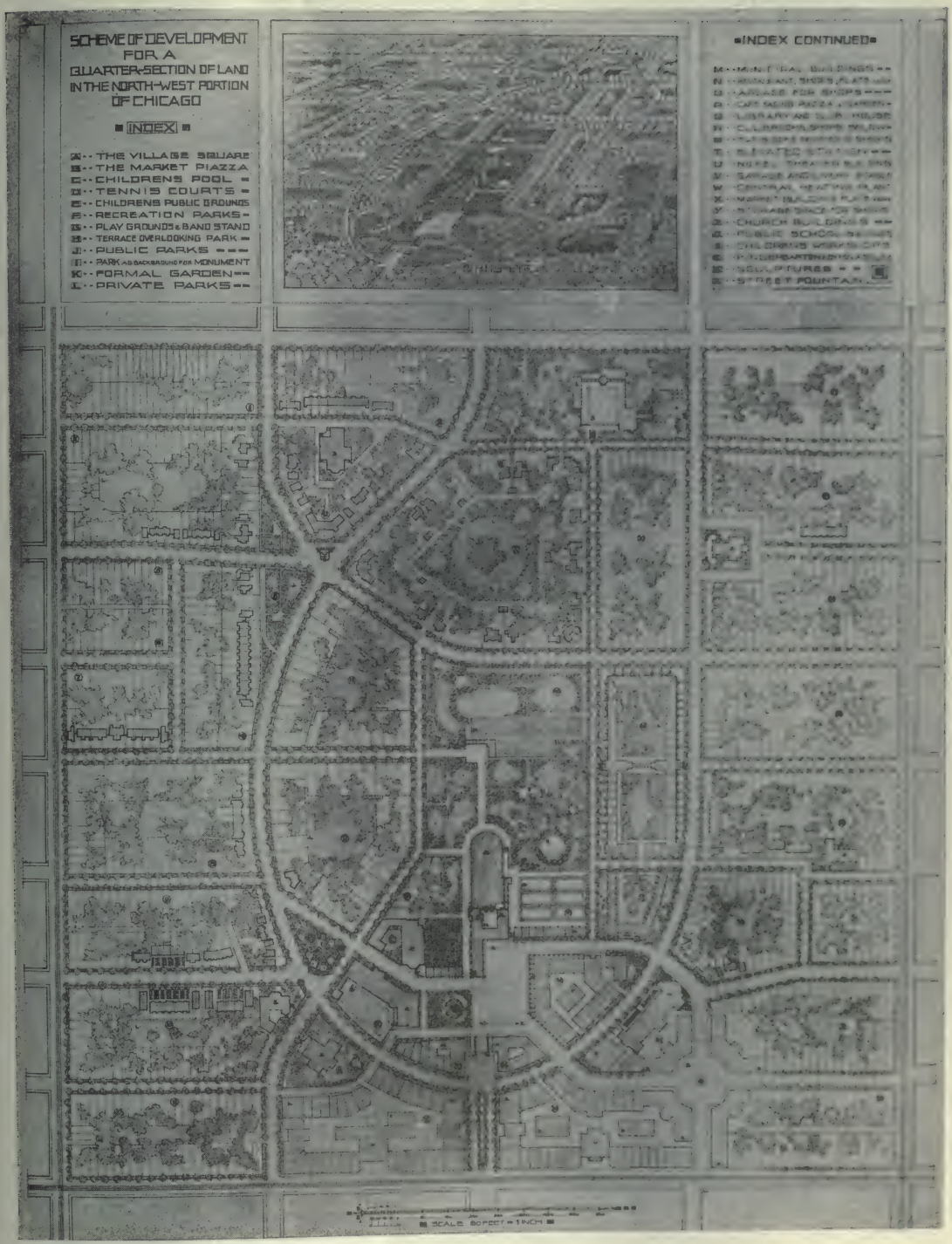
The fundamental element making for success in both the garden suburbs and the first garden city of Letchworth is collective planning, development and control. The garden suburbs provide dwellings and neighborhood social facilities, such as schools, playgrounds and other recreation features, churches, stores, club buildings and halls. But Letchworth goes further. In addition to all these needs for *living*, it provides for *livelihood*—not merely through planning the places for factories and workshops, but through selecting and actually securing the industries best calculated to provide a steady and sufficient economic basis for the town.

The co-partnership tenants' associations are in the main the organizations through which these developments are made possible. These organizations ensure that increase of land values created by community growth accrue to the community as a whole rather than to individuals. For each member of the association is a shareholder in it rather than the holder of a title to a particular house and lot. The capital is provided partly from outsiders interested in the success of the undertaking and so content with interest of 4 or 4½ per cent. But each tenant member of the association invests a small sum to begin with and undertakes to increase it gradually, his shares paying 5 per cent. The tenant's advantages have been summarized by Henry Vivian, member of Parliament and chairman of the co-partnership tenant's organization, substantially as follows:

"He gets a good house in attractive surroundings for a rent no higher than he would have to pay elsewhere. Should values go up he gets the benefit either in a dividend or rent.[2] He secures practically all the surplus profits after fixed charges have been met. He secures a social atmosphere which awakens new interests, and creates a collective friendship unknown under the individual system of ownership. He secures freedom from loss, should circumstances require him to leave the neighborhood. The

[1] See THE SURVEY for April 3, 1909, page 20.

[2] The Harborne Copartnership Tenants' Association is already able to pay 8 per cent dividends on rent in addition to the regular 5 per cent interest on invested capital. The tenants occupy attractive cottages at rents no higher than they paid previously for unsanitary slum tenements in congested sections of Birmingham.



PLANNING AT THE CITY'S EDGE

With this plan, Wilhelm Bernhard won the Chicago City Club's competition.

capital for building his house is provided at a cheaper rate than it could be obtained on any other system that is commercially sound.

"The tenants as a whole can relieve themselves of dependence on outside capital altogether by acquiring through investment or by accumulated capital the value of the property. By a gradual process, therefore, it lies with the tenants to transfer the ownership from non-tenant shareholders, who take the main risk to begin with, to the tenant shareholders who, it is hoped, may become the ultimate owners. The personal interest of the tenant in the prosperity of the community is secured, with a minimum of obstacles to the mobility of his labor and capital."

From a small beginning this copartnership tenants' movement has grown remarkably in ten years. It now includes nearly a score of societies with successful developments. The cost value of land and buildings of the federated societies was only $51,185 in 1903; in 1912 it had mounted to $6,250,000. When the present building operations are completed, for which further investments are required, the total value of the estates will be nearly $11,000,000 with 6,595 houses and 647 acres of land. Houses for artisans have been developed especially by the garden city tenants at Letchworth, where wood workers, joiners, motor-car makers and printers are numerous in the membership; the Harborne tenants whose members are workers employed in the various trades in Birmingham; and the Stoke-on-Trent tenants, many of whom are workers in potteries. Two new societies will provide for still lower paid workingmen: The Sealand tenants for the workers in a large iron works near Chester; and a society which is laying out an estate for the miners near Wrexham. Low rentals of houses already built are shown by the following table:

Houses.		Rents.	
653	below $1.50 a week	or	$ 78.00 a year
796	at 1.50-$2.00 a week	"	$78.00- 104.00 " "
439	" 2.00- 2.50 " "	"	104.00- 130.00 " "
373	" 2.50- 3.00 " "	"	130.00- 156.00 " "
156	" 3.00- 3.75 " "	"	156.00- 195.00 " "
86	" 3.75- 5.00 " "	"	195.00- 260.00 " "
95	over 5.00 " "	"	260.00 " "
2598			

Even allowing for the difference in purchasing power in England and the United States, these figures are sufficiently low to challenge our earnest attention in this country.

To what extent are the principles and methods of the English co-partnership garden suburbs and cities adaptable to America?

Many of the factors of economy which make low rents possible there are just as applicable here. Take collective buying and manufacturing. The federated copartnership tenant's societies send an agent to Norway to contract for all the lumber needed for their combined developments covering a year. Is not this paralleled in the purchase of supplies by every great combination of manufacturing plants in this country? At Letchworth, this federation has established its own wood-working mill and other shops to manufacture the materials for its building operations throughout England. Does this differ from the practice of our large industrial concerns which often operate their own printing establishments, box factories and the like both for convenience and to save contractors' profits? Again, is there any reason why the scientific study of the function and width of streets, which has brought down the expense of street improvements in these foreign developments, should fail to accomplish a similar lowering of such costs in this country?

It is true that American workingmen have not had much experience in co-operative methods as compared with British and German workingmen. But it is equally true that the only way to gain experience in co-operative methods is by undertaking to practice them. Trade unions and other organizations are teaching them group effort for a given end. The management of tuberculosis sanatoria, homes for the aged and crippled, and similar institutions has been successfully carried on for some time by printers, cigar makers and railway workers.

The spirit of individual enterprise and "American independence" is thought to be characteristic of middle-class business and professional men, yet the readiness with which they have yielded individual interest to neighborhood welfare is convincingly shown by their acceptance of the restrictions imposed in the residential area developed by Mr. Nichols in Kansas City. It is an easy step further, and an easier one, it would seem, for working people, to accomplish similar and greater results through associations in whose affairs they might have voice and vote.

Pride in individual home ownership may be urged as an American factor which would prevent a hearty acceptance of the principle of copartnership ownership. Yet the country where this principle has taken such vigorous root is the one where that pride has been supposed to be strongest—where the boast has been that "every Englishman's home is his castle."

What is needed most urgently in America today is the sense of stake in the whole community. We have seen how an improved housing scheme in Cincinnati suburbs is designed to make the workingman home buyer also a landlord through selling him a house with two flats, one of which he rents. This emphasizes the stake in the individual lot and house—the very thing which has so often proved most prejudicial to the proper development of a neighborhood. The co-partnership principle, while encouraging pride and effort in improving the house in which he dwells, gives every man a large interest in the whole neighborhood. The question is, shall we develop



CITY OUTSKIRTS—HAPHAZARD OR PLANNED?

A committee of the National Conference on City Planning enlisted nine groups of participants in a year's study. Of the nine plans, the one here reproduced needs explanatory text less than the others to show clearly the method of treatment.

civic spirit on a building lot or on a community scale?

The greater mobility of labor assured by the copartnership system is both an advantage and a disadvantage under American conditions. If a tenant member of a co-partnership society in Birmingham, for example, is offered a better position in another city, he does not face the handicap which confronts an individual home owner. He is not forced to sell quickly, which so often means a loss, nor does he have the difficulty and expense of managing his property from his new and distant home. The tenants' society assumes all the burden. His shares in the tenants' society will still bring dividends or the society will buy back his shares which will help to establish his new home. Perhaps he will find there another co-partnership tenants' association which he can join.

Would not sudden defection of many tenants ruin an association? The writer asked this question when visiting the Harborne tenants' estate at Birmingham. The secretary replied in the negative and took from his safe a convincing document. It was a list of several hundred applicants who were on the waiting list for the Harborne dwellings. "If every house on the estate were to become vacant tomorrow," he said, "we could fill them up in three weeks." This is assured, of course, in the copartnership garden surburbs by the very fact that they are surburbs and can thus draw on a large city's population. In the case of Letchworth, it has been the design to give stability—as already described—through diversity of industries.

Mobility of labor is admittedly greater in American than in England. Our fluctuations are often sudden and large. From this point of view, co-partnership tenants' associations and estates would therefore seem to be even more desirable to the American than to the English workingman. They would give him practically all the advantages of home ownership while not making a particular house a millstone around his neck or a means of putting him at the mercy of his employer. But this relative freedom to move might prove a serious handicap to the success of such associations in this country. It may well be asked whether the English associations would have been so successful without a strong permanent nucleus of tenants on each estate.

Much can be said against any factor in American life tending to increase a mobility



FLIMSY BOXES MARK REAL ESTATE EXPLOITATION.

which even now is perhaps a detriment to the stability and public spirit of our communities. But the co-partnership estates in England, while leaving the tenant free to move, provide, as Mr. Vivian points out, attractive surroundings and neighborly spirit which in themselves strengthen the desire of the tenant to remain. This is lacking in almost every American industrial town. We might well gain, by the introduction of the co-partnership principle, both a free scope for our mobility and a strong legitimate incentive to permanence of residence.

The difficulties of success in starting and conducting co-operative effort is increased in this country by our heterogeneous population. But careful selection of the places and the groups for the pioneer schemes would minimize this handicap.

The experience of many paternalistic housing schemes in this country shows that, along with wholesome, attractive dwellings and the economic advantages of low rents, there are sociological factors which are essential to the highest success. Autocratic control is now generally dismissed from consideration. Failure to provide for recreation and social life has impaired the success of many housing efforts which were otherwise carefully planned. Has not the lack of social control by the tenants been another handicap? If we now admit that facilities for *community* life are essential, does that not indicate that we may have discounted too much the social instincts and spirit of our fellow citizens? May not this very desire for *community* life indicate that people are more nearly ready than we suspect for co-operative effort?

Among the housing reformers who are public spirited enough to be content with "philanthropy and 4 per cent," may we not find capital at the same rate of interest for co-partnership undertakings? May not the public spirit of English business men who have given liberally of their experience and energy toward putting the co-partnership tenants' associations on a sound basis, find a parallel in America?

The managers of industrial corporations are vitally interested in good housing for their employes, both as a factor in health, which means efficient work people, and as a means of assuring a stable working force. But most of them are convinced that the roles of landlord and employer should not be combined. The industrial concerns which wish to use surplus funds in housing schemes might apply them through an organization formed to stimulate tenants' associations.

The building and loan associations of the United States give some indication of the extent to which home building utilizes the savings not only of those who are building houses but of small investors. According to the last report of the secretary of the United States League of Local Building and Loan Associations, there were in 1911, 6,099 associations having 2,332,829 members, and total assets of $1,030,687,031. The average amount due each member was nearly $441.81 as compared with $430.09, the average amount credited to each depositor in the savings banks. The regulations of a typical society provide: "That an investment of $5,000 is the largest accepted from any one individual; the dividend rate is 4½ per cent per annum and withdrawals are, during ordinary times, paid on demand; loans are on first mortgages only, in amounts never exceeding $10,000 on one security and they are made within a radius of twenty-five miles from the society's headquarters."

This billion of dollars is certainly not a negligible factor in considering the possibilities of copartnership tenants' associations. Indeed the point has already been well discussed before the league by a former president, Julius Stern of the Chicago bar, who had visited the garden cities of England. At the last convention of the league he said:

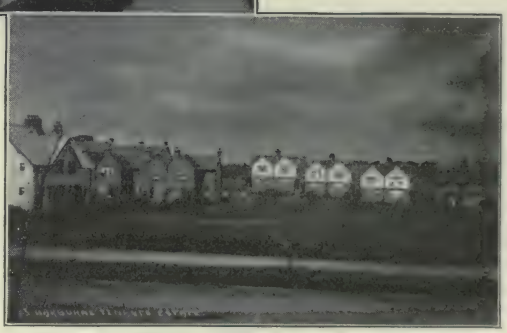
"The aim of the American associations hitherto may be summarized as the encouragement of habits of thrift by systematic economy and the accumulation, by the co-operation of many members, of a fund to be loaned to the co-operators in turn, upon a mortgage secured by a homestead, bought or built by the borrower; and the gradual extinguishment of the mortgage by regular, continued periodic payments, in moderate installments.





HARBORNE: AN ENGLISH CO-PARTNERSHIP SUBURB ON THE OUTSKIRTS OF BIRMINGHAM.

"The conditions of congestion and overcrowding confronting the cities of this country, as well as of Europe, must be met here and there; and what appears to be the happiest solution for these conditions, and one with which it seems to me the building associations are here best fitted to cope, if they will adapt themselves to the work, is that presented by the garden city and garden city suburbs movement which was started in England a few years ago."



After describing the suburbs of the English co-partnership tenants associations, he went on to say:

"This movement aims at the creation of real homes, each family under its own rooftree surrounded by ample grounds with plenty of light, air and the opportunity for healthful exercise in gardening during leisure hours, with its residential character protected against invasion and a collective interest in the advancing values of the communal ground.

"The work of our members in the past has been largely along utilitarian lines and has been so far well done. We have arrived at a point where an enlarged horizon lies before us and higher ethical ideals must outline our further progress. By collective undertakings in the future, we may surpass the achievements gained by individual efforts in the past, in securing not only homes that are a shelter, but homes that shall embody all the elements, physical, esthetic and moral, that the word "home" implies, with more of beauty within, more of protection from without, and achieved with greater economy than before.

"In order that we may avail ourselves of the benefits of this movement, and substitute our corporate action in fathering garden city projects, in place of the individual action of subdividing promoters, we must doubtless devise and obtain legislation permitting our associations to so broaden the sphere of their activities as to become purchasers of lands and builders of houses, or possibly to act in conjunction with auxiliary bodies upon which these functions might devolve; but judging from the extended powers which have of recent years been granted in some of the states to the Building and Loan Associations, permitting them to accept deposits, issue certificates, borrow moneys, and lend moneys to one another, we may fairly anticipate the obtaining of further privileges when the legislators can be shown that the objects are purely co-operative, the results so beneficial, and the investment so safely secured as has been demonstrated by the existing experimental cities abroad."

A committee of the league was appointed to study the matter and report at the next convention which is to be held this summer.

The importance and significance of the problems with which this series of articles has dealt are increasingly apparent. On following pages of this issue are brief discussions by several whose thought and efforts have been applied to

the subject in such a way as to give their words authority.

The great need is for a demonstration and example. Study and discussion concerning our own conditions and experience and the efforts abroad have already been sufficient to warrant a concrete undertaking. And a successful achievement in the form of a garden suburb or city, meeting the needs of an industrial population, and assuring the community as a whole the increase of land values, would go farther than any other one thing to give point and effectiveness and stimulus to the movement for better cities and neighborhoods in which so many of us have to live.

Our city planners have the problem in hand. Whether through the efforts of those who take satisfaction in "philanthropy and 4 per cent;" the loan of public funds at low interest; the help of industrial captains who are already finding removal from congestion so profitable, and who seek efficient workers through giving them a chance for escape from crowded tenements; the enlistment of the organizations which already have done so much to help the people of this country secure homes; or through the co-operation of all these groups and resources with those who seek only the chance for a wholesome life, it is to be hoped that we shall soon see an embodiment on our own soil of that which, in the English Letchworth, is giving reality to the vision of a sane and simple extension of democracy from the realm of politics into the affairs of industry and every-day life.

SATELLITE CITIES FROM VARIOUS VIEWPOINTS

THE HUMAN EMPHASIS. BY CHAS. MULFORD ROBINSON, City Planner; Author of Modern Civic Art.

The value of the series of articles on Satellite Cities is in their truthfulness, in their frank description of mistakes as well as of successes, and in their much needed and unusual emphasis on the human point of view.

In the discussion of the establishment of industrial plants on the outskirts of the city, we have heard much regarding such economic factors as cheaper land, lower taxes, room for expansion, better lighted buildings and the possible greater convenience of transportation facilities; but we have not heretofore heard enough about the human factor. This, since it represents labor, is, however, one of the most important elements in causing economic success or failure. If better living conditions and contentment shall give efficiency and stability to employes who live near suburban factories, the "satellite city" will have economically justified itself and will succeed. If these results do not follow, the city will not succeed.

Two reasons may prevent the desired results. Employes may not find the better conditions anticipated, or they may fail to move with the factory and give a trial to the conditions. Indicative of the latter possibility were the statistics showing the percentage of workers at Norwood and Oakley who still live in downtown Cincinnati—44.68, not to mention those in other sections who live so far from their work as also to suffer loss of time, of money, of energy and perhaps of health in daily railroad travel between their homes and the Norwood and Oakley workshops. As the article brought out, this anomalous condition created social and operative problems involving expense to employers as well as to employes.

Now, in removing labor to the outskirts of cities, there is a degree of inertia, a doubting conservatism and a habit to be overcome which need the allurment of advantages as unmistakable as those which are required to move the factory itself. And it should be clear that these advantages cannot be secured if there be failure to plan in advance the location and character of streets, and thus of lots, for to fail to plan these is to leave the employe at the mercy of land speculators. If he moves, conditions are little better than they were before; and in a great many cases he will fortunately foresee this outcome and decline to move. Either result must mean the sociological, and ultimately the economic, failure of the satellite city. Undoubtedly the series of articles by Mr. Taylor has been of great value in giving to this point, by means of examples good and bad, the emphasis it ought to have.

THE WAY OUT. BY GEORGE B. FORD, City Planning Expert for Newark, N. J. Lecturer at Columbia University.

As a residual impression from The Survey articles on Satellite Cities there stand out two vital facts: 1, The betterment of the workingman's living conditions can come only through the workingman himself; 2, An immense amount of discomfort, dreariness, unsanitariness and waste in workingmen's communities could have been avoided by the early application of scientific city planning.

Employers' welfare work has never proved really successful. Even in the best examples there is a certain underlying current of writhing under paternalism due to pride in American democracy, which causes the workingman to resent having his pabulum thrust down to him.

The big corporations and the lenders of money are telling employers who think of providing better housing, etc., for their employes that it is most inadvisable. The result is that there has been very little done along these lines for the past year or two.

The next choice is for the employe to submit himself to the tender mercies of the speculative

land operator and builder. We all know very well whose interest is being served in this case.

The third and only remaining choice is for the workingman to look out for himself. Singly, he is at a great disadvantage from lack of experience and because most things cost more in detail than they do in large quantities.

Therefore, it is obvious that the only effective solution of the problem is co-operative action on the part of workingmen. Just what form this co-operative action should take can be decided only by experiment though we have a splendid point of departure in the most successful English copartnership suburbs.

As to the medium through which such co-operative action can be taken it is evident that if something along this line already exists which has the confidence and support of the workingman advantage should be taken of it. In looking over the field for such a medium, one organization stands prominently before all others, the league of building and loan associations. The United States League of Building and Loan Associations represents a total invested capital of over $1,000,000,000 and represents over 2,500,000 members. Its power is tremendous and it does have the confidence of the workingman. Since its meeting at Atlantic City last July this organization has been considering the housing problem. A plan of action will soon be forthcoming. The possibilities in such a movement are enormous.

Large cities are spending millions today to widen streets, cut through new streets, provide parks and playgrounds in congested areas, almost all of which might have been saved if the city had been originally planned with foresight. Hundreds of millions are spent on hospitals, asylums, sanitoria, jails, health, police and fire departments, a large portion of which could have been saved if the cities had not been so wastefully and unscientifically designed.

For example, if the lot and block units and dimensions in sections surrounding the factories which moved to Norwood and Oakley, on the outskirts of Cincinnati had been laid out along lines which experience has shown to be most economical and desirable for workingmen's dwellings and if provision had been made for recreation for grown ups as well as for children as suggested by the English garden suburbs the neighborhood of the factories would now be almost exclusively occupied by the employes in those factories instead of largely by clerks and business men who commute daily to Cincinnati. And furthermore, the slum problem of Cincinnati itself would be vastly less urgent. If the lots were cut for the occupant instead of the occupant being trimmed to the lot; if streets and roadways were designed in location, direction, character and width for use and not according to obsolete precedent; if transit lines were designed with the same efficiency that the manufacturer exhibits in designing his own plant; if people could only realize that money spent in scientifically designed recreational facilities is paid back in many ways to the community, then the workingmen's residential area, instead of being an eyesore and a disgrace to the community, would be what the English garden suburbs now are, the most charming and efficient housing areas to be found anywhere in the world.

The problem is simple. It requires first, merely an appreciation of the fact that city planning pays; and second, it requires a co-operative effort on the part of the workingmen to secure such scientific city planning.

It can be done and we are confident that the next few years will prove it beyond all question of doubt so that even the blindest will see.

CO-PARTNERSHIP HOUSING. BY HENRY VIVIAN, M. P., CHAIRMAN CO-PARTNERSHIP TENANTS, LTD., ENGLAND.

THE TREND of population from cities to new areas on the outskirts is good for the individual and the nation, provided the suburbs are planned with a view to the development of a healthy people. But unless care is taken at the outset and a standard of housing maintained, many of the new districts will degenerate into the condition of congested areas as we know them today.

It is not enough to devise rows of houses along geometrically planned streets; such monotony of outlook is almost as depressing as life in a crowded city tenement. As the leisure hours of the people increase the organization of their pleasures will become as important as the utilization of their working day. And if spare time is to be spent near the home, the home must be placed in surroundings that give it a magnetic quality for the wage-earner.

THE SURVEY'S Satellite Cities series indicates an awakening to this fact in the United States.

In England we find that better health and mental vigor of the workers are a result of the garden suburb movement, notably in the case of printers, carpenters and others who have left London to work in the co-partnership factories at the garden city of Letchworth. None can question the advantages of a good natural environment over the squalid surroundings that are too often the lot of the working man.

But the articles on Satellite Cities bring out a further point of importance, viz., that "house ownership may often be a very doubtful advantage to the working man." It may hamper his mobility when opportunity for advancement offers elsewhere, and it is often risky as well as expensive for workmen to try to buy, on the usual individualistic plan, the houses in which they live. Assuming that an estate has been laid out and houses built in a satisfactory way, the system of ownership and administration determines whether the value of a good beginning is realized by the community.

If sites and houses are sold to individual purchasers without adequate restrictions, the chances are that some of these will soon part with their property to undesirable people, who will use it in such a way as to frustrate the good intentions of those who laid out the estate. If one or two houses in a street pass into the permanent owner-

ship of undesirables, who rack-rent and otherwise misuse the property, the value of the whole street rapidly diminishes. The system which encourages the workman to buy his own house, but creates no interest on the part of the residents in keeping up the character of a neighborhood as a whole makes no provision for dealing with such evils.

Co-partnership in housing, which is now developing in various parts of England, is giving the sense of ownership to the tenants without the disadvantages of the individualistic system. The policy of admitting tenants to participate in the profits of an estate and enabling them to become investors in its capital seems to meet the situation better than any other plan yet devised. It gives them the educational advantage and stimulus to economy which arises from a sense of individual ownership, combined with safeguards to prevent such ownership expressing itself in an anti-social direction. On these estates facilities for open-air recreation, indoor social pleasures and the delights of gardening interests are enjoyed in common. The limitation of the number of houses to the acre and the provision of ample open spaces secure for town-dwellers new interest in life and give children a chance for healthy development.

The experience gained in this movement proves that it is to the interest of the whole nation that the areas on which people are to live shall previously be planned to prevent a reversion to the old evils. Moreover, the fresher outlook and keener vigour associated with men living on estates thus planned is a considerable factor in the national efficiency. In other words, the long view in housing is the best security for the future.

We need to limit not only the number of houses per acre, but also the number of persons per house. The injury to health of overcrowding has been demonstrated again and again, but the facts recently brought to light by Maxwell Henderson, medical officer of health for Edinburgh, will be new to readers of THE SURVEY. Mr. Henderson had the city divided into its different wards and compared the relationship of the death rate with the number of one and two roomed houses in each ward. The following table shows the result of his inquiry:

Ward.	Deaths per 1,000.	No. of 1 and 2 roomed houses.
St. Bernard's	7	739
St. Andrew's	9	1,315
Calton	10	1,715
Gorgie	11	2,225
Dairy	11	3,332
George Square	13	5,462
St. Leonard's	13	3,731
Canongate	14	2,699
St. Giles	15	6,978

In this connection it seems clear:

1. That badly arranged tenements, congested populations existing in them, and an undue density of population per acre go hand in hand with an increase in the death and sickness rates.

2. That the subdivision of dwelling houses with a view to creating an increased number of a smaller description, contributes towards the foregoing evils and should be rigorously prevented.

3. That while tenement dwelling houses may be provided in cities for sections of the community, the height of these and the number of persons which each is capable of accommodating are matters which call for increased supervision and if necessary legislation.

4. That a well-arranged colony system of dwelling is highly preferable and certainly immeasurably more healthful, and that, therefore, where possible such buildings should be erected in preference to tenements.

5. That the existence and spread of tuberculosis has an unquestionable connection with and bearing upon the class of dwelling houses, and that the supervision of suitable housing accommodations should be regarded as the primary step in future efforts to effectually deal with this disease.

FACTORS IN PLANT EFFICIENCY.

BY IRVING T. BUSH, BUSH TERMINAL COMPANY, NEW YORK.

THE INDUSTRIAL SUCCESS of any community ultimately depends upon facilities for the economical shipping and receiving of freight. Labor conditions do not differ materially in competing centers, and it is possible to create modern factory buildings about as well in one location as in another. The difficult problem is that of shipping and receiving freight. In the older cities, industrial locations were chosen without reference to a railroad siding. Competition with newer communities, where factories were located directly adjoining railroads, has placed the older cities at a disadvantage, and modern competition is so keen that the cost of carting the crude material from the railroad to the factory, and the finished product from the factory to the railroad, is, in many cases, the difference between profit and loss. It is not sufficient to secure a location upon one railroad. Adequate facilities require a location upon all the railroads serving a given center.

Older communities, while at a disadvantage from the standpoint of rail facilities, possess many other advantages which newer communities cannot duplicate. Existing cities should strive to maintain their advantages and to create conditions which will overcome their shipping disadvantages. To do this, they must either bring the railroad car to the factory, or take the factory to the railroad car. In many of the great cities, it is obviously impossible to do the former. The solution seems to be to create union manufacturing centers just outside of the congested area, where the cars of all of the railroads can serve the industries there located. This arrangement not only protects the industrial welfare of the community adopting it, but lessens the congestion in the city streets, for instead of uselessly

hauling back and forth between the railroad station and the shipping room the crude and manufactured product, only such portion of the finished product as is required for actual consumption within the congested area is hauled through the city streets.

Industrial centers of this kind, on the outskirts of great cities, are built on the sound principle of the elimination of unnecessary effort. If this principle is successfully carried out the industries will flourish. Labor will follow the industry, and a fortunate by-product result in the bettering of the home conditions of the laborer by moving him away from the congested area into better living conditions.

PLANNING FOR METROPOLITAN NEEDS. BY ANDREW WRIGHT CRAWFORD, PHILADELPHIA BAR.

THE ARTICLES on Satellite Cities have brought out the necessity of making our city plans co-extensive with the community that uses the city and of providing for social needs in the enlarged sphere. By "city community" I mean the community marked, not by arbitrary legal limits, but by the daily ebb and flow of the population, whether that movement is the customary one from the suburbs to the center of the city in the morning and vice versa at night, or the reverse as is the case in the suburbs of Cincinnati. To this end co-operation must in some way be secured among all the communities within the radius of that ebb and flow—a radius that is apt to be not less than twenty-five miles in extent—or else annexation and consolidation must follow.

Personally, I believe that in most of the suburban communities of the country annexation is not desired and not desirable. The smaller community can frequently do better for itself in many respects than the enlarged city would do for the district. It is true that Pullman seems to be an example to the contrary but I am inclined to think that this is true because of the mistaken character of Pullman originally, a character that is not typical of other suburban boroughs and towns; hence its example is misleading.

If the metropolitan needs of the community referred to are met by a metropolitan scheme of organization, local matters can be left to local authority. I believe that it is only through metropolitan planning that metropolitan needs can be met and consolidation and annexation postponed. If Boston had not conceived the idea of its Metropolitan Sewer Commission, its Metropolitan Water Commission, its Metropolitan Park Commission, the thirty-eight communities within the metropolitan area would by this time have been compelled to come under one city government.

By "metropolitan planning needs" I refer, for instance, to the sewer system, the sewage disposal system, the water system, the main highway system, the park system, and other community needs upon which joint action could advantageously be secured.

The sewer systems of certain political units adjacent to Philadelphia naturally drain into its sewer system. There should be one sewage disposal plant for these political units. If they had some method by which the cost of a single plant could be divided among them, I am sure they would all co-operate readily, but as yet there is no such provision.

Thoroughfares should be continuous. A man wants to go from one point to another regardless of whether he crosses one or five or twenty-five governmental units; it makes no difference to him in his immediate work, nor to the community. What is wanted are direct thoroughfares.

The water system naturally should be one system.

The park system should likewise be one. While it is desirable to preserve for park purposes the beautiful valleys near Philadelphia, the desirability is increased five-fold if they are to constitute one continuous park connection for several governmental units.

There is need of planning for the metropolitan area, an area of twenty or twenty-five miles radius. The same need has been felt in other cities. For example, Boston has created three metropolitan commissions, for water, sewage and parks, and a preliminary commission on highways. Pittsburgh feels the need, and Mayor Magee urges the metropolitan district idea for Pittsburgh.

This recognition is not confined to the United States. An article by the city engineer of Liverpool, complains of the fact that the local boards outside of Liverpool do not co-operate as they should to put through metropolitan schemes, and he points out the difficulties. At the Conference on Destitution which met some months ago in London, Charles C. Reade, editor of the New Zealand *Graphic* and a delegate from Australia, declared:

"There is a conspicuous and characteristic problem before, not only Sydney, but all the Australasian cities, and that is the proper control and direction of their suburban areas. It is somewhat remarkable that whilst the central areas have been consciously planned and laid out on a scale far superior to many older English cities, whilst the concrete example of civic orderliness is before them, the suburbs have been permitted to grow in haphazard fashion. This is well illustrated by the case of Auckland, a conspicuous example of what rapid development, land speculation, and municipal failure to control the growth is producing in the newer suburban districts of Australasian cities. The fundamental difficulty which faces them all is the existence of numerous local bodies within the metropolitan area. In Auckland, for instance, there are sixteen, Adelaide has nineteen, Melbourne twenty-two, and Sydney no less than forty-two. The confines of these cities are frequently in the hands of bodies that correspond in character to the English urban district councils. There is no cohesion or comprehensive system for seeing that new roads or 'estates' are so planned as to fit into and become an in-

tegral part in the design of the cities as a whole."

The question is one that affects every metropolitan city in the world. The efforts to grapple with it in Pennsylvania were initiated in Philadelphia, where there was recently held a Suburban Planning Conference to which representatives of the 132 governmental units within 25 miles of Philadelphia were invited. As a result, a bill has been passed by the Pennsylvania Legislature creating suburban metropolitan districts embracing areas of twenty-five miles radius beyond the limits of cities of the first class—Philadelphia being the only one. The measure provides for the creation of a commission, which shall plan for the metropolitan needs of the district, and shall formulate plans covering any particular need brought to its attention by any one of the governmental units embraced in the district. Reports with recommendations are to be submitted by the commission each year to each of the governmental units. These are to be followed in so far as each such unit shall decide. The expense of planning, divided among 132 governmental units in proportion to their population will not be serious for any one of them. This metropolitan planning measure follows a law enacted two years ago creating city planning commissions in cities of the second class. All plotting of land in such a city and within three miles beyond its limits must be approved by the commission, which also has power to make recommendations concerning the laying out and development of land in this area.

Good plans, brought forward by a responsible body and published broadcast so that people know them, do get carried out. What further legislation may be necessary in the future we can not now predict, but I believe that the inherent power merely to plan will be of great benefit to these metropolitan areas.

FACTORY AND HOME.[1] BY JOHN NOLEN, LANDSCAPE ARCHITECT, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

THE BEST sites in which to secure factory efficiency are those which afford cheap land in large unbroken blocks—this means lower investment and a ground floor system of factory construction which permits of well lighted, ventilated and supervised work rooms; freight facilities; and advantages in obtaining and holding employes who are well housed at low rates in a good environment. Such locations can best be found or provided on the outskirts of a city.

The more important advantages that would seem to be assured to workmen's homes in the outskirts as against homes in the city are as follows:

(a) The first and most important is the opportunity for relatively cheap land. It is seldom that a workman can afford a home (house and land) valued higher than $2,000 or $3,000. This would mean a rent equivalent, perhaps, of from $15 to $25 a month or from $180 to $300 a year, and would require probably an income of from $750 to $1,200 a year. On this assumption, the workmen under consideration could scarcely afford to own or occupy land valued at more than from $400 to $600. In the outskirts it would be often possible for this sum to obtain a tenth or an eighth, or even a larger portion of an acre, which would make possible the construction of a satisfactory detached or semi-detached single family home with a garden large enough for pleasure and for profitable cultivation. In the central tenement section of a city this sum invested in land would probably not command more than one-eightieth of an acre.

(b) In the outskirts a workman would have the advantage of being near (and yet it should not be too near) his work and the incidental saving of time and carfare. This might amount in a year to as much as $30, equivalent to 5 per cent interest on $600, just about enough, in fact, to cover the value of his land. Proximity to work in many cases would also permit the workman to return to his home for a hot midday meal or to have such a meal brought to him by some member of his family, a decided advantage from the point of view of health, pleasure and family life.

(c) A home in the outskirts would place a workman close to the open, rural country and to the city's outlying larger parks, a situation particularly advantageous for the health, education and recreation of his wife and children.

(d) In order that a home in the outskirts may be acceptable to the average workman, two additional advantages are virtually indispensable. First, there should be certain local utilities and facilities, such as pure water, sewers, gas, electricity, well-paved streets and sidewalks, local stores, schools, playgrounds and parks; lodges, churches, saloons (or some satisfactory substitute); cheap theaters, refreshment gardens, social centers, etc. The workman, if he is to live happily in the outskirts, with proper use of leisure time, needs a well-planned and well-developed local community, a place that has the attractions of the regulated model factory village or so-called "garden suburb" or "garden city." The successful establishment of such a community requires democratic co-operation, town planning, and, to some extent, numbers. The costs of public utilities and private convenience are heavy for a popula-

(Continued on page 364.)

[1] Mr. Nolen's contribution is a part of a paper he read at the last annual conference of the National Housing Association.

Though working entirely independently, with a different approach to the problems and in some respects a very different point of view, Mr. Nolen in his paper gives expression to views and conclusions strikingly similar to many of those in Mr. Taylor's articles.

THE I. W. W., AN OUTLAW ORGANIZATION

An outlaw is "a person excluded from the benefit of the law or deprived of its protection."—BLACKSTONE.

JOHN A. FITCH

EQUAL protection of the laws is one of the guaranties of the federal constitution. No one may be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law. "Equality before the law" is a much quoted phrase supposed to sum up American principles and practice. Is there a provision anywhere in our charter law allowing the police to suspend these rules in the case of "agitators," "disturbers" or "anarchists"? Are there people in America whose beliefs and manner of living are so repugnant to popular ideals that they may be said to have no rights that any good citizen is bound to respect?

If it is generally believed that a negative answer may unhesitatingly be given to these question it is pertinent to consider a little recent history concerning that new and revolutionary labor organization, the Industrial Workers of the World.

Against this body are arrayed the forces of present-day society. It is denounced by the press, thundered against by the pulpit and anathematized by the spokesmen of the business world.

There is an opposition that thinks it sees in the philosophy underlying the movement not constructive change, but chaos and ruin, and so resists the organization's advance. But this resistance is by legitimate means; for if these people see peril in this new philosophy, they believe there is greater peril in setting aside the law to suit the convenience of those in authority.

There is another opposition—and today it seems to be the larger and stronger—that regards the I. W. W. as a peril that must be resisted to the end. But this element, partly through ignorance, partly through the excitement of fear and partly through a consciousness of illegitimately acquired possessions, is willing that the organization be repressed even illegally and with flagrant disregard of the constitutional rights of individuals.

Something over a year ago I. W. W. agitators in San Diego persisted in speaking on a street corner where the police had said they must not speak. From that action alone grew vigilance committees of citizens, who, in defiance of law and of inviolable rights of individuals, masked themselves and kidnapped the disturbers, rushed them out into the desert, ill treated and tortured them and warned the survivors never to return.

During the Lawrence strike the police arrested two of the most effective strike leaders on a charge of murder that was proved baseless, while a soldier who stabbed a youth to death with his bayonet was never asked to make formal explanation of the circumstances of the deed. Without authority, the police endeavored to prevent strikers from sending their children out of town to be cared for and fed. Transcending all this, prominent citizens planted dynamite in the houses of the strikers where it was later conveniently "found," and thus the impression fostered that they intended to use it as a strike weapon.

The strike of textile workers at Little Falls, N. Y., conducted by the I. W. W. was marked by police aggression. There was considerable violence during the three months' tie-up and the strikers were guilty of a share of it. But on the part of the police, there was violation of constitutional rights. The right of free speech was interfered with, and acts of incredible violence were charged against the officers of the law. They interfered with strangers on the street, they locked union organizers in a condemned jail with no charges against them, they raided the strikers' headquarters and confiscated private property and they assaulted strikers at night, returning from their meetings. As a final evidence of their desire to put obstacles in the strikers' way they even tried to close up the soup kitchen where hungry men were being fed.

Now it is Paterson, N. J., that is in a turmoil over the I. W. W. The strike that has tied up the entire silk industry there has been on since February 25. It cannot be without cause that working people numbering tens of thousands continue on strike, their incomes absolutely cut off, for a period of three months. Yet there is very little talk in Paterson today, outside the ranks of the strikers, about the grievances, real or imagined, of the silk workers. In the offices, stores and cafés, in the meetings of the ministerial association, in the Charity Organization Society, in most of the papers and at the firesides of the more comfortable citizens, there is but one topic of conversation—the I. W. W.

There is a special reason for the feeling prevailing in Paterson. Justly or unjustly, Paterson has long been noted as the home of anarchists. In remote corners of the continent this report has found its way where nothing else about this New Jersey city is known. The citizens of Paterson know that there is ordinarily as little disorder in their town as in any other of its size. They know



THREE OF THE I. W. W. LEADERS AT PATERSON
From left to right the three are Carlo Tresca, Elizabeth Gurley Flynn and William D. Haywood

that, besides this, it is an unusually attractive place in which to live, with its comfortable houses. wide lawns and broad streets lined with trees. It has been said that there are no slums in Paterson, and while this may not be exactly true, confortable and sanitary housing conditions seem to be more general than is the rule among industrial cities.

It is but natural that there should be resentment at the popular misconceptions regarding Paterson—misconceptions based as much upon ignorance of what anarchy is as upon lack of familiarity with the town itself. Perhaps it is also natural that this should have led to an unusually violent reaction against the I. W. W. when the revolutionary leaders of that organization appeared in Paterson. But, after all, the sentiment there differs only in degree, if at all, from that existing in every other place where there have been I. W. W. strikes.

"The I. W. W. must go" is the sentiment that has prevailed at every council of disinterested citizens anxious to aid in ending the strike. On April 9 a great meeting was held in Paterson called by the Board of Aldermen to discuss the strike. The clergy of Paterson were there. They had been holding meetings for several weeks—Jews, Catholics and Protestants, all together—trying to find a reasonable basis for a settlement. I do not recall having observed in any other city such active and united interest in social and industrial matters, on the part of the clergy. They came to this meeting with some resolutions. The first of these put the ministers on record as having sympathy for the unfortunate and as favoring justice for all men. The second declared that "any strike is foredoomed to failure if led by men who proclaim the doctrine of sabotage, lawlessness and the dissolution of society." Later the chairman of the committee of ministers said to the audience, made up principally of striking silk workers: "Gentlemen, I wish to inform you that one of the things which the clergy do not approve of is the leadership of the working people by anyone except the silk workers of Paterson."

The manufacturers were represented at this meeting by one of their number who read a statement embodying the views of the manufacturers' associations. The statement read as follows:

> "First: We have at all times declined to meet any committee of employes representing strikers as a body, knowing, as we do, that they are completely dominated by the I. W. W.
>
> "Second: On the other hand, individually, we have always been and are still willing to

meet our own employes, who are independent of the I. W. W., to discuss any grievances they may have."

Among the professional people and the well-to-do in Paterson the feeling is quite general that the strikers may reasonably be expected to repudiate Haywood and the other leaders before any negotiation looking to a settlement can be entered into by the employers. In talking with some of the business and professional people, I have been much interested when some said that the "outside agitators" had no right to come to Paterson, and others, upon what authority I do not know, that some of the I. W. W. leaders are persons of unconventional morals and that for that reason the strikers should repudiate them.

In spite of these statements, it is clear that the reason for the opposition is not that the leaders are from out of town, for the very people who oppose them on that ground welcomed the representatives of the American Federation of Labor who came from Massachusetts to organize a "respectable" union. Nor is the opposition due to any belief, however sincere, that the leaders are immoral, for I found none who made this charge who would say that *all* of the several hundred employers affected, none of whom are being asked to leave town, are men whose private lives are above criticism.

So these reasons are evidently not the real basis of the opposition. Rather, as a prominent Paterson clergyman said, "the crux of the matter is the I. W. W."

What has impressed me more than anything else is the attitude of the so-called "best people." They find it difficult to talk calmly about the I. W. W. More than once I have had Patersonians, wearing immaculate linen and irreproachable clothing, men who pride themselves on preserving the amenities, shouting at me, red-faced and gesticulating, their denunciations of Haywood and his fellows.

"These people never should have been permitted to come here at all," said one; "but having come they should be driven out. It is to the disgrace of Paterson that they have been allowed to remain."

A prominent business man with whom I talked told me with a calmness that carried conviction what he thought was the temper of the citizens of Paterson. He said:

"There is a feeling that the police have made mistakes and those mistakes are regretted, but there would nevertheless be no hesitancy about supporting the police in any action they might choose to take looking to a curtailing of the power and influence of the I. W. W. If the police had gone to the station the day the agitators first arrived, put them back on the train and compelled them to leave, or if they had by any other method deported them from this community they would have received general approbation and support."

"But," I ventured, "it would not be lawful for the police to take such action."

"No," he replied, "it wouldn't."

"It would generally be considered very dangerous to set aside some other law in that way—say the laws protecting property rights," I suggested.

"It would be," was his answer.

"Then it makes a difference on which foot the shoe is."

"That's just what it does," said he, "a big difference."

So there you have it. Paterson, like every other place where the I. W. W. has appeared, denounces the leaders of this new organization as preachers of violence, lawlessness and anarchy; and then proposes that methods frankly violent, lawless and anarchistic be used against them. I use the word "proposes" advisedly. It has gone beyond mere generalization and has reached the stage of concrete proposal.

At a meeting of citizens who had formed themselves into a voluntary conciliation board, one of the members was quoted as saying that at Akron, Ohio, recently a committee of citizens had "driven the anarchistic horde" out of town, and that the example thus set should be followed in Paterson. "The sooner they are gotten out the better," said this conciliator. If this were not done, he declared that the city would have to go out of business. "But if we have to go down and out, let us go down fighting."

A leading afternoon paper published in Paterson has openly and repeatedly with display editorials on its front page urged the formation of vigilance committees to drive out the agitators. It sent an inquiry to San Diego to learn in detail the methods employed there. It published the reply, which, however, omitted some of the facts and urged that the example be followed in Paterson.

"Los Angeles, Akron, Denver, Ottawa and other cities kicked the I. W. W. out of town in short order," said this paper one day, adding significantly, "What is Paterson doing to discourage this revolutionary horde?" Another time, referring to Haywood, this appeal was featured at the end of a front page editorial:

"Akron, Ohio, could not find a law to banish this dangerous revolutionist and his cohorts, but a citizens' committee of 1,000 men did the trick in short order. *Can Akron, Ohio, accomplish something that Paterson, N. J., cannot duplicate? The Paterson Press dislikes to believe it. But time will tell.*"

Perhaps the most plainly worded suggestion that has been made was contained in a letter signed "Civil War Veteran" which was published

on the front page of the *Paterson Press* on March 29. The writer said:

"Things have got into such a state that it is high time for some one to wake up and do something, and if we are to have new cemeteries, that they be filled with just such people as those who are now making the disturbance— the first graves to be filled with Haywood and his crowd. Why are such people permitted to remain in the city? . . . I was in the Civil War and fought for what I thought was right and think I could still handle my musket and make it do duty against such a rabble as we are up against now, and I voice the sentiment of many of my comrades."

It is in such an atmosphere as this that the police of Paterson have lived during the last three months. THE SURVEY has had an account of the arrest of Haywood and Lessig on March 30 and of their sentence in the Recorder's Court to six months in jail on a charge of unlawful assemblage.[1] On April 5 they were ordered released by Justice Minturn of the Supreme Court of New Jersey. Justice Minturn declared that he was unable to discover from the testimony that any meeting had been held, still less an unlawful one. He found that so far were the two men from violating any law or police regulation that at the very time of their arrest they were acting in scrupulous obedience to the orders of the chief of police himself.

There have been during the strike more than 1,000 arrests of strikers. Some of them have been given jail sentences on a charge of disorderly conduct and some have been held for a hearing before the grand jury on a charge of "unlawful assemblage." And yet I have the word of the chief of police of Paterson that, considering numbers and duration, this is one of the most peaceful strikes on record. No silk worker desiring to return to work, the chief told me on May 22, has ever needed police protection against the pickets, and there has not been a single case of assault on a "scab" by a striker that has come to the knowledge of the police.

Quinlan, one of the strike leaders, has been convicted of inciting to riot. His conviction angered the strikers and increased their bitterness toward the police who were the chief witnesses. A few days afterward at a meeting in Turn Hall a sort of general riot was precipitated by the presence of a dozen plain clothes policemen and a stenographer who was taking down the speeches of the strike leaders. It was reported that the representatives of the law were surrounded and threatened with violence and that they prevented an attack only by drawing their revolvers.

That night the Board of Police and Fire Commissioners held a meeting and decided to order the closing of Turn and Helvetia Halls for meetings of strikers. This left the strikers without a meeting place in the city of Paterson. Since this order they have been walking to Haledon, a borough just outside the city of Paterson, where they have freely expressed their opinions of the Paterson authorities.

I asked the mayor of Paterson under what law the halls had been closed to the strikers. He said that it was done "in the interests of decency and of the welfare of Paterson."

"But what legal justification for this action was there"? I asked.

"The strikers gave all the justification necessary," said the mayor, "by their actions."

After that I asked the chief of police what particular law authorized the closing of the halls. "No law," he answered at once. "We could close them if there had been a complaint that they are disorderly places, and there hasn't been any complaint—yet. But we could have a complaint quick enough if we needed it."

The chief then explained to me that the strikers would not be permitted to meet in any hall in Paterson, but that they could meet outdoors on private property if they could get the consent of the owners.

One further event throws light on the temper of the citizens of Passaic County. On May 22 Justice Minturn of the Supreme Court of New Jersey signed an order requiring the drawing of a jury from outside the county to hear the cases of the indicted strike leaders. Of these, Quinlan, the only one who has so far faced a Passaic County jury, has been convicted. Justice Minturn gives as a reason for the order his opinion that "a fair and impartial trial of the said defendants cannot at this time be had before a jury of the said county of Passaic."

There must be grave reasons behind all this hostility to a labor organization. It would not mean so much if only the police authorities were willing to set aside the law during a strike—they have both custom and distinguished precedent to guide them. It would not mean so much if only a few hot-headed private citizens should be advocating violent measures. But it does mean a good deal when a particular organization is met by a lawless opposition wherever it appears, whether in the conservative East or the radical West; and when opposition of that character apparently has the support of a majority of the "best citizens," it shows that, whether correctly or not, there is a general feeling that this organization is a menace to society.

Without making any attempt at a logical analysis of industrialist philosophy, I will mention the things that seem to me to account for this tooth-and-nail resistance. These are, first, the understanding that the I. W. W. proposes to dis-

[1] See THE SURVEY of April 19, 1913, p. 82.

possess the owners of property; second, sabotage, and third, anti-patriotism. The general feeling on these questions is intensified by untruthful statements in newspapers and by the acts of the I. W. W. leaders themselves, to the average person bewildering and well-nigh unaccountable.

What is to be expected when a labor leader tells his followers that they are the rightful owners of the mills and factories, and that they must get possession by striking and striking again, using the gain in wages and conditions secured each time as a sort of base of supplies for the next conflict and keeping ever on, with the sole end in view of weakening the employer and so driving him out of business? How can an employer sit down and dicker with a union that refuses to sign a contract because it wishes to be free to attack again at any time—a union that is confessedly striking not so much to get improved conditions as to batter at the defenses of the employer in order to hasten the day of his downfall and dispossession?

Suppose the fleet of a foreign power should appear off the American coast and the admiral should dispatch a message to the President demanding that Porto Rico be immediately ceded to his government. Suppose the message should say that if the request were denied the fleet would begin at once to shell the cities along the coast, but that, on the other hand, if it were granted the fleet would retire to Porto Rico, equip it as a naval base and later, with the advantage thus secured, with better ships and better equipment, would return with the fleet and shell the coast cities anyhow, as the beginning of a campaign to overrun and subjugate the country. Even the extremest advocates of peace would agree that there could hardly be any answer but war. Business men have told me that such a supposition as this seems to them an exact analogy to the attitude of the I. W. W.

Sabotage apparently means anything that the user of the word wishes. It means the "withdrawal of efficiency," one of the industrialists told me. If a strike should be lost the workers go back to their machines but do not work as efficiently as before. This is one way of putting it. In France, where the term originated, it has been defined negatively. It does not mean injury to human beings—which leaves a rather wide field for what it may mean. One speaker at Paterson has given the strikers definite instructions on how to spoil machinery and goods without getting caught. Another speaker with fine scorn said "The manufacturer puts other material than silk into his goods, he sizes it and he weights it and sells to you for silk material that will fall to pieces in six months hanging in your closet. But *that* is not sabotage. He adulterates your food and poisons the babies' milk and *that* is not sabotage. *That* is business."

The inference was that if the one is tolerated and possibly approved by the public the other is equally justifiable. But the public will not permanently tolerate adulterated goods. The making of them is an assault upon the health and well being of the race. So is sabotage if it means an unsatisfactory and dishonest article as the output of the factories. The one does not justify the other and both are moral as well as economic blunders when they are not crimes. It is not strange that there has been bitter opposition to the advocacy of sabotage which in its essential dishonesty would, if widely accepted or practiced, tend to undermine the morals of the race.

To this the industrialists will answer that in a capitalistic society there can be neither honesty nor morals worthy of the name. This sort of consistency will be of little solace to the industrialist when his baby is run down by an automobile equipped with sabotist brakes which consequently fail to work, when the train carrying his wife plunges through a bridge erected by sabotists or when a flood, breaking through a sabotist built dam, sweeps away his home. Mind you, the industrialists have never taught such practices as this suggests. They mean no injury to human beings. But they can not tell where their teaching will lead. If you teach a boy to steal it is idle to say that you never intended him to steal anything very valuable.

Anti-patriotism is the negative side of a positive philosophy—world-wide brotherhood. Poets of all ages have dreamed of that. The I. W. W. make enemies by turning to the negative side and attacking the government and the flag. Those things that the flag stands for seem to be forgotten by both sides. Controversy rages, not over principles but over a piece of bunting. Doughty sheriffs are horror-struck at the sight of a piece of red-colored cloth. Certain papers, with shudderings terrible to contemplate refer to the Socialist emblem as "the red flag of anarchy." Paterson police officials would not allow a red flag to be borne in the May Day parade. Pennsylvania has passed a law forbidding the carrying of a red flag on such occasions.

It is with equal acumen that the industrialists denounce the "flag of our fathers."

While all of these facts are important, some of the most irritating and inflaming acts are individual and unauthorized and this reveals the strangely contradictory character of the movement, Socialistic in its aim but in its methods individualistic to an incredible degree .

In the parade of the I. W. W. at Lawrence there was one banner reading "No God, No Master." There is no record that such a banner has ever been displayed by a representative of the organization at any other time. It is said that in this case the leaders did not know of the banner

until afterward. It was carried by a delegation from a near-by town. It was not an official statement of principle of the organization. The fact that the banner did appear, however, has been seized upon by the opponents of the movement as proof of its atheistic philosophy. It will be years before the organization may be able to rid itself of the reputation thus earned. It may never do so, in fact, because individual members will probably repeat the sentiment in one form or another, for the simple reason that it shocks the public if for nothing else.

It is because of the irresponsibility of some of those who speak, apparently with the official sanction of the organization, that it is difficult to feel assurance regarding the exact nature of I. W. W. policies.

At Little Falls a man described as a "wandering hobo" appeared in town and wanted to speak. He knew nothing of the textile industry nor of Little Falls, but he predicted that the river would "run red with blood" before the strikers went back to work. This utterance by a man unknown to everyone connected with the strike created more sentiment against the strikers than any other one thing. At Paterson a speech made by a Negro, totally unconnected with the strike or the I. W. W., has stirred more ill feeling than many a one by the regular organizers.

This irresponsibility has nevertheless manifested itself in the Paterson strike and elsewhere in the utterances of the organizers themselves. It is doubtful whether anything has created greater hostility at Paterson than the tempestuous declarations by some of the regular speakers of what they intend to do to Paterson and the country—plans, for the most part, which are wholly beyond their power to accomplish. Different speakers have been reported as declaring that they will make of Paterson "a howling wilderness;" that they will call a general strike of all the workers of Paterson; and that they will call a general strike of all the workers of the United States. One speaker is reported as saying that "the I. W. W. had its hands on Paterson's throat," and that it would squeeze the throat until an eight-hour day and an advance in wages were secured. No corporation, however grasping, has ever thought it politic to gloat publicly over having its hands on the throat of a community. The public is in a mood to loosen the corporation grip; the suggestion that the fingers of labor be substituted for those of capital is not calculated to elicit popular acclaim.

It would be possible to give many other incidents that have amassed opposition to this labor organization, an opposition fed by honest repudiation of I. W. W. principles and by fear, ignorant fear and guilty fear. To my mind, however, this revolutionary propaganda is not so much to be feared as the arrant stupidity of the opposition. If the former is to be feared at all it is because of the assistance of the latter. There are only two kinds of people to whom revolution may be preached effectively: those laboring under strong emotional excitement and those who are or think they are bitterly wronged. The former condition exists during a strike, and if a just settlement is made ends with it. The latter need not exist. But if it does exist and those who hold in contempt a flag that floats over injustice, find an eager following—who is most to blame, those who sow the seeds of revolution or those who have first prepared and fertilized the soil?

A sense of wrong, however, is not sufficient to account for the I. W. W. It is a sense of wrong that has fostered all union movements. If there were no grievances to be adjusted, the appeal and necessity of organization would not be strong. Two compelling factors stand out as the explanation of the I. W. W.: the indifference to the needs of unskilled workers that has characterized "old line" unionism and the trend in industrial management. In the constitutions of many of the older unions are clauses preventing the admission of unskilled workers. This has left adrift a vast substratum of unskilled, poorly paid and unorganized workers for whom the American Federation of Labor has succeeded in doing little. To these the militant I. W. W. comes as an agency of hope. Truly they have "nothing to lose but their chains" and there is "a world to gain."

The development of industry is increasing the army of the unskilled. Often a machine takes the place of a hundred skilled men. Generally, in the United States with its rapidly increasing population, those displaced find new jobs in the same industry, but the new positions require less skill. Their old jobs are gone forever. So the industry leaps forward—profits increase, prices come down But labor is no better off than before. In fifty years, for example, the average production of pig iron per furnace has increased well-nigh 1,000 per cent. The price of steel rails in the same time has decreas d as much as 80 per cent. Both manufacturer and consumer have derived great benefit from the industrial changes that have made this possible, but labor has remained in about the same relative position. While physical conditions are immeasurably better than they used to be, wages have not increased with the advancement of the industry.

Everywhere, practically, the workers have found that their problem is the same. Legitimate business methods cause managers to strain every nerve to find the machinery of production that will reap the largest profits. Thus it is that the modern trust has been developed against the strength of which the old craft unions, working



"IT IS CARRIED UNANIMOUSLY" THE PATERSON STRIKERS ARE VOTING ON THE DEMAND FOR AN EIGHT HOUR DAY

singly instead of with a united front, have found it difficult to contend. A demand for a raise in wages interferes with this highly systematized industrial profit machine. A movement for shorter hours may curtail its output. Workmen begin to organize. "You can't organize," says the manager. "I won't have any interference with my business."

It is not so strange, after all the rebuffs, after all the assurances that an improvement in conditions is contrary to the interests of those who own the machine, that some workmen should begin to say "There's only one way out of this conflict between us and the owners: we'll own the machine ourselves and run it for our own benefit." There you have the I. W. W. doctrine of expropriation.

Out of the same struggle are evolved the other doctrines. It is not alone against the I. W. W. that the employers have set their faces. Unionism, organization, under whatever name, is opposed whether its aims be "reasonable" or "revolutionary," because it "interferes with business."

The employer who denies the right to organize always offers an alternative—there is the right to quit. But employes as a class cannot quit. They know how to do only one thing. They have a little skill in one industry. They cannot, as heads of families, begin again as laborers in another industry with only a hope before them, which may never be realized, of finding there a better chance. Such a situation makes them think of new weapons. Every strike lost and every union movement sternly repressed is the father of sinister thoughts. Finally comes the idea, now given definite form for the first time by the industrialists: "Are you beaten? Is the strike lost? All right, go back and strike while at work. If the boss pays low wages, give poor work; if he makes you work ten hours, don't do over eight hours' work in the ten; if he won't adjust your grievances, put emery dust in the oil cups, spill acid that will eat the goods into the packing cases, send goods meant for Springfield, Ill., to Springfield, Mass. Let the boss know he's caught a Tartar." There you have sabotage.

This digression may help to explain why the I. W. W. is in Paterson. The employers have opposed the conservative American Federation of Labor just as now they oppose the I. W. W. "We could not get our grievances adjusted before this strike," a weaver told me; "If you made a kick to the boss about anything it put you under suspicion, and it wouldn't be long before they would find an excuse to let you go. If you were dissatisfied about anything, they seemed to think that made a union man of you." The employers, if pinned down, admit that they are opposed to unionism as such, and not to the I. W. W. alone. But the I. W. W. with its strange doctrines has put into the hands of the employers a weapon that they are not slow to use. By keeping these doctrines to the fore, and by charging them with many others that Haywood never has dreamed of, they have lined up the clergy and the professional and business men almost solidly in opposition to the medium through which the strike has expressed itself, which, in effect, means the strike itself.

But the opposition to unionism does not explain fully why the strike is under the auspices of the I. W. W. I have been more interested in that than in any other phase of the strike. Why did these workers so suddenly turn from no union at all to the most revolutionary one in the land? Why are there 10,000 strikers

carrying I. W. W. cards where there was, before the strike, only a handful? I could not believe that they had, over night, grasped and accepted the principles of industrialism. Therefore I talked with strikers whenever I could, not with the leaders—though I have talked with them—but with the "man in the street" of the strike. I have mingled with them when they have been gathered, thousands strong, and talked with any man with whom I rubbed elbows in the crowd. "What are you striking for?" I ask them, and they answer "More money and shorter hours."

"Would you be satisfied if you got a fair wage?"

"Oh, sure, we'd be satisfied."

"Don't you think you ought to own the mills and drive the boss out?"

"No, no, boss all right, if he only pay a little more."

That does not sound like industrialism. And those people were not all trying to fool me. Some of them were. I talked with one or two who assured me with a little too much fervor that they didn't believe in sabotage, that their very souls abhorred it, and so on. I could imagine them chuckling to themselves: "Now he'll go and put it in his paper that we are a safe and reasonable union." But many of them told me what they thought too simply for me to feel that it was all a hoax. I believe that most of them neither understand nor have accepted the I. W. W. Rather, the organizers came when the time was ripe. Had John Golden of the United Textile Workers, instead of Quinlan and Miss Flynn, come to Paterson on February 25, undoubtedly he could have organized the workers in his union.

But the United Textile Workers, with its quarter century of history, with its reputation for being reasonable, with the immense prestige and power of the American Federation of Labor behind it, did not come. Instead came Haywood, Elizabeth Flynn, Quinlan, Tresca—empty handed, with neither money nor credit nor with the prestige of a 2,000,000 membership, but willing to work and to go to jail. They have put into the 25,000 strikers a spirit that has made them stand together with a united determination for a period that must have tried the souls of the strongest. As this is written the strike is entering its fourth month and the spirit is apparently as vigorous and determined as ever.

As in Lawrence, the strike is managed by a committee, the members of which are elected from the different mills affected. Every decision of the committee is referred back to the rank and file for approval. It is by such democratic methods that every last worker is made to feel that he is an essential part of the strike. It is this feeling that sends them out by hundreds to parade in front of the mills in the early morning in mass picket formation so that those who go into the mills to work must pass through a great crowd of workers who regard them as traitors to their own class. It is this spirit that makes them persist, in spite of hardship and wholesale arrests. More than a thousand, many of them young girls, have been arrested in the last three months, largely for doing what is unquestioned in every other state in the Union. In spite of this and in spite of the suspension of constitutional rights they have made little or no reprisal.

There is no question of greater import today than that of whether those charged with the enforcement of law may themselves break it at will. That question must be settled before we are competent to deal with the I. W. W. When we have cleared our official skirts of anarchy and lawlessness then may we look about to see whether there are among us private citizens who are advancing a propaganda that is opposed to whatever is true and of good report. If we shall find that the I. W. W. movement is an enemy of all good we must oppose it. But "good citizens" who advocate mob action are not likely to instill in "agitators" respect for law.

Somehow, in this connection I find myself reverting persistently to a story in an old book of an incident that is said to have occurred 1,880 years ago. According to the story, eleven prisoners, illy dressed workmen, stood before a court to receive sentence. They had been convicted of agitating on the streets and in public buildings, gathering together large mobs of people who interfered with traffic as they listened to the exposition of wild theories. So little had the prisoners respected the decrees of the court that the night before they had broken out of jail and had been found again that very morning haranguing a crowd and denouncing the social institutions of the day.

While the judges were conferring as to the sentence, there appeared before them a great lawyer named Gamaliel, professor of jurisprudence in the leading university and president of the bar association. Having secured permission to address the court, according to the quaint language of the old book, he spoke as follows:

"Take heed to yourselves what ye intend to do as touching these men. For before these days rose up Theudas, boasting himself to be somebody; to whom a number of men, about 400, joined themselves: who was slain; and all, as many as obeyed him, were scattered and brought to naught. After this man rose up Judas of Galilee, in the days of the taxing, and drew away much people after him; he also perished; and all, as many as obeyed him, were dispersed. And now, I say unto you, refrain from these men and let them alone; for if this counsel or this work be of men, it will come to naught. But if it be of God ye cannot overthrow it; lest haply ye be found even to fight against God."



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(*Continued from page 354.*)

tion of less than 10,000, and a population of 25,000 can meet them much better.

Second, there should be some convenient and inexpensive means of transportation that will give the workman and his family an opportunity to mingle in the life of the city and to draw upon, occasionally at least, the best in music, art, and drama, common only to big cities. Such a journey usually should not take more than a half hour's time in electric car or train, nor cost more than a five or ten cent fare.

This discussion is not theoretical. Its truth may be tested by reviewing typical examples of factories in built-up sections of American and European cities, and the effect of the location upon the factories themselves. With these should be compared typical examples of factories on the outskirts of cities or in the open country. Then finally the same sort of comparison should be made of workmen's homes—those in central, closely built neighborhoods and those in outlying suburban, rural, or "industrial sections." The comparison of both factories and homes should include tables showing costs for a period of years, and some attempt to gauge the relative efficiency under each system.

Nothing would contribute more to a good understanding of this subject than an open-minded examination and study of existing industrial and housing conditions in the built-up sections of large cities and also in such places in this country as Pullman, Homestead, South Omaha, Chicago Heights, Flint, Erie, Oakley, Norwood, Gary, Corey; and in such places abroad as Essen; Hellerau, near Dresden; Thiers, France; Agneta Park, Holland; Serrieres, Switzerland; Port Sunlight, Bourneville, Hampstead, Huddersfield, Trafford Park, Manchester, and Letchworth, England.

The general tentative conclusions from this brief examination of the problem of the factory and the home are five:

(1) That new factories for their own interest and in the interest of all concerned should locate in the outskirts of cities whenever practicable;

(2) That existing factories in cities should be encouraged, as opportunity offers, to remove to the outskirts;

(3) That employers and employes should cooperate in a social and democratic way to create an attractive local community on the outskirts of cities near factories, each doing their part to make the local community, healthful, convenient and satisfying;

(4) That the same co-operation should be directed toward securing also for employes and their families, by transportation facilities, some of the advantages and permanent attractions of city life;

(5) That the choice for factory employes should not be sharply drawn between the city and the country. Both should be recognized as desirable—the city for occasional inspiration and diversion, and the more open country on the outskirts of cities for the essentials of daily life.

THE EMPLOYERS' PART. BY FLAVEL SHURTLEFF, Secretary National Conference on City Planning.

In spite of many lost opportunities of producing in America well-planned industrial towns, we must continue to depend on the enthusiastic co-operation of industrial managers and the considerable outlay of industrial capital for an experiment in city building which cares for the housing of people of small means.

Other investors must count the cost of carrying out a plan; the cost of land and its development; the cost of superintendence; the cost of marketing the lots and of building and renting the houses. In the absence of philanthropic motives they will not be attracted by the ordinary rates of interest on their outlay in an undertaking which requires so much personal supervision. Comfortable homes in attractive surroundings cannot be rented for $10 and $12 a month and show profit enough on the investment to attract ordinary investors. But industrial managers are not or should not be ordinary investors. Up to a certain point, they do not have to count the cost of carrying out generous plans for improving the living conditions of their employes. If such an investment yields an abundant supply of more efficient and more contented workers the return is ample.

There are far-sighted employers with a personal interest in the welfare of their working people, who have done much for their comfort by providing more attractive homes and better opportunities for social relaxation. In many instances their efforts have been limited only by the size of the industry which will not permit the carrying out of ambitious plans.

The message of the articles on Satellite Cities to directors of giant industries is too plain to be emphasized, but to smaller employers is offered the same opportunity through a kind of combination which is safe from prosecution under the Sherman Law. An agreement between several industries to locate in one place and to unite their resources under competent direction for the production of the best possible place to live and work in should enable smaller employers to carry out their most ambitious plans.

There are several precedents which prove such an agreement not entirely utopian. The removal of many of the factories of Cincinnati to the suburbs of Oakley and Norwood is but one case in point. This removal, however, merely furnished the opportunity. It provided the population for a possible model town. Either because the directors of the industries in Oakley and Norwood were not fully convinced of the advantages of providing an attractive place to live in as well as to work in, or for other reasons, the opportunity was not seized and people worked in the suburbs and to a large extent lived in the slums. Complete the development at Norwood and Oakley by planning for the housing and recreation of the small wage-earner and even by importing a bit of the "bright light" attraction of Cincinnati, and the living conditions of the industrial worker will be revolutionized.

VOLUME XXX, No. 11 WEEK OF JUNE 14, 1913

THE SURVEY

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Portrait by J. G. Brown

"PADDY"

THE PITH OF IT

WHEN the delegates gather at Seattle for the fortieth National Conference of Charities they will discover how rapid has been the march of social advance in the Pacific Northwest in the last few years. In Washington fourteen out of 188 bills passed at the last session of the Legislature had to do with matters of social interest. P. 365.

IN Seattle itself the most important social event in the last few months has been the appointment of Richard Hayter as general manager of the Charity Organization Society. Pp. 365, 379.

OREGON, not to be outdone by Washington, kept pace by passing legislation on such subjects as sterilization, widows' pensions, the minimum wage and workmen's compensation. P. 366.

AFTER deliberating all one night the jury, which has been hearing the evidence on the charge of a conspiracy to injure the textile strikers at Lawrence by "planting" dynamite, acquitted William M. Wood, president of the American Woolen Company. The jury disagreed as to whether Frederick E. Atteaux, a dye manufacturer, was guilty or not, but found Dennis J. Collins, who turned state's evidence, guilty on two of the six counts of the indictment.

WITH 1,000 silk strikers on the stage, a silk mill represented in the background, and a huge enthusiastic crowd completely filling Madison Square Garden, the events of the strike, which has paralyzed the main industry of Paterson, N. J., for over three months, were vividly reproduced last Saturday evening. Spirit, spontaniety and deep earnestness, both in the participation by the strikers and in the speeches by the strike leaders, characterized this first effort to utilize the pageant as a weapon in an industrial struggle.

A CONTROVERSY between Governor Sulzer and the New York Legislature has led to an unusual confusion which has temporarily upset the whole department. Along with this state of affairs is an attempt to set aside the civil service law with respect to some of the most important positions in the reorganized Department of Labor, P. 367.

THE freedom of the press is an issue at Paterson, N. J., where Alexander Scott, editor of a Socialist paper, has been found guilty of "hostility to government" for criticising the police, in terms no more severe, according to the *New York Tribune*, than "we have read . . . in many papers published in many places." P. 368.

THIS and other incidents has led some two dozen social workers and professional men to petition President Wilson for an investigation "of what has transpired in Paterson." P. 368.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

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MORE letters on the White Slave by Abastenia St. Leger Eberle. P. 381.

A NEW profession, counsellor of industrial relations, has been created by Robert G. Valentine, former commissioner of Indian affairs. P. 377.

IMMIGRATION discussion has been stimulated by the introduction in Congress of two measures which propose to restrict immigration by limiting the number of aliens admitted each year to 10 per cent of the number of persons of similar nationality who were shown to be residents of the country at the time of the last federal census. P. 368.

THE COMMON WELFARE

SOCIAL PROGRESS IN THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST

When the delegates gather at Seattle on July 5 for the fortieth National Conference of Charities and Correction, those who attended the last meeting of the conference on the Pacific Coast in 1906 at Portland, will discover that in the intervening years the Northwest has kept pace with the rest of the country in the march of social advance. The last two years have seen much activity and many steps of progress.

Fourteen of the 188 bills passed in the Washington Legislature had to do with matters of social interest. In this connection it is interesting to note the development of public opinion favoring the appointment of commissions for the study of important matters rather than the hasty introduction of bills. A minimum wage law has been passed creating an industrial welfare commission for women and minors in the different occupations. A statute permits counties and cities of the first class to establish tuberculosis hospitals and sanatoriums. The institution for the feeble-minded at Medical Lake will be doubled in capacity, from 250 to 500, as a result of a special appropriation. A section of this bill extends the age limit from twenty-one to fifty years. Another measure, following closely the Iowa red light injunction law, provides that the owners or agent of any building used for purposes of prostitution, as well as the person conducting it, may be enjoined and fined. The new



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COMING

PROGRESS OF THE SAFE AND SANE FOURTH

(Statistics compiled by the *Journal of the American Medical Association*)

Year	*Dead*	*Wounded*	*Total*	*Year*	*Dead*	*Wounded*	*Total*
1903	466	3,983	4,449	1908	163	5,460	5,623
1904	183	3,986	4,169	1909	215	5,092	5,307
1905	182	4,994	5,176	1910	131	2,792	2,923
1906	158	5,308	5,466	1911	57	1,546	1,603
1907	164	4,249	4,413	1912	20	659	679

Can not 1913 beat last year's record?

juvenile court law is a codification of existing laws with certain additions. A mothers' pension bill following closely the Illinois statute was passed.

In the field of industry, Washington has made especial progress through its state insurance law of which a fuller account will appear in next week's issue of THE SURVEY.

These are some of the more important developments on the legislative side. Many social workers point out that there is still need of arousing interest in the carrying out of legislation rather than its making. For instance, the desertion law has been little used. It is now being backed up by a lazy husband act, including among its provisions the payment of a per diem to the families of men serving time. In the city of Seattle itself, the most important social events in the last two years have been the creation of the Central Council of Social Agencies, and the appointment of Richard Hayter as general manager of the Charity Organization Society. Further mention of this appears on page 379 of this issue.

It was in 1910 that the Seattle Charity Organization Society inaugurated the Social Service Conference of the Pacific Northwest. Previous to that the Social Service Club had been organized. This body was responsible for the creation of the Central Council. In 1911 an extensive investigation of Municipal Lodging Houses was made by a special committee of the Charity Organization Society. Definite recommendations made to the city council propose the erection of a municipal lodging house and the establishment of an experimental farm colony. Within the past year a new department of the police force, the Juvenile and Humane Department, has been organized. It is officered by policemen, and has several women employes. It carries on a combined humane, protective and rescue work and attempts to relieve the Juvenile Court of petty offenders. This department has, unfortunately as it seems to some social workers, undertaken to give relief, but all feel that it offers a strong foundation for a welfare department along the best lines.

Within the past five years thirty-five of Seattle's sixty-two social agencies have been organized, among them the City Hospital, Juvenile Court Detention Home, Parental School, Children's Orthopedic Hospital, Home for Japanese Women, two homes for girls, two emergency shelters for women and children, a day nursery, and three small settlements.

Everywhere throughout the state the same activity is being manifested. Juvenile court and anti-tuberculosis movements have been particularly prominent. Social and moral hygiene societies are springing up in a number of cities. Ten or twelve Associated Charities have recently been organized.

OREGON KEEPS PACE WITH WASHINGTON

In Oregon social legislation during the past year includes the following:

(1) Sterilization bill.

(2) Widows' pension bill; pensions to be administered by juvenile courts or county courts in smaller cities. In Portland the Associated Charities is to be one of a committee of three on the Juvenile Court Judges' Advisory Committee.

(3) Appropriation of $50,000 for industrial school for delinquent girls.

(4) Minimum wage bill; provides for decisions by committee of three appointed by governor.

(5) Industrial compensation act; commission of three to be appointed by governor to administer. It is optional, not compulsory. Fund is raised by state employers and employes.

(6) Loan shark bill; forbids over 3 per cent a month on chattel mortgages and licenses all carrying on the business.

(7) Appropriation of $10,000 for Oregon Social Hygiene Society's work.

(8) Bill providing that when a county appropriates any sum for advancement of agriculture the state shall give a like amount.

In the whole state the recreation movement has received large impetus through the efforts of the Pacific Coast secretary of the Playgrounds and Recreation Association of America, L. H. Weir.

In Portland the Consumers' League has conducted a survey of wages and of housing conditions. Other milestones have been the school survey, a municipal survey, and the adoption of a commission form of government.

On the side of private agencies, among the most important may be mentioned the reorganization of the Associated Charities under V. R. Manning, who took up the work of general secretary last fall. The budget of the society has been doubled during the year, and the methods of work changed. Co-operation has developed between the different social agencies. A Legal Aid Department has been formed and also a Remedial Loan Company.

The Central Council of Social Agencies of Portland is a little older than the one organized in Seattle. It has done some of its most important work during the past year, however. A book which it is issuing, shows the interrelation between the surveys already mentioned. Here, as in Seattle, the Central Council is expected to become eventually the co-operative agency for the mapping out of the whole social scheme of the city.

THE SEATTLE ROTARY CLUB AND THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE

This year for the first time the National Conference of Charities and Correction has a committee on "the relation of commercial organizations to social welfare." The arrangements for the Seattle conference show an interesting instance of this increasing social appreciation among business men. The Rotary Club, with a membership of 400 business and professional men, has undertaken to act as the finance committee of the Central Council of Social Agencies, the host of the conference. The new Seattle Chamber of Commerce will provide the halls, but the Rotary Club will carry responsibility for the balance of the expense which it is estimated will be about $4,000.

In view of the fact that the club is not a member of the Central Council of Social Agencies, is not represented on any of the committees, and has no special reason for undertaking this responsibility, its assumption of the burden of raising the fund indicates that a strong social spirit pervades its membership. The money is to be raised from the citizens at large, and that the task is a big one is evident when it is remembered that Seattle expects to entertain thirty conventions this year.

The Rotary Club was organized about four years ago and is the second of its kind in the country. But one representative of any calling is eligible to membership. Addresses and discussions pertaining to civic and educational affairs are frequent features of its meetings, and one of the declared purposes of the organization is "to quicken the interest of each member in the public welfare and to co-operate with others in civic development."

The officers of the club are: President, E. L. Skeel; vice-president, J. E. Price; sergeant-at-arms, Edward L. Gomoll; secretary, L. F. Allen. In the co-operation between the club and the national conference, Graham K. Betts is the member who has given the most active service.

REORGANIZED DEPARTMENT OF LABOR IN NEW YORK

In the controversy between Governor Sulzer and the New York Legislature, the state Department of Labor is the innocent bystander that has suffered the damage which usually falls to that unfortunate person. As already announced in THE SURVEY,[1] Governor Sulzer, a few days before the adjournment of the Legislature, twice sent to the Senate for confirmation, the name of John Mitchell as commissioner of labor, and twice the Senate refused to confirm the nomination.

After the adjournment of the Legislature, the governor again named Mr. Mitchell as commissioner, claiming that he had a right to make a recess appointment, which would be valid until the next meeting of the Legislature in regular session. Upon the appointment of Mr. Mitchell, John Williams, who has been commissioner of labor since 1910, as a matter of course, handed in his resignation. He was then appointed by Mr. Mitchell as first deputy commissioner.

All went well until the next pay roll was made up. It went to the state controller with the certification of John Mitchell as commissioner of labor. The controller referred the matter to the attorney general for an opinion as to whether Mitchell is in fact commissioner, and whether he should therefore honor his certification. The attorney general decided that the governor had no power under the circumstances to make a recess appointment. It followed obviously that Mr. Mitchell was not the commissioner of labor, and consequently could not appoint the deputy commissioner, making that office vacant also. It remained, according to the attorney general's ruling, for William C. Rogers, second deputy commissioner, who was a hold-over from Commissioner Williams' regime to be recognized as the acting head of the department.

On June 7 the matter came up before the Supreme Court on an agreed statement of facts and a decision was rendered sustaining the attorney general's ruling. The case was immediately appealed to the Appellate Division which upheld the decision. The case will go to the Court of Appeals for a final decision without delay.

A matter that is perhaps even more serious is the attempt to set aside the Civil Service law with respect to some of the most important positions in the re-organized Department of Labor. A short time before retiring as commissioner, John Williams addressed a letter to the Civil Service Commission, recommending that twenty-eight positions, some of them of utmost importance, be exempted from the Civil Service rules. If the commission acts upon this recommendation, there is danger that it will make the criterion of fitness for these positions, of which so much was expected, that of party service. Among the most important positions that it is proposed thus to exempt are those in the Bureau of Industrial Hygiene. The matter is still in the hands of the Civil Service Commission, no decision having as yet been announced.

Last week the appointments to the new Industrial Board were made. This board consists of five persons including the commissioner, who is *ex officio* chairman. The appointments include Maurice Wertheim, a New York business man; Richard J. Cullen of New York; Charles C. Flaesch, a lawyer of Unadilla, Otsego county; and Pauline Goldmark of New York. The board has held one meeting and elected as its secretary John R. Shillady, formerly secretary of the Antituberculosis Association of Buffalo.

[1] See THE SURVEY of May 24, under Pith.

FREEDOM OF PRESS AT ISSUE IN PATERSON

Second to be convicted in connection with the Paterson strike is Alexander Scott, editor of a Socialist paper. He wrote and published an editorial attacking the Paterson police. For this he has been found guilty of "hostility to government" and sentenced to a term of imprisonment of not less than one nor more than fifteen years.

This introduces a new phase into Paterson's troubles—freedom of the press. In an editorial discussing the conviction, the conservative *New York Tribune* says:

"Scott sympathized with the Industrial Workers of the World and the strikers. He criticised the police, accused them of brutality and lawlessness, said that they were being used to break the strike, declared that money owned Paterson and money owned the police and warned the police to 'keep their hands off.' For this he may go to jail for fifteen years. And this is in the United States of America.

"We have read as severe criticisms of municipal administrations and of their police as those of Scott in many papers published in many places. His language was not extraordinarily severe, for a Socialist.

"And his conviction becomes all the more remarkable when it is recalled that a higher New Jersey court, through Judge Minturn, said in effect practically the same things as Scott did of the Paterson administration when the court decided that the city had lawlessly put the strike leaders into jail upon trumped up charges. The next step for Paterson to take is to put Judge Minturn into jail for 'hostility to the government.'"

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PATERSON TROUBLES URGED

Last week a petition was laid before the President urging a government investigation "of what has transpired in Paterson, to bring any violations of constitutional rights out into the open, and to take such action as will protect the people of the United States in those fundamental and sacred rights, essential to the life of a free government."

The petition outlined the situation in Paterson, gave a brief resume of the strike, and described the attitude of the authorities, including the closing of the halls where the strikers were holding their meetings. The petitioners declared that

"these conditions are subversive of the constitution of the United States in that the fundamental guarantees of the Bill of Rights have been overridden by local authorities. The right of free speech and peaceful assemblage has been denied to men and women at a time when they feel themselves the victims of oppression and at a time when these rights are especially precious. Similar invasions of right of free speech and assemblage are said to have occurred in Lawrence, Mass., Little Falls, N. Y., Charleston, W. Va., and in other communities. If these occurrences are permitted to go unchecked throughout the country, dangerous precedents and customs will be established."

The petition was presented to the President by Frederic C. Howe and was signed by the following:

John B. Andrews
Howard B. Woolston
Lillian D. Wald
Frederic C. Howe
Henry Moskowitz
John Haynes Holmes
Leo Mannheimer
Delos F. Wilcox
John A. Fitch
Gaylord S. White
Bolton Hall
J. Aspinwall Hodge
John P. Peters
Percy S. Grant
Owen R. Lovejoy
Paul U. Kellogg
Burdette G. Lewis
Howard Bradstreet
John Collier
Amos R. E. Pinchot
Theodore Schroeder
Florence Kelley
J. Howard Melish
Hutchins Hapgood
John L. Elliott
Gilbert N. Roe
Graham R. Taylor
Sam A. Lewisohn

CHAIN GANGS AND HEALTH

Chain gangs of prisoners in many communities are compelled to live under conditions of filth that are ideal for the spread of soil-pollution diseases, according to Prof. Charles Wardell Stiles of the Public Health Service, who has recently made a study of conditions in penal institutions.

During the past twenty years says Professor Stiles, "I have had a number of opportunities to observe prisoners in penitentiaries, prison farms, jails, and chain gangs, and have been seriously impressed with the average lack of cleanliness among the criminals and their guards, although the opportunities for rigid discipline rendered it possible to make these penal institutions admirable schools in which the state might easily give to its charges some good lessons in cleanliness, hygiene and sanitation."

With few exceptions, the authorities not only failed to see and to utilize the opportunity offered, but they actually permitted things to occur which were dangerous to the communities.

Professor Stiles cites two typical examples of convicts in chain gangs living under conditions of filth and excoriates state authorities, boasting of civilization and refinement, who permit prisoners, absolutely in their power and under their protection, to live under circumstances calculated to produce and spread disease.

NEW IMMIGRATION MEASURES IN CONGRESS

Immigration discussion has been stimulated anew by the introduction of two new measures in Congress. The first, introduced into the upper house of Congress by Senator Dillingham of Vermont, is similar in many respects to the one urged by him at the last session and vetoed

by ex-President Taft. It aims, however, to restrict immigration not by the literacy test but by fixing the limit of immigration at 10 per cent of the number of persons of similar nationality who were shown to be residents of the United States at the time of the last census. The second bill introduced, however, into the House by Representative Murdock of Kansas calls for a nation-wide inquiry into the administration of the naturalization laws by a commission especially appointed for this purpose. The object of this inquiry, it is stated, is to ascertain if the present laws as administered in the states make it easy or difficult for aliens to become American citizens.

The Dillingham bill's 10 per cent device[1] is qualified by the provision that the minimum number of any nationality admissible in any year shall not be less than 5,000, and the bill does not apply to countries of the western hemisphere. According to the bill, nationality is to be determined by country of birth rather than of residence, but the term country does not include colonies or dependencies, which are considered as separate countries. Exempted from the operation of the measures are aliens returning from a temporary visit abroad, those coming to join near relatives or who are members of professional and business classes. It is also provided that the secretary of labor may admit aliens in excess of the maximum number when, in his opinion, such action is justifiable as a measure of humanity.

The commissioner general of immigration is directed to issue a monthly statement showing the maximum number of aliens of each nationality who may be admitted during the year, together with the number already admitted, but when 75 per cent of such maximum number have been admitted, he is directed to issue such statements weekly. Transportation companies are made subject to a fine of $100 for each alien brought to the United States in excess of the maximum number allowed.

The retiring commissioner general of immigration, Daniel J. Keefe, warmly supports the 10 per cent device as "the best suggestion yet made regarding the restriction of immigration." He points out that it would result in restriction mainly from the countries of southern and eastern Europe and western Asia. Mr. Keefe says:

"Under this plan 134,312 Italians could come annually; while the average number per year during the last decade has been 207,157; from Austria-Hungary, 167,058 could come, against an annual average for the past decade of 219,782; from Greece, 10,128, against 20,118; from Turkey in Europe, 3,283, against 10,832. On the other hand 250,133 natives of Germany would be entitled to come annually, while the average annual immigration of such people during the past decade has been only 35,139. Denmark could send 18,165, compared with 6,971 that have been coming; and the United Kingdom would be allowed a maximum of 257,383, against 95,626."

In Washington it is not considered likely that immigration legislation will be undertaken at the present special session of Congress, the program of the administration being to concentrate upon the tariff and currency.

The immigration committees of the Senate and House are made up as follows:

Senate:

Smith of South Carolina, chairman;

Kern of Indiana,	Lodge of Massachusetts,
O'Gorman of New York,	Dillingham of Vermont,
Robinson of Arkansas,	Penrose of Pennsylvania,
Sheppard of Texas,	Burton of Ohio,
Gore of Oklahoma,	Gronna of North Dakota,
Hollis of New Hampshire,	Colt of Rhode Island.

House:

Burnett of Alabama, chairman;

Sabath of Illinois,	Brockson of Delaware,
Adair of Indiana,	Gardner of Massachusetts,
Goldfogle of New York,	Hayes of California,
Slayden of Texas,	Moore of Pennsylvania,
Oldfield of Arkansas,	Merrit of New York,
Raker of California,	Manahan of Minnesota,
Key of Ohio,	Johnson of Washington.

[1]Discussions of this provision, from both a restrictionist and an anti-restrictionist point of view, are given on this and the following page of this issue.

EDITORIAL GRIST

A NEW EXPEDIENT FOR RESTRICTING IMMIGRATION

MAX J. KOHLER
Board of Delegates of Union of American and Hebrew Congregations

The introduction of a new immigration bill by Senator Dillingham, containing a provision limiting the immigration of aliens so that not more than 10 per cent of the number of residents of each nationality shall be permitted to enter each year, naturally suggests inquiries as to the value and efficiency of such an expedient. The measure is frankly restrictionistic, unlike the literacy test which it supersedes, which was occasionally defended as inherently selective. Both tests are among those suggested, though not approved, by the Immigration Commission in its report to Congress.

It is difficult to see any substantial advantage that might result from the enactment of such a law. On the basis of the federal census of 1910, disregarding subsequent unascertainable increase (or decrease) in the number of foreign born (though such increases are particularly large as to southeastern Europeans), Italy would be entitled to send us over 134,000 immigrants each year, Russia 173,000, and Austria-Hungary 167,000, and northwestern Europe 674,000. In the

fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, about 157,000 Italian immigrant aliens landed here, 162,000 Russians, and 178,000 Austro-Hungarians; so few, if any, immigrants of most of the nationalities involved would normally be barred, and none from northeastern Europe. Thus, as a restriction, this measure would fail. The high figures of 1907 have not since been equalled and are not likely to be.

But no method exists for satisfactorily apprising foreigners of the exact number of their race or nationality permitted to enter in any given year, much less, of the exact time when the maximum for their nationality is likely to be reached. Accordingly, immigration during the earlier part of each year would undoubtedly be stimulated artificially, especially through the machinations of steamship company runners and immigrant smugglers. The result would be that in the closing months of each year there would very likely be many unwarranted and heart-rending exclusions of immigrants who had burnt the bridges behind them—exclusions merely for the reason that through accident, others of the same race or nationality, perhaps much less desirable, had been admitted. At present immigrants come to this country, chiefly at the instance of resident relatives or friends as economic conditions here warrant. Under the artificial conditions that would be created under this measure, seasons of employment would be disregarded. Many immigrants would come with little money at periods when work was slack, and economic distress for them, especially when accompanied by their families, and for the country at large, would result. Moreover, on the basis of nationality, people subjected to persecution at home, but readily assimilated here, as the Finns and Hebrews, might be debarred by supposedly less desirable compatriots of other race-stock from Russia; likewise, north Italians would be outnumbered by south Italians, and so on. Naturally, the poorer-equipped economically would hasten over before those more independent, and would be likely to debar the more desirable thereafter. Detrimental, artificially engendered streams of immigration would result, instead of the present responsiveness to economic need.

But what would be the use of drawing such race and national lines and demarcations in a country which began its career with the Declaration of Independence? Who can safely venture to draw an indictment against whole nations, and declare one race desirable and another undesirable, and exclude a person of one race, while simultaneously welcoming one possibly much less desirable of another race? And where will such fanning of race prejudice and race discrimination end in a land which has heretofore boasted that it frowned upon such a policy? As ex-President Roosevelt well said in his Presidential Message of 1906: "Whether they are Catholic or Protestant, Jew or Gentile, whether they come from England or Germany, Russia, Japan or Italy matters nothing. All we have a right to question is the man's conduct."

To such pseudo-scientific race distinctions, we should apply Professor Royce's able characterization:

"But train a man first to give names to his antipathies, and then regard the antipathies thus named as sacred, merely because they have a name, and then you get the phenomena of racial hatred, of religious hatred, of class hatred, etc. Such trained hatreds are peculiarly pathetic and peculiarly deceitful, because they combine in such a subtle way the elemental vehemence of the hatred that a child may feel for a stranger, or a cat for a dog, with the appearance of dignity and solemnity and even of duty which a name gives. Such antipathies will always play their part in human history. But what we can do about them is to try not to be fooled by them, not to take them too seriously because of their mere name."

CONTROLLING IMMIGRATION BY NUMBER LIMITATION

PRESCOTT F. HALL
Secretary Immigration Restriction League

The idea of limiting the number of immigrants from any one country is not new, but it has not appeared in Congress for some time. As embodied in the bill introduced by Senator Dillingham and endorsed by the retiring commissioner general of immigration, it is proposed to limit the number of aliens of any nationality admitted into the United States in any year to 10 per cent of the persons of such nationality resident here at the time of the last census. The number limitation is therein offered as a substitute for the literacy test, but the retiring commissioner-general suggests that they be enacted together. Both tests would operate strongly against immigrants from southern Europe and Asia. As regards some countries, it is possible that the number limitation might be a more enduring means of restriction than the literacy test; for general education might spread fast enough to take care of the increase of immigration. Both tests should be adopted before any larger movement of migration starts from Asia.

One objection that may be made to the number limitation is the difficulty of ascertaining and publishing quickly the fact that the 10 per cent limit has nearly been reached. Conceivably, a number of shiploads, sailing at a time when the limit had nearly been reached, might have to go back again. To minimize this possibility it is provided that the commissioner-general shall issue monthly bulletins until 75 per cent of the permissible number has arrived and weekly bulletins thereafter. Suppose some do have to go

back, what of it? The United States is about the only country in the world where immigration questions are considered solely from the alien's point of view. This peculiarity probably accounts for the fact that as soon as a limit is mentioned in the bill, exceptions are made to it. Thus, after the maximum number has arrived, aliens coming to join near relatives may still be admitted. A large number of our immigrants come to join near relatives. If they do not start in time, why should they not wait until another year?

Other objections to this bill are likely to be made by those who consider that any human being has the "right" to migrate anywhere, and to multiply indefinitely when he gets there. In no other country do they talk as we do here about the "rights" and hardships of aliens; why do we talk so much rubbish about them? Why do we have today an immigration law, which, as retiring Commissioner of Immigration Keefe, says "scarcely excludes any except those afflicted with serious mental or physical defects"—a law far inferior in some respects to those of Canada and Australia?

The answer is simple. The majority of our citizens want a proper law but they are not organized on this question, while the transportation interests, the employers of cheap labor and the societies constituted on racial lines are in a position to exert much influence. For this reason, they count in the minds of legislators for much more than they should; and, as Ostrogorski pointed out long ago, political courage is at a discount in the United States.

Nevertheless, in spite of sentimental objections, the literacy test would now be law, but for the ill-advised veto of ex-President Taft. A President should not veto a bill which has passed one house or the other of Congress nineteen times in twenty years, by votes of from 2 to 1 to 9 to 1 in each case, unless it is plainly unconstitutional. The reading test, or the number test, or better still both, should be enacted at once, if the ideals and institutions of the past are to continue to grow and to flourish.

If we continue to give our heritage to everyone who asks for it, the time will come when we shall see Canada forge ahead, with a vigorous, carefully selected and homogeneous population, secured in part by intelligent immigration laws. In Canada, the governor has the power to exclude races, nationalities or individuals at any time, by order, if he thinks they are injurious to the country's welfare. He could limit the numbers on the very lines projected in the bill introduced by Senator Dillingham. If the Chinese and Japanese were not already limited by tax and by agreement, he could exclude them entirely; just as the Hindus are in fact excluded by an order prohibiting the entrance of aliens who have not traveled directly through on one ticket. The governor of Canada does not have to use this power at present, because there are other provisions in the Canadian law which operate to decrease immigration from southern and eastern Europe and Asia.

In Australia, a number limitation is not needed because there is an indefinitely great power of exclusion under the law which obliges an alien to read and write out, if required, a passage in any European language the inspector selects. Such a literacy test could be used to exclude large numbers from any country desired.

LABOR LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE SPOILSMEN

The demoralizing effect of the controversy over the commissionership on the New York Department of Labor can hardly be estimated. That there should be uncertainty as to the official head just now, when the new law broadening and increasing the department's powers is going into effect, is particularly unfortunate.

More than unfortunate, however, is the effort that is being made to cheapen the department, and to destroy the effectiveness of the new positions that have been created, by giving them the aspect of political plums, instead of places of responsibility and service. In the letter written by John Williams to the Civil Service Commission, in which he urged the exemption from Civil Service rules of twenty-eight positions in the department, he did not in most cases even attempt an argument in defense of his request. Instead, he made the best of a bad matter by saying that the exemptions were "desirable" or "necessary."

It seems scarcely conceivable that a Civil Service Commission, appointed to administer the law, could give serious consideration to this proposal. If they are of the calibre that should be expected of public officials, they will not only refuse to set aside the law they are charged to enforce, but will resent the suggestion that they could be used as instruments to nullify the spirit of the act.

It is even less conceivable that the commission should take action regarding a matter of such importance upon the recommendation of a man who is no longer commissioner of labor. The new commissioner, responsible for putting the new law into effect, should not be hampered by the death bed recommendations of his predecessor, nor should the Civil Service Commission be guided by the wishes of a subordinate in the department instead of the responsible head. It is reasonable to expect that the Civil Service Commission will wait for a word from the new commissioner of labor whoever he may be. That word will be awaited with equal interest by all who believe in efficiency and honesty in public service.

FINGER PRINTS

THE ONE WHO WENT FREE[1]

GERTRUDE SEYMOUR

Alone in Union Station stood a woman. Her dress of heavy mourning emphasized the drawn pallor of her face and the frightened expression of her wide eyes. Other passengers who had come in on the same morning train had taken their way from the station; but she stood there in the waiting room hesitating.

"Can I help you?" I approached her.

How she started! But presently the terror died down in her eyes though she made no reply.

"I am here to help travelers," I continued, "Where did you want to go?"

From a dingy bag she drew a telegram. "Come at once. Marguerite ill." And the address was of a street miles away on the south side.

"Will he let me have her, do you think?" she questioned incoherently. What could that mean! The woman's face was quivering; her control was giving way.

"We will go and see her," I answered. "But first you must have some coffee, for we have a long distance to go."

Numbly she followed me into the dining-room, and as we had our coffee in a quiet corner she gasped out her story, searching my face to make sure that she was safe in trusting me.

She had married him sixteen years ago, trusting him utterly, happy in the prospect of her own home and the hoped-for children. A year later, Marguerite came; and in the remembrance of that joy the lines in her face softened for a moment. The second year, he had been busier, later at the office, and often the firm had sent him out of town for several days. She was lonely those days while another baby was coming; still he was away a great deal. "And I said nothing, for I wanted him to feel free to come or go," she added with a gesture of pride.

The second child was restless and fretful, not sunny tempered like Marguerite. It was often dull, and seemed not to see well. Another year, and then suddenly all romance was shattered in her life. When she told him of the promise of a third child, he threw reserve to the winds. He told her brutally that he could afford no more children, and that this one must be prevented. . . . She scarcely survived the criminal operation; but as soon as she was strong enough to walk, she took the year-old boy to a good doctor.

"I'd hid my fears in my heart about Tom," she sobbed, "though I couldn't help being suspicious sometimes when he went away so much. Then, I'd hate myself for thinking such things. But now the doctor told me that my boy would be blind because his father was a bad man."

She covered her face for a moment. Then she went on rapidly.

"Tom acted something awful," she gasped. "Then he took Marguerite and came to Chicago and wouldn't let me see her or hear from her any more. Oh, why do you think he wants me now? Do you suppose that she is dead?" And in a spasm of emotion she half rose from the table. I rose, too, and we went to our car silently. Seated there, she gazed stupidly at the changing scenes, dulled by the noise of traffic. I roused her by asking:

"Why did he take Marguerite from you?"

"He said I wasn't fit to have her," she replied dully; "I reckon I wasn't. When I knew what the matter was with baby, and thought that later it might come to Marguerite, I thought we'd better all just die. So I gave the children some poison, and took a lot myself. Tom was away."

When I could speak I said, "And they could save only you and the little girl?"

"Yes'm. The boy died. They put me in an asylum for a year, for I went out of my head. But then I got well and they turned me out again."

We were still for a long time. Just before we reached our street, I gave her a card with our address upon it that she might know how to find me if she wanted me again. It was well that I did so, for at the door of the flat we were parted. In answer to our ring, a tall man came to the door, handsome according to the cheap type. Her cry, "O Tom!" was hardly more than a sob. A harsh charge not to be a fool, a refusal with scant courtesy to admit me, and the door was locked in my face.

Only later when the mother, penniless and with her fifteen year old daughter to care for, came to us for further guidance, did I learn the rest of that story. Left to her own devices, practically alone in Chicago, little Marguerite had been won by promise of pretty things, to her own undoing. Her father knew of but one remedy for such a condition. He paid a "doctor" to rent the flat to which we had gone, and to perform there in due time the unspeakable operation upon the helpless girl.

There was a law for those who rented the flat. There was a law for the "doctor" who did the deed. But the man—the father, to whose account were charged two abortions, three poisonings, a blind baby, a case of insanity, and a girl robbed of her girlhood—for him there was no law. He was the one who went free.

[1]From the records of the Juvenile Protective Association, Chicago

BOOKS

THE IMMIGRANT INVASION

By Frank Julian Warne. Dodd, Mead & Co. 336 pp. Price $2.50; by mail of The Survey $2.70.

Dr. Warne's new book, The Immigrant Invasion, forms an admirable companion piece to Dr. Hourwich's Immigration and Labor recently reviewed in these pages. Both writers consider the economic aspect of the question to be the one of fundamental importance. Both enrich their study of this aspect with a wealth of historical detail and each comes to an exactly opposite conclusion. This latter circumstance is not to the discredit of either writer, since there is plenty of room for disagreement on a question where so many and such complex elements are involved, and it is to the distinct benefit of the reader who wants opportunity of making up his own mind. In these two books he has pretty nearly all of the possible aspects of the economic side of the question presented to him.

Dr. Warne's book urges upon us the familiar warning that unrestricted immigration is a menace to our civilization because it lowers wages and debases the standard of living. He makes it impressive and picturesque by showing us the absolute mass of the present influx in the guise of an invading army, a million strong each year, an army none the less though it comes man by man; as much an army as any band of Goths and Vandals thundering at the gates of Rome.

This warning is backed by a survey of the economic facts of the history of immigration, and in this survey the reader will find the special interest and value of the book, even if he is unable to accept the author's conclusions. Dr. Warne has not merely given the bare history of immigration, but has linked it closely with the general economic development of the country in a most suggestive and informing way. He shows us the early immigration following in the track of the agricultural development of the West by free labor, avoiding the South because of the occupation of the field by slave labor. He then shows the change from agricultural to industrial demand going on together with the change in racial character of immigration in the last few decades, and connects these changes with the social and industrial troubles of today.

In this related set of circumstances, many restrictionists pick out the change in the character of immigration as the determining cause of the social and industrial conditions. Dr. Hourwich made a very strong case for exactly the opposite view—namely, that the industrial system itself grinds out a fixed social product regardless of the human material upon which it works. Dr. Warne thinks that the real objection to immigration has nothing to do with the composition of our immigration stream—it is the mass only that counts—and that probably the evils so prominent today would still exist if we had received the Slavs and Italians fifty years ago and were receiving the English and Irish and Germans now. The real objection, he says, lies in the changed conditions that have come about in the United States themselves, and that dominate and control the tendencies that immigration manifests.

Full as is the historic detail of the book, more could have been introduced to advantage. For instance, Dr. Warne is content to adopt without qualification the generally accepted thesis that cheap labor retards the invention and introduction of labor-saving machinery, as a reason for excluding immigrants, in the face of the historical fact that labor-saving machinery in our principal industries made it possible to utilize cheap labor, actually called it into employment and can be maintained in operation only by its means. The employer's stimulus to invention is his desire to reduce labor cost; and it is immaterial to him whether this is accomplished by relieving labor altogether from the low-paid "rough work" Dr. Warne talks about, or by replacing the highly paid skilled worker with a machine. The course of invention so far seems to be mainly along the latter line.

Kate Holladay Claghorn.

HISTORICAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE COLORED RACE

Compiled by Daniel Murray, assistant librarian in the Library of Congress, Washington. Six volumes.

Mr. Murray tells us that he has been directly engaged upon this work for more than fifteen years. Further, he says that ever since his entrance into the Library of Congress in 1871, he has been securing possible material. He compares this undertaking with that of the American Jews when compiling their cyclopedia.

The six volumes contain 40,000 separate titles. Of chief importance are the sketches of celebrated members of the Negro race. But the cyclopedia also contains an exhaustive list of books and pamphlets published by members of the colored race, accounts of white men and women prominent in securing freedom for the slave, and a bibliography of American works of fiction on the Negro, with a short examination into the contents of each volume. This cyclopedia, while primarily of interest to the Negro, will prove of importance to students of the race problem. Much of the material found in its pages is difficult to obtain elsewhere.

The absurdity of the dictum that a drop of African blood makes a man a Negro is brought out by Mr. Murray's classifying as colored, such men as Velasquez, Robert Browning and Henry Timrod. Yet, since he accepts the dictum, logically he is right in the classification. Perhaps this book will bring not only larger knowledge but clarity of vision to the white American.

Mary White Ovington.

THE AMERICAN SPIRIT

By Oscar S. Straus. The Century Co. 379 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of The Survey $2.15.

This book is a collection of speeches and essays with the merits and defects of such compilations. Some of the matter is necessarily repetitious, and the work falls just this side of being unified. Yet there is a fundamental unity in sentiment and tone. All the articles are pervaded by a frank, liberal, optimistic, sympathetic spirit.

The range of these articles is wide. Mr. Straus is admirably qualified by his diplomatic experience to discuss The Humanitarian Diplomacy of the United States, American Commercial Diplomacy, Venezuela and the Monroe Doctrine, The Growth of American Prestige, Citizenship and Protection of Naturalized Citizens Abroad, The United States and Russia and other essays on diplomacy and international relations. His services as secretary of commerce and labor and his equally important work on boards of arbitration have qualified Mr. Straus to write on the subject of labor, while his work as member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague makes us eager to hear him on The Peace of Nations and Peace within Nations. Concerning the labor problem, Mr. Straus says:

"No greater, more important, and vital question has ever come forward for solution than the relation between capital and labor. It is today agitating the parliaments of all enlightened nations and is receiving the thoughtful attention of statesmen and legislators who recognize that the plane of solution lies high above the narrow pathways of selfish interest."

Taken as a whole the book is well worth reading, though its value rests not on originality but on its serviceable and humane philosophy.

Walter E. Weyl.

THE GOVERNMENT OF AMERICAN CITIES

By William Bennett Munro. Macmillan Co. 401 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of The Survey $2.18.

This volume aims to describe in a summary way the machinery or framework of municipal organization in the United States. The writer has endeavored to outline the growth of American cities, to explain the present day powers and duties of the city as a municipal corporation, to describe the different organs of a city government and to make clear the relations which these bear to each other.

This volume is a companion to The Government of European Cities by the same author. Professor Munro also intends to supplement his present work by one which shall deal with administration and the functioning mechanism of a municipal organization rather than merely with the framework of city government.

After two introductory chapters on the history of municipal development in America and the social structure of the city, he considers the powers and responsibilities of cities, municipal politics, the city council, the mayor and the principal administrative departments. These chapters constitute the bulk of the volume. After having given an outline of the orthodox type of city government in the United States, the system which rests upon the principle that legislative and administrative functions should be vested in independent hands, he takes up briefly the newer form of city government by commission. There are also chapters upon direct legislation and municipal reform and reformers. Each chapter is followed by a judiciously appraised list of references. These supplement the numerous footnotes. The style is clear. The chapters are close-knit and do not attempt to point a moral or aid a cause.

James P. Heaton.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE COUNTRY

By G. Walter Fiske. Association Press. 283 pp. Price, cloth, $.75, paper $.50; by mail of The Survey $.84, $.59.

The junior dean of Oberlin Theological Seminary, long known as a discriminating student of country life, has written this book for the use of college students in Christian Associations and as a handbook for the training of leaders in rural Christian work. Mr. Fiske's hope, espressed in the preface, that his book, because it makes available the results of the Thirteenth Census, will commend itself to general readers who are interested in the rural life movement is not unfounded, for the volume is a clear statement of rural social conditions, their significance in American life and the demands they make upon all thinking people. The writer uses his statistics excellently. He realizes that his analysis must be qualitative, not quantitative, that the question is not how many people leave the farm but what sort of people stay on the farm. He writes with a clear forcefulness and a fine sense of cumulative effect that makes the reading of the book a genuine pleasure, aside from its value as a treatise in sociology.

To all practical purposes, Mr. Fiske forgets that the present problem of country life is as much feminine as masculine. The book on the whole fails to take into account the fact that the farm woman and farm girl are at the bottom of much of the present rural maladjustment, and that until the causes of their discontent are removed a satisfied and satisfying country life is impossible. To be sure, much of the discussion looks toward the removal of these causes, but it does not definitely grasp the whole problem.

With this one important exception, Mr. Fiske sees the rural situation very clearly and in correct proportion. He realizes that all the elements that enter into the farmer's life must be considered together—that the economic, social, religious and personal elements are inextricably interwoven. He realizes, too, that people who cannot play together, probably cannot work together, or pray together; that the ability to cooperate in one undertaking means the ability to co-operate in another. In Mr. Fiske's mind, the country church is but a means to an end, the coming of the Kingdom of God here and now.

"As fast as the very soil of a country is recognized as 'holy land', and preserving its fertility is felt to be a patriotic duty; as fast as better live stock, better plant species and a better breed of men are sought as a working ideal; as fast as the conservation of all natural resources becomes a national life purpose; so rapidly and

inevitably the Kingdom of Heaven will come. The country life movement is fundamentally religious."

On the other hand, in Mr. Fiske's opinion, the country church is efficient only when it helps its people to begin a heavenly life right now, as well as saving them for a life in heaven.

One common fallacy, Mr. Fiske skilfully avoids. He does not assume that all human beings are divided into two classes fundamentally different —city people and country people. On the contrary, he assumes that human beings are human beings, whether born in a community of more than twenty-five hundred people or in one of less, although, of course, every human being is more or less different from every other human being. He does not despair of the success of a man born in a city if he undertakes the highly technical business of farming, nor does he lament the departure to the city of the country man who is better able to win success there than at home.

Mr. Fiske's book is well named. It does state the challenge of the country—a challenge addressed particularly to the college man who is about to determine where he will invest his life. The book clearly and convincingly voices the call of the country for educated and vigorous leadership of its own people. It shows, too, that the guise of the leader is unimportant; if he has put into himself that which makes him a leader, he can come as preacher, teacher, farmer, lawyer, doctor, Young Men's Christian Association county worker, or what not, and he will win the largest measure of satisfaction for himself and his community. The pertinence of his discussion to the satisfied city dweller Mr. Fiske might have put in this question: With a rural society deteriorating for lack of leadership, how can the city be equipped to meet its problems—the city, never self-supporting, which depends upon the country for its leaders as well as its food.

WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER.

BRITISH SOCIAL POLITICS

By CARLTON HAYES. Ginn & Co. 580 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.90.

This book is for the student rather than the general reader. It presents specific information as to the various measures for social reform enacted in England since the present Liberal government was returned to office in 1905.

The measures presented fall into three groups: those dealing with relief, those dealing with labor difficulties, and those affecting the structure of government. Fourteen different enactments are covered, including notification of births, meals for necessitous school children, a so-called children's bill, old age pensions, housing and town planning, workmen's compensation, trade disputes, trade boards (the equivalent of minimum wage boards in this country), labor exchanges, a development bill (in connection with unemployment) and national insurance, Lloyd George's famous land taxing budget, payment of members of the House of Commons, and the curbing of the House of Lords.

In expounding each of the above measures, the author makes an introductory statement setting forth the facts which led up to its introduction and covering the stages by which it was advanced through Parliament. Extracts follow from speeches representing the unionist, the liberal and the labor points of view. Following the extracts from the speeches, the text of the bill in question is given in full, except in a few instances, where certain paragraphs are summarized. In the case of the trades disputes bill, the antecedent acts which are modified or superseded are given. Altogether a mass of information is assembled which will prove a vast convenience to the student.

ELIZABETH G. EVANS.

ONE OF THE MULTITUDE

By GEORGE ACORN. Introduction by A. C. Benson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 300 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

One of the Multitude is not a work of fiction, nor is it the work of one who has merely observed or studied the life and conditions which it describes. A. C. Benson writes in the introduction, "I have reason to believe, and indeed to know, that the record is literally and exactly true. . . . The book is the work of one who had his daily bread to earn, who has had to live and work and sleep in surroundings which menaced all peace and order and decency."

The book is an autobiography of a workman born in the London slums, whose childhood was spent in a miserable home in which the desperate effort to escape starvation had numbed or totally destroyed all natural affection between parents and children. His whole environment was one of ugliness and misery. The influence of a club connected with a mission, and brief association with a settlement worker gave the boy only a yearning glimpse into a world brighter than his own.

While still a child he was apprenticed to a joiner and began a long disheartening fight to earn sufficient to keep life within his body. With a courage and persistence that would be remarkable even in one much better circumstanced than himself, he went from shop to shop in his efforts to advance, and even went into partnership with another poverty stricken youth in a shop of their own; but this enterprise failed.

At about this time he left the wrangling and discomfort of his childhood "home" to occupy a poor attic room where he hoped to secure the "peace" for which he longed; but illness soon overtook him, and actual starvation was imminent. It was through this illness, however, that he at last found a true friend, a man who was able upon his recovery to secure for him permanent employment. Upon the strength of the scanty regular income thus obtained, he married a girl from the settlement club whom, as a youth, he had chosen "to go out with," and obtained at last the comfort of a real home, mean, to be sure, but free from wrangling—a "place of rest."

It is difficult to convey in a few words the intense reality of the humble, sordid life depicted in this story. Many would see only its common-

place or even degraded features. But the tale is indubitably true, and, as the writer says, "perhaps the public will recognize that experiences lived and written down however poorly are of more real value and interest than imaginary fictions beautifully disguised."

MAY LANGDON WHITE.

THE BRITANNICA YEAR-BOOK 1913

Edited by HUGH CHISHOLM. The Encyclopedia Britannica Co. London and New York. 1226 pp. Price $2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.40.

This book, which seems to combine the best features of the best year-books from the historic Annual Register down to the recent American Year Book, is a complete survey of the world's progress from the publication of the eleventh edition of the Encyclopedia Britannica in 1910 to the end of 1912. Its 1226 pages record in readable style important events and permanent additions to knowledge. It is written and edited in the main by the same corps of specialists, experts and trained writers as the encyclopedia itself, and aims to treat its subjects with the same thoroughness and care.

The volume begins with a chronicle of events for 1911 and 1912 covering thirty-nine pages and constituting with its enumeration of nearly 4,000 occurrences an exceptionally full diary. The next 500 pages are devoted to science, literature, politics, law, art, sports, etc. Then follow some 700 pages of special interest to social workers, which deal with the economic and social conditions of the various nations of the world, large and small, including the several states of India, South America and the United States.

While the text is crowded with facts and figures, interspersed with valuable tables, it is not so overburdened with them as to be tiresome reading. Connection with the encyclopedia itself is made by text references and footnotes, a feature which adds to the value of both works. The general make-up and appearance of the yearbook are commendable. It contains a full index.

As this work is principally intended for English-speaking peoples, considerably more space is allotted to the British Empire and the United States than to other countries. These two sections are also especially valuable as containing the results of the recent censuses. The paragraphs on legislation under the various states are carefully compiled from the session laws.

ARTHUR A. BROOKS.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN MAY

THE FARMERS OF TOMORROW. By Frederick Irving Anderson. The Macmillan Co. 308 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

THE PRICE OF INEFFICIENCY. By Frank Koester. Sturgis and Walton Co. 439 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.15.

A PREFACE TO POLITICS. By Walter Lippmann and Mitchell Kennerly. 318 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT AND MORAL PROGRESS. By Alfred Russell Wallace. Cassell and Co. 181 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.34.

PREPARING FOR CITIZENSHIP. By William Backus Guitteau. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 238 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.84.

WHEN I WAS A BOY IN GREECE. By George Demetrios. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co. 168 pp. Price $.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $.67.

BRITISH SOCIAL POLITICS. By Carlton Hayes. Ginn and Co. 580 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.90.

A PERSONAL NARRATIVE OF POLITICAL EXPERIENCES. By Robert M. La Follette. The Robert M. La Follette Co. 807 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.67.

A SUNNY LIFE—BIOGRAPHY OF SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS. By Isabel C. Barrows. Little, Brown and Co. 323 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

YOUTH AND LIFE. By Randolph S. Bourne. Houghton Mifflin Co. 364 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

EUROPEAN CITIES AT WORK. By Frederic C. Howe, Ph. D. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 370 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.90.

THE EDUCATION OF TOMORROW. By Arland D. Weeks, M. A. Sturgis and Walton Co. 232 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

NEW IDEALS IN RURAL SCHOOLS. By George Herbert Betts, Ph. D. Houghton, Mifflin Co. Riverside Educational Monographs. 127 pp. Price $.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $.66.

THE REDUCTION OF DOMESTIC FLIES. By Edward H. Ross. J. B. Lippincott Co. 103 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

INTRODUCTION TO POLITICAL PARTIES AND PRACTICAL POLITICS. By P. O. Ray. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 493 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.65.

MAKING THE FARM PAY. By C. C. Bowsfield. Forbes & Co. 300 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.15.

THE REAL DEMOCRACY. By J. E. F. Mann, N. J. Sievers and A. W. T. Cox. Longmans, Green & Co. 276 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

THE SUPREME COURT AND UNCONSTITUTIONAL LEGISLATION. By Blaine Free Moore, Ph. D. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Longmans, Green & Co., agts. 158 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08.

NEW WORLDS FOR OLD. By H. G. Wells. The Macmillan Co. Standard Library Edition. Reprint. 333 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.60.

THE KING'S BUSINESS. By Maud W. Raymond. Central Committee on the United Study of Foreign Missions. 287 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.60.

WORK AND LIFE. By Ira W. Howerth, A. M., Ph. D. Sturgis and Walton Co. 278 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

THE MAKING OF A TOWN. By Frank L. McVey. A. C. McClurg & Co. 221 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.09.

JUSTICE AND THE MODERN LAW. By Everett V. Abbott. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 299 pp. Price $1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN BOSTON. Edited by Thomas E. McCracken, A. M. The Women's Municipal League of Boston. 301 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.36.

ENJOYMENT OF POETRY. By Max Eastman. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 224 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

THE HUMAN SLAUGHTER-HOUSE. By Wilhelm Lamszus. Fred'k A. Stokes Co. 116 pp. Price $.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $.56.

COMMERCIALIZED PROSTITUTION IN NEW YORK CITY. By George J. Kneeland. Introduction by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Published under the auspices of the Bureau of Social Hygiene. Century Co. 334 pp. Price $1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.42.

THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN PHILADELPHIA. A lecture by George W. Norris. John Jos. McVey. Price $.10; mail of THE SURVEY $.12.

UNIFORM SOCIAL LAWS. A lecture by Walter George Smith, Esq. John Jos. McVey. 27 pp. Price $.10; by mail of THE SURVEY $.12.

THE OLD FASHIONED WOMAN. By Elsie Clews Parsons. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 373 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.63.

LIFE OF OCTAVIA HILL. By C. Edmund Maurice. The Macmillan Co. 589 pp. Price $5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $5.20.

IMMIGRATION. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. The Macmillan Co. 455 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.90.

INDUSTRIAL WELFARE. By Charles Watney and James A. Little E. P. Dutton & Co. 353 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.10.

A PLEA FOR THE YOUNGER GENERATION. By Cosmo Hamilton. Geo. H. Doran Co. 74 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.81.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STANDARDS. By Frank M. McMurry. World Book Co. 218 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

PERSONALS

ROBERT G. VALENTINE, former commissioner of Indian affairs, has created a new profession—that of counsellor of industrial relations. From his newly established office at 27 State street, Boston, he has sent to his friends and to possible clients a pamphlet explaining what his profession is. The prospectus develops the theory that the main elements in "the business thinking of every business man" are the consumer, the products, the plant, labor and the community where the business is located. "The central point where all success or failure hinges," says Mr. Valentine, "is the human factor, and the one spot where the business man can most readily and fruitfully look his business in the face is in the personal relations between a room foreman and the workers in the room."

The foreword continues thus: "Here is the beginning of the search which, if followed, will lead him onward to concrete knowledge of the basic frailty or soundness of his business in its five-fold relations: to his purchaser, the quality of his product, the absence of waste in his plant, the employe, and the vitalizing forces in the community. Someone should always be following this search.

"This need is already realized in many quarters, and in some places first steps are being taken by employers, by employes, by consumers, and by cities and towns. To these, singly or jointly, we offer our services."

The phrase "human audit" is the characterization Mr. Valentine puts on the work which he is prepared to do for the employer whose industrial problems are such that they require the services of an expert.

In a statement of services Mr. Valentine proposes to approach the problems of industrial relations from seven points, and as his profession defines itself in this statement, it is reprinted in full:

> 1. The personal relation between various grades of superintendents and foremen and the workers they supervise.
>
> 2. The relation between these foremen and superintendents and the local managers of the concern.
>
> 3. The relation between the local managers and the company or the ultimate powers in or behind the concern itself.
>
> 4. The relation between the labor forces in a concern and the sources of labor supply.
>
> 5. The relation of the workers to the plans of promotion and the records of efficiency.
>
> 6. The relation between workers and organizations of labor and other movements.
>
> 7. The relation of workers to their home life, neighborhood life and to normal community standards generally.

IN her ten years as general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities, Alice L. Higgins, who became Mrs. William H. Lothrop on May 17, has performed notable service not only for the society, but for the city and the state. True to her conviction that sound case work is the foundation of all large results and true conclusions, she has carried a professional standard into all her work. But she has at the same time been quick to see the implications of the educational principles of modern charity and has eagerly promoted their application in allied fields.

She has helped to secure legislation designed to put the vagrant out of circulation, returning each to his niche so far as one can still be found for him; to give the incipient drunkard a better chance; to establish the juvenile court and make probation more effective. She fought in the first rank for the "bar and bottle bill" (to divorce the Darby and Joan of inebriety), for bills to keep children off the stage and others to make wife desertion less attractive. She has done effective work for a better prison system and for a more discriminating administration of parole. She has awakened us all to put through a radical program for the custodial care of all the feeble-minded in the commonwealth.

In local affairs her influence has been equally important. She has secured the co-operation of the medical charities, been of essential service in organizing the social work of hospitals, helped materially in the tuberculosis campaign and many other local interests, and became a general consultant upon charitable and social enterprise.

Through all this outside work Miss Higgins has not only served the city and state at large, but incidentally she has interpreted the modern charity idea in such a way as to make it far more widely understood. She has made each new call upon her time and resources an opportunity not only for putting through the particular measure that seemed necessary, but for enlisting a new group of workers in the educational point of view of modern charity, until whole sections of the community previously impervious to such ideas have become loyal supporters of the cause. Obdurate old business men, in whom one would never have suspected the ability to look beneath the crude outside of any social question, have become her followers and disciples. Legislative committees have hung upon her words, and governors, it is said, have written messages at her dictation. She has indeed been in all her work an educator. She has had a great belief in volunteers, and has regarded the unskillful and the unbelieving as among her patients. There has been, as a result of her activity, not merely improved administration in many public and private charities and the inscribing of important laws on the statute books, but an improved social atmosphere in the city and the commonwealth.

Miss Higgins' success in the two kinds of work, in the more intimate practice of her profession and in the wider field, has been due largely to the fact that she is one of those un-

usual people who can see both the forest and the trees. She has had the power to see the concrete case in the light of general principles and intuition of the eternal currents of human nature even where the channel was obstructed or seemed dried up.

Very important in her equipment has been a strong team sense that made all her work a civic duty, a service owed by one fellow member to another, as to one of the family, not a gift as between strangers. Important also have been an unfailing sense of humor, an unbounded hospitality of mind and a certain sporting view or ability to play—to see the artistic side of every question—that made the handling of each problem and each campaign a joy and a work of art. Essential also has been a poetic idealism that illuminated every situation both for herself and others.

Somehow this account of Miss Higgins' work seems to have taken on an obituary tone. But Boston confidently expects a continuation of the civic service and leadership on which it has learned so largely to depend.

JOSEPH LEE.

* * *

BAILEY B. BURRITT has been engaged as director of the Department of Social Welfare recently created under the Anderson Foundation of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Mr. Burritt has been in social work since 1906 when he was appointed director of social work of the Speyer School Settlement of Columbia University. In 1909 he became assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and in 1910 executive secretary of the Committee on Criminal Courts of the New York Charity Organization Society. Both of these positions he held until his present appointment. He was chairman of the Committee on Courts and Prisons of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of 1912.

As part of his work as assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association he studied the treatment of public intoxication and inebriety and his report led to legislation authorizing New York and all cities of the first and second class in the state to establish institutions for dealing with the problem of public intoxication and inebriety. Action under this act has been secured in New York city.

Mr. Burritt's work has brought him in touch with hospitals and almshouses throughout the state and special investigations leading to additions to hospital facilities have been made under his direction. A general law authorizing the cities of New York state to establish and maintain municipal hospitals for general diseases and prescribing the methods of organizing and controlling such hospitals has been secured. Surveys of hospital conditions in a number of cities of the state have been made, and in Buffalo such a survey led to the appointment of a board of managers charged with the responsibility of establishing a general municipal hospital. Plans for this institution call for the expenditure of over $1,000,000. Changes in almshouse administration and improvements in almshouse buildings throughout the state have been secured by the Hospital Committee of the State Charities Aid Association during the time Mr. Burritt has been its active executive head.



BAILEY B. BURRITT

For the past three years Mr. Burritt has also been acting as the executive secretary of the Committee on Criminal Courts. During this period important changes have been secured in the inferior courts of New York city. Reforms have been brought about in the children's court; a substantial improvement has been made in the quantity and quality of probation work; the records of the courts have been systematized; the physical condition of court buildings has been made better; a finger print system of identification has been installed in the magistrates courts, and changes of method have been made in the work of the Night Court for Women and the Domestic Relations Court.

* * *

SURGEON L. L. WILLIAMS of the United States Public Health Service has been detailed by the surgeon-general for duty as chief medical officer at Ellis Island. He relieves Dr. George W. Stoner who has been transferred to the command of the United States Marine Hospital at Stapleton, Staten Island, N. Y. Dr. Stoner has completed twelve years' service at Ellis Island, having been reassigned twice.

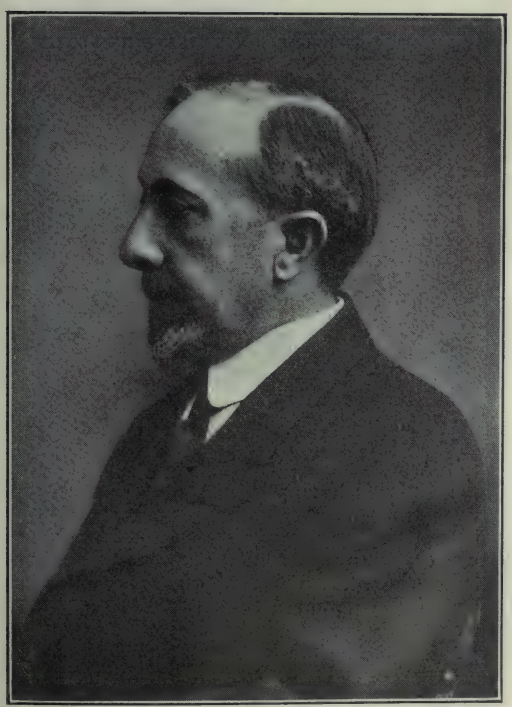
Dr. Williams was in charge of the medical

work at Ellis Island in 1900 and 1901. He has had experience in immigration and public health work in this country and abroad. During the cholera "scare" in 1892, Dr. Williams was in charge of the inspection of immigrants at Liverpool. He has been in command of a number of marine hospitals and was at one time assistant surgeon general in charge of the marine hospital division. For the last six months, Dr. Williams has been loaned by the government as expert medical advisor to the committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment which is inquiring into the Departments of Health and Public Charities in New York.

The chief medical officer at Ellis Island not only directs the physical and mental examination of nearly a million immigrants a year but has supervision of the immigrant hospitals at Ellis Island, to which 10,000 patients are admitted annually. About twenty-five medical officers of the Public Health Service and a large corps of nurses and attendants carry on the medical work.

* * *

AFTER long effort the board of directors of the Seattle Charity Organization Society have induced Richard Hayter to become vice-president of the society upon a basis which will make him practically managing director. Virginia McMechan remains general secretary, with duties practically unchanged. Mr. Hayter will have charge of the community program of the society and will be its general administrator. Miss McMechan's years of service in the Seattle field are recognized in her continuation in her present position. Mr. Hayter's appointment means a larger work.



RICHARD HAYTER



VIRGINIA McMECHAN

The success of the movement to secure for Seattle this year's meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was largely due to the efforts of Mr. Hayter. In business himself in Seattle, though with previous social experience in the East, he has given much of his time to the national conference and other social developments. He has now again returned to professional social service.

The basis upon which the Seattle request for the conference came was the need of awakening the community both to more effort in grappling with the conditions already presented, and in forestalling as much as possible the added problems which are anticipated with the completion of the canal. The value of the conference to Seattle, and to the whole Northwest is expected to prove greater and more permanent through Mr. Hayter's acceptance of this position.

Mr. Hayter is a graduate of Harvard University. From 1896-98 he was a resident of the University Settlement in New York city. He was for one year assistant secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, and for two years assistant to Dr. Devine, serving as one of the first associate editors of *Charities,* now THE SURVEY. He was for one year connected with the New York School of Philanthropy, and was also a resident of settlements in London and Manchester. While in business in Seattle he has given much of his time to social work, serving actively for a number of years on the Charities Endorsement Committee. He has been president of the Social Service Conference of the Pacific Northwest. He is now a member of the Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and a member of the Executive Committee of the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity.



AN UNNAMED PICTURE BY J. G. BROWN
It might be called The Gang or better the Angel Choir. The faces are idealized in the artist's typical manner.

TREND

ALMOST simultaneously two old New Yorkers have recently borne witness to the disappearance of the old-time newsboy-bootblack, one arm full of papers and a little blacking box hanging from the other.

"My boys are all gone," said J. G. Brown in an interview with a *Times* reporter a short time before his death this year at the ripe old age of eighty-two. His studio in West 10th Street, long the gathering place for these little Irish-American street arabs, was still filled with their blacking-boxes, their clothes and their portraits, but the boys were not there.

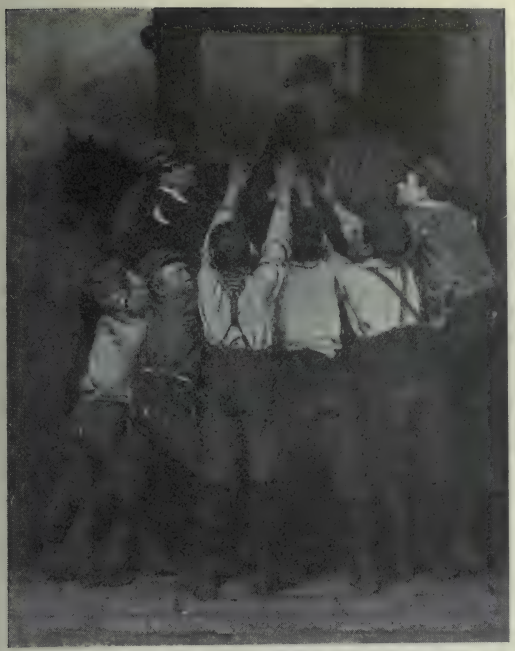
"I have tramped the streets in vain for a model," said he. "Where once I had but to start for a walk along Broadway to find ten at my heels, now I can wander interminably without seeing one. Their very clothes have changed. It has been four years since I have seen a newsboy who had even any trace of the picturesqueness and quaintness that formerly characterized them."

Jacob Riis in *Harper's Magazine* records the same fact. He bears witness to the free and daring spirit of the old school of ragged homeless boys, but he looks at their disappearance not with Mr. Brown's pessimism but as a gain for childhood. He contemplates with undue satisfaction, perhaps, the little second generation immigrant street merchant who has succeeded Mr. Brown's gamin, and who "lives at home and works after school hours, sometimes on his own account but oftener to eke out the family earnings."

For this type Mr. Brown had no use. He considered them sickly and weak physically and "an ugly lot in every other way." Said he:

"'My boys' lived in the open. There wasn't a danger of the streets that they didn't face some time or other during the day. They would take a chance, any time, of being run down by a wagon or a street car for the sake of selling a paper or selling a 'shine.' The result was that they were alert, strong, healthy little chaps, with elastic bodies and frank, courageous faces. . . . You of the younger generation here don't know the right look of a street boy at all. These poor little spineless wretches nowadays are unfit to be considered."

He deplored equally the padrone system in the boot-blacking industry and the compulsory school law as responsible for the change in street trades and street merchants. His account of the effect of the compulsory school law is interesting, even if it is one-sided. "A few years ago," he is quoted as saying, "I was still able to find enough bright, creditable boys to keep me busy, but then they began to go to school. I tried having them come to me on Saturdays, but I was astonished to find that all their charm was gone. It wasn't merely that they were clean and properly dressed. Some of them were still clad poorly enough. But the flavor of the gamin was all gone. They were just ordinary school children. They had become self-conscious. They had found new games and new exercises. They were still perfectly honest and self-respecting, and a far cry from this deteriorated breed we now have, but the essence of vagabondia was gone."



"PAPERS TO SELL"

This reminiscence of the "sixties" in New York was completed by the artist two years before his death. Fifty years ago in place of hundreds of wagons delivering papers at the stands of newsdealers, the boys collected at a few centers twice a day and scrambled with each other for their armfuls.

The effective enforcement of this law in the last decade is undoubtedly in large part responsible for the disappearance of the street arab of this type. The all-day work of boot-blacking is now done by older boys, by youths or even grown men, on wages for the most part. The newsboy law of 1903 still permits this street trade to "rob the cradle" if not the school bench by fixing the age limit at ten years and allowing boys to work till ten o'clock at night. But the supervision that goes with these laws appears to have put the really homeless boy in a home and to have restored the little runaway to his family. The boys in newsboys' lodging houses today are not only few of them newsboys, but they are for the most part youths of sixteen and over from out of town.

It may be that our modern streets are, as Mr. Brown evidently felt, more vicious than in the seventies when he first became interested in the street boy. It may be that the little Jewish immigrant has less physical and consequently less moral stamina than "his boys." Or it may be simply that we know more about the influences of the street today and that the artist who idealized newsboys' faces on canvas idealized as well their characters and lives. "Paddy," Mr. Brown's favorite model, should from his face have grown up to be a saint; history records, however, that he did grow up to be a prize-fighter. From what source, we may ask, except Mr. Brown's generation of street boys, have the gunmen's gangs been recruited?—M. B. S.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE WHITE SLAVE

[For previous communications on The White Slave, by Abastenia St. Leger Eberle, published as the cover for the May 3 issue of THE SURVEY, and editorial comment thereon, see THE SURVEY for May 31, page 311.]

TO THE EDITOR:

Your white slave picture is shocking. It is the kind of shock that gives impetus to the wave of reform sweeping over the country—thanks to Dean Sumner, Lavinia Dock, Miss Eberle, THE SURVEY, the Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis and the late Prince A. Morrow.

The method of keeping the young from evil by hiding evil has failed. What does a parent fear from the white slave picture? Will it tempt a boy to immorality or will it result in an embarrassing question to the parent? How many parents have told their boys of seventeen the danger of "wild oats?" No young man who has been in a large city at night has escaped being solicited by girls on the street. They cannot be kept from the knowledge of evil and should be told the danger by their parents who must be aroused to this necessity by some shock.

It was a great shock to me to learn recently that 60 per cent of men had been immoral before marriage. My college classmates of twenty years ago agree that none of the men realized any permanent danger from their escapades, and that such knowledge would have kept many straight. What proportion of the girls in the best families go wrong? Not one per cent, and yet they are permitted to marry men, at least 40 per cent of whom should not marry on account of the results of their depravity. This is one of the great principles the suffragists are working for—a single standard of morality for men and women. Some men say vice is a necessity for bachelors, but the reader of this can prove by himself that such is not the case. If it were true, the immoral woman would be a heroine, protecting her more fortunate sisters from harm. The rich girl is comparatively safe. The poor girl must be protected from the rich man.

It is probable that those who protest against the white slave picture do not know the facts. Let them ask a doctor about the morality of the men in their own class of life and then determine whether or not strenuous methods are justifiable.

Enclosed is $10 to make me a co-operative subscriber.—AN EPISCOPAL VESTRYMAN.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

I congratulate you upon the group of protests against your cover picture of May 3, the White Slave. I thought that one would get under the hide!

The meanest and most inaccessible root of the whole white slave business and all that the phrase connotes—not forgetting the social and economic conditions which are its fecund soil—is the ostrich-headed prudery typically expressed

in these protests. It is my deliberate judgment that the blazing light of the truth is the first thing needed by the very "young people and indifferent persons who are likely to pick up your magazine at random," as one of your scandalized correspondents so aptly puts it. The "unwholesome curiosity" of which we hear so much glib mention thrives best in the "shelter" of pseudo-ignorance miscalled "innocence."

For myself, I am having that picture framed for the especial benefit of my fourteen-year-old boy. I feared he might not see it, or seeing it might miss its significance, its special message to him. There will go to him with it, believe me, some explicit conversation from his father. I deeply regret that I have no budding daughter; if I had, it would go to her, too, with conversation equally explicit—nor would it be her first acquaintance with the subject.

Hit 'em again, and hit 'em hard! And more power to your elbow.

JOHN P. GAVIT.

Washington, D. C.

TO THE EDITOR:

I agree with those who object to the white slave picture on the cover of a recent number of THE SURVEY and think it was a mistake, in the interest of a great cause, to put it there.

I do not see why you might not be prosecuted for sending obscene pictures through the mail. The only excuse would seem to be that, as the late Professor Norton was quoted as saying about a certain statue exhibited in Boston, "It was too ugly to be indecent."

ARTHUR T. LYMAN.

Boston.

TO THE EDITOR:

What good end is to be reached by the white slave picture on the cover of last week's SURVEY? Must a woman's nakedness be exposed in such a way to awaken pity for her and indignation against the traffic in her body? The picture seems to me indecent and offensive. I say this very respectfully for I put a high value upon THE SURVEY.—D.

Cincinnati, Ohio.

TO THE EDITOR:

Let me give you just one word of heartiest thanks for your reply, in the current issue of THE SURVEY, to those who have criticised you for printing the cover picture of the sculpture group, the White Slave. It was complete and final. I have ever been aware of the fact that you had a great work to do in reaching and educating the general public; but I never before realized, until this recent episode, that you are confronted also by the task of educating your own readers. It is evident that the battle for the absolutely open and free discussion of this question, in speech and print, has yet to be won, even in the case of those who must be supposed to have some knowledge of modern social problems. I count upon you to stick to your guns and fight this thing through to a finish, regardless of subscription lists.

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

It grieves me to say that I can not renew my subscription and run the risk of having another cover similar to that by Miss Eberle come into our home circle. Of course, I am in hearty sympathy with every sane effort to break up the hideous traffic she so eloquently depicts, but I cannot permit the sanctity of our home to be invaded by anything of that sort.

My young daughters tore off the wrapping of the magazine and brought it to me, with wonder and amazement on their faces. No matter what one's sympathy with the effort to reform this evil, one would not put a copy of the report of the Chicago Vice Commission on the library table, and this wonderful piece of work by Miss Eberle is as plain spoken as that.

As some one has said, had it been inside the pages the offense against good taste would have been less. I felt badly enough when it came into my home, but when I saw it lying on the newsstand I felt worse.

ESTELLE R. MCVECKAR.

Mount Vernon, N. Y.

TO THE EDITOR:

As a subscriber to THE SURVEY I wish to thank you for the issue of May 3.

I was in Atlanta, Ga., at the time a little girl was put to death by some low human brute. I think that the artist picture on your cover of May 3 speaks loudly to every father and mother. Is it not strange that some people will strain at a gnat and swallow a camel?

I say God bless Rockefeller and your paper and all who are trying to get at the bottom of the white slave traffic. Keep sending THE SURVEY.

R. S. STEPHENSON.

[Superintendent Associated Charities.]

Raleigh, N. C.

TO THE EDITOR:

I am so amazed and astounded at the letters of protest that you print protesting against the white slave cover that I should be doing violence to my feelings if I did not array myself among those who most emphatically endorse your action in furnishing this dramatic lesson. However apathetic one may be about voluntary prostitution, there can surely be no sentient being whose soul is not stirred to its depths at the thought of pandering. If capital punishment is ever permissible—concerning which I am wavering—it is surely so in this crime of crimes, which is more hideous than premeditated murder, and the unwillingness of anyone to give its existence the widest publicity is to me inexplicable.

The art of the statue might be better, but this is a detail; its lesson is sublime.

JAMES W. WALKER, M. D.

Chicago.

TO THE EDITOR:

The correspondence which has ensued on your publication of Miss Eberle's White Slave has filled me with amazement, as I had thought there could have been but one thought among subscribers of a journal of the character of THE SURVEY as to the utility of such a publication. My wife and I were delighted that you published it, and when it appeared at once showed it to our daughters with whom and their brother we freely discuss the whole range of social topics. Our daughters had seen the statuette at the "futurist" exhibition in New York and had commented on its power to impress a lesson.

No, let us not be afraid! Young men, even young Methodist clergymen, are never "corrupted" by pictures like this. And let those who fear this corruption in their own well-brought-up circle remember the thousands who have been, and are today corrupted by a social system that an age-long conspiracy of silence has done so much to foster. This conspiracy has at last been broken, and while the truth that has been laid bare is by no means palatable, let those who hesitate over some of the methods remember "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

WALTER MENDELSON, M.D.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

Inclosed please find fifty cents (in stamps) for which please send me two copies of THE SURVEY for May 3. Mrs. Laidlaw's review of My Little Sister has so stirred me I want to send the copies of THE SURVEY to the mothers of two young girls who are coming to that dangerous age.

Please send copies soon and oblige,

LILLIAN CLEMENT.

Madrid, N. Y.

A MISSTATEMENT CORRECTED

TO THE EDITOR:

May I make a correction in the story appearing in THE SURVEY,[1] anent misleading statements that have come out of the hearings of the Curran Legislative Commission? Reference is made in the article to the average salary of the workers of the United Charities and that of the workers in the County Relief Department. The former should be about $800 and the latter about $1,200 instead of $684 and $1,332 respectively. The writer of your article is not at fault, since he took the figures from the official statement of our Board of Directors. We discovered the error after this statement was printed.

EUGENE T. LIES.

[General Superintendent, United Charities of Chicago.]

Chicago.

[1]See THE SURVEY of May 31, p. 299.

JOTTINGS

WORKERS FOR THE BLIND

The Calendar of Conferences in THE SURVEY for May 24 contained mistakes in the announcement of the forthcoming meeting of the National Association of Workers for the Blind. It will be held in Jacksonville, Ill., June 24-27. The secretary is Charles F. F. Campbell, 962 Franklin Avenue, Columbus, O.

TO LICENSE COMMISSION MERCHANTS

In an attempt to work out the problem of adjusting profits on food in passing from producer to consumer, New York state has passed the Cole bill licensing commission merchants. The law provides that, after August 1, no person or firm shall receive or sell any form of produce without a license. The power to issue licenses is given to the commissioner of agriculture. This law protects the farmer by requiring each applicant for a license to file a fidelity bond of $3,000 to secure an honest accounting of the moneys received from the sale of farm produce.

SOCIALIST WEEKLY EXONERATED

For the first time in six years no member of the staff of the *Appeal to Reason* is under indictment. In May Federal Judge Pollock dismissed, without allowing it to come to trial, the suit brought against the Socialist weekly shortly before the suicide of its founder, J. A. Wayland. All the cases in these six years have grown out of the persistent attacks of the *Appeal* on the federal judiciary. The charge just dismissed was of circulating obscene matter throught the mails in connection with the revelation of conditions alleged to exist in Fort Leavenworth Penitentiary.

SEX HYGIENE AT BUFFALO CONFERENCE

At a meeting of the executive committee of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene in May, Dr. Hugh Cabot of Boston was elected a member of the committee. The annual meeting of the federation was set for August 27 at Buffalo in connection with the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene. The federation has charge of the sex education section of this congress, and has already secured to speak on this subject P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education; Thomas M. Balliet, dean of the School of Pedagogy, New York University, and President William T. Foster, Reed College, Portland, Ore.; Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University will preside over the sex education section.

H. H. Moore, secretary of the Oregon State Society of Social Hygiene, is arranging, under the direction of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene, a conference on sex education and related subjects, to be held in connection with the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Seattle, July 5-12.

WORLD BROTHERHOOD AMONG STUDENTS

The name of Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, heads the honorary committee of the eighth international Congress of Students (Corda Fratres) to be held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., August 29 to September 13.

The principal aim of this federation, which was started in Italy in 1898, is to spread the idea of unity and brotherhood among students without regard to their religious or political beliefs. It now has affiliated organizations in many European countries and in both North and South America. It is expected that at the coming meeting a plan will be developed for an all-embracing world organization of students in the higher institutions of learning.

MOVIES AND THE LAW IN NEW YORK

Mayor Gaynor of New York has again vetoed a moving picture ordinance passed by the Board of Aldermen. This time the measure contained a "joker" forbidding galleries in moving picture houses. The mayor felt that this clause was inserted to protect theater owners against moving picture competition by making construction needlessly expensive. Few, even of the larger theaters in New York, can seat 600 people on the ground floor, the limit specified in the motion picture ordinance. Several months ago the mayor vetoed a similar ordinance of the aldermen because it provided, in his opinion, illegally, for a cencorship of moving pictures previous to their public exhibition.

COMPENSATION FOR INNOCENT PERSONS

Governor McGovern of Wisconsin has signed a bill providing that the state shall compensate innocent persons sentenced to prison through an error of justice. The act provides for a commission, consisting of the governor and the members of the state board of control, to pass on petitions for compensation. The maximum sum that can be awarded is $5,000.

A federal bill has been drafted to apply to cases arising in the federal courts.[1]

[1]See THE SURVEY, February 8, page 642.

ARE YOU GOING TO BOSTON?

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MISCELLANEOUS

THE APPOINTMENT BUREAU of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston St., Boston, Mass., wishes to know of opportunities in Social Service affording living expenses, for college graduates (1913) who have majored in Economics and Sociology, but have had little field work.

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THE SURVEY

Volume XXX, No. 12 June 21, 1913

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INFORMATION

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York, Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc. of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction, when desired. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request.
Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York.
Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

EUGENICS—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect. Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership $2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SEX EDUCATION. The American Federation for Sex Hygiene, Tilden Building, 105 West Fortieth Street, New York City. Constituent societies throughout the country. Publications to members and upon application. Membership $2 per year.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, $1 per year. Membership, annual dues $2, includes all literature.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education—promotion, discussion, investigation, publications, clearing house of information, legislation, experimentation, constructive work and co-operating agency. For literature, address C. A. Prosser, Secretary, Room 415, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN.—Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston Street, Boston. Mary Schenck Woolman, President. Training for Vocational Teaching and Trade Experience in co-operation with Simmons College; Placement Bureau for Trained Women; graduate Fellowships in Industrial Research. Publication on "Economic Relations of Women."

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee $1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

WORKING WOMEN—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. *"Life and Labor,"* events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Jean Hamilton.
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YOUNG WOMEN—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 600 pp. per vol. $2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics Meeting: Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

INDEPENDENCE DAY LEGISLATION AND CELEBRATION SUGGESTIONS—Pamphlet containing forms of ordinances governing the sale and use of explosives, and plans for celebration of the day. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.
Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, $2 a year.

FEDERATED BOYS' CLUBS—National Headquarters, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass. A clearing house for information on subjects relating to work with boys. Printed matter distributed; clubs organized; workers furnished; conferences conducted. Invites membership. Club $2.00; individual $1.00. Thomas Chew, President; Geo. D. Chamberlain, Acting Ex. Secty.

BOY SCOUTS—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, *"Boys' Life"* $1 a year. Memberships: Associate $3, Sustaining $10.

MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS—National Municipal League 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

CITY PLANNING—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at $5 a Year Includes All Literature.

DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

POLITICAL SURVEYS—Progressive National Service, Forty-Second Street Building, New York City, Frances A. Kellor, Chief of Service, National clearing house for political action on social and industrial justice, conservation, judiciary reform, initiative referendum and recall, corporation control and related subjects.

THE SMOKE NUISANCE—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, Pres.; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters.*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.
To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc., sent free.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION — The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

ORGANIZED CHARITY—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.
To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.
For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY—*April*: Eugenics. *May*: Euthenics. *June*: The Unfit.
See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 75c. per year; club rate 50c.

EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.
Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.
Rev. Harry F. Ward, Secy., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood.
To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.
S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY—*The Congregational Brotherhood of America*, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York.
Sociological surveys made, Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

THE AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY—Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y.
The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, $5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.
Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

IMMIGRATION—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Warren C. Eberle, General Secretary; Frances A. Kellor, Managing Director.

IMMIGRANT GIRLS—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.
For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Secy., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

PROBATION—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

LABOR LEGISLATION—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.
Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.
American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

PRISON LABOR—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas Mott Osborne, Chairman; R. Montgomery Schell, Secretary-Treasurer; E. Stagg Whitin, Chn. Exec. Com. Prison labor conditions throughout the United States examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. $5 a year.

SETTLEMENTS—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

THE PITH OF IT

IT'S a broad jump from one-o-cat to "the biological, physiological, psychological, sociological, pedagogical and economic significance of play," but the New York School of Philanthropy will attempt it in the fall. P. 388.

UNCLE SAM'S thrift in spending only eight cents plus per immigrant at Ellis Island lets through 3,000 mental undesirables each year. Later the cost per alien is $275 a year for institutional care. To figure the ultimate cost of their children in the generations unto which mental defect runs would require an adding machine beyond THE SURVEY'S means. P. 420.

COMPLETE and permanent records of all the feeble-minded and a state board of control to supervise them are the primary considerations in the plan of the New York Academy of Medicine for caring for the mentally deficient." P. 422.

MASHASHIMUET Park and Social Center, established by Mrs. Russell Sage in the old Long Island seafaring town of Sag Harbor, her girlhood home, is an experiment in good will yielding high profits in the enrichment of village community life. P. 413.

THE "copy" used by churches in advertising religion is strikingly the product of ad men who are using material from the social field. A notable "spread" in a Baltimore paper calls men to repentance—because the state is making $30,000 profit a year from convict labor. The church papers are dragging laggard feet from the tanglefoot of patent medicine advertising. P. 408.

REAL neighborhood interest in a city as big as New York is better served by working to open a schoolhouse at night than by driving prostitutes from one district to the next, says John Collier. P. 416.

INSURANCE rather than compensation is what Washington state requires for workers in extra-hazardous employments. Moreover, it furnishes the machinery for it, and that is a very bad thing for business, say the casualty insurance companies—meaning their business. A former commissioner of the state fund tells why it is good for the public's business. One of the largest groups of employers are heartily for it in their lumber business. P. 393.

THE constitutionality of it as a reasonable exercise of the police power of the state has been upheld by a federal judge. P. 386.

JOHN R. COMMONS isn't afraid that the Wisconsin industrial schools will sap the democracy of American education. They promise to sidetrack from machines the nimble-fingered boys who do not see that their wages of 20 cents an hour bind them down to a $2-a-day job through life. P. 401.

WISCONSIN'S plans of this sort are told by a Wisconsin man, H. E. Miles. Not as a teacher, but as a manufacturer, he advocates pedagogues who know more of lathes than of educational machinery. One boy in a skilled trade is worth ten behind the handerchief counter. P. 403.

KERCHENSTEINER, big "boss" of the whole Munich school system, is the best argument for centralized control of vocational and non-vocational school work, says Professor E. George Payne. P. 405.

QUITE the contrary, says Mr. Fish. P. 407.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

GRAHAM TAYLOR — JANE ADDAMS

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THE COMMON WELFARE

PROBATION FOR ALL EMIGRANT HUSBANDS

James R. Motion of Glasgow, Scotland, inspector of the poor, has issued an interesting memorandum to his parish council, on emigration as a contributory cause of family desertion. He shows that since 1908, when an agency was opened in Glasgow which undertook to advance transportation to men wishing to take employment in a large railway undertaking in Canada, more than 340 families of emigrants, involving 1,127 dependents, had applied to the parish for relief. He shows by a study of individual cases that some of these emigrants have permanently separated themselves from their families and made new marriages abroad. The inspector believes that the experience of Glasgow is but typical of many other centers.

Mr. Motion recommends that the government allow emigration of married men without their families only under condition of constant and regular reporting to some constituted authority, with deportation on evidence of family desertion.

Similar circumstances are a frequent cause of desertion in the United States, especially among men who come here from non-English speaking countries, expecting to send for their wives and families as soon as they are able. In such cases by the time they have done enough work here for this they have begun to like the ways of this country, some woman more accustomed to the surroundings attracts them, and all intention of bringing over the far-off wife, who would seem strange in the midst of the life here, is abandoned.

The first report of the National Desertion Bureau (356 Second Avenue, New York) of the National Conference of Jewish Charities shows that it has handled many such cases from Russia, reconciling some after the family has followed the husband, and forcing others to support the family by arrest and legal procedure here, which might be the best way for the Glasgow officials.

Most of the work of the National Desertion Bureau, however, relates to interstate deserters, and the results show what can be accomplished by systematically employing the forces of existing laws. Within a year, 852 cases in all have been handled by this bureau. In 561 cases, or 66 per cent, the deserter was located and in 326 cases he was either persuaded to return home or forced to contribute to his family's support. The most effective means in locating these deserters has been the publication each week in the

אויב איהר דערקענט זיי, אין ווייַ סט וואו זיי זיינען, לאָזט ווייסען זייערע פרייַנד דורך ן „פאָרווערטס"



סעם זיידעל, 40 יאָהר אלט, א פֿרע־ סער ביי טרייד, האָט געוואהנט מיט זיין פרוי און דריי קינדער אין שיקאגא, אילל. אין פערשוואונדען געוואָרען אין מאנאט

מאריס גרינבערג.

חערי דייוויס.

דייוויס ראשין.

אַראָן בענדער.

כאָקם ראָזענפעלד (הדער פרענק ראסס).

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אראָן בענדער 44 יאָהר אלט, איז פעשרוואונדען געוואָרען מיט א מאנאט צוריק און האָט איבערגעלאָזען זיין פרוי און פינף קליינע קינדער אין באלטימאָר, מד. זיי זיינען איצ גרויסע צרות און מוזען אָנ־ קומען צו דיא טשאריטיס. ער האָט שוין איינמאל, מיט צוויי יאָהר צוריק, געהאט

ער איז געקומען אהער פון קרעסטאנאפאל, גאליציען, אין 1897, איז 5 פוס 5 אינ־ טשעס הויך, האָט שוואַרצע האָאר.

"A GALLERY OF MISSING HUSBANDS"

leading Yiddish papers throughout this country and Canada of photographs and descriptions of some of the men, as a "gallery of missing husbands." This often brings immediate information of their whereabouts.

Such extraction is now possible in every state in the Union, for in every state desertion or non-support is a crime. Our experience in America should interest the Glasgow authorities. For several years past William H. Baldwin has made the family desertion laws of the different states the subject of close scrutiny and his pamphlet on the Present Status of Family Desertion and Non-Support Laws may be obtained from him at 1415 Twenty-first Street, Washington, D. C.

COMPULSORY COMPENSATION UPHELD BY FEDERAL JUDGE

Though two states, Ohio and California, have made compulsory compensation possible by constitutional amendment, Washington is the first to establish its constitutionality under a decision of a federal court. Judge Cushman of the District Court of the United States for the western district of the state of Washington has recently upheld the Supreme Court of the state in declaring the law constitutional in the test case of Davis-Smith *vs.* Clausen (65 Wash. 156).

The decision, which cites a wealth of authorities, holds the act to be a reasonable exercise of police power. The case may still be appealed to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, and after that to the United States Supreme Court, so that Judge Cushman's verdict does not represent the final decision on the constitutional question in regard to compulsory compensation legislation.

California has followed the example set by Washington and Ohio[1] and has put compensation on a compulsory basis. The Roseberry pseudo-elective compensation law which has been in operation during the past year is replaced by a law introduced by Senator Boynton after the amendment to the state constitution made compulsory legislation possible. The bill covers all employments and makes insurance compulsory, premium rates being graded according to degree of hazard. A state fund is established and though insurance in it is not compulsory, the aim will be to offer rates more attractive than those offered by the liability companies. Safety provisions are to be prescribed by the Industrial Accident Commission which has the administration of the law and every violation of its safety provisions is to be a misdemeanor and punishable as such, fines collected for this cause to be paid into an accident prevention fund. Furthermore employes are given the right to sue in case of employers' neglect of safety precautions.

[1]The Maryland mining insurance law for Allegheny and Garrett Counties may be added to this list.

On the compensation schedules much time and thought was spent. They have the novel feature of taking into account in cases of permanent partial disability not merely the seriousness of the injury but its seriousness as applied to earning power in the injured person's particular trade. Reasonable expenses for medical or surgical care are to be supplied. Compensation benefit begins after two weeks at the rate of 65 per cent for temporary total disability, 65 per cent of wage loss for partial disability and "if the temporary disability caused by the accident is at times total and at times partial," the benefit is to respond to these varying conditions. Aggregate benefit shall not exceed three times the average annual earnings, nor extend beyond 240 weeks. Death benefits shall be 65 per cent of wages up to an amount not to exceed three years average annual earnings.

THE COST OF MILK

How much should milk cost is a question about which farmers, reformers, legislators and hygienists dispute without end. Even the economists have something to say on the matter.

With the purpose of answering this embarrassing question, the United States Department of Agriculture has published data on the cost of milk production which it obtained at the New Jersey experiment station in tests with thirty-one heads of milch cows. These cows were fed both home-grown and purchased feeds, the calculations of cost of production being based both on the actual cost of growing the crops and on the market price of the products used. The average cost of feed per cow per year (based on the actual cost of producing the crops used) was $95.73, or 2.4 cents per quart of milk produced. Placing the market valuation upon the home-grown products, the cost of feed per cow per year was $121.60, or 3.04 cents per quart. The estimated average cost of labor (but not supervision) and incidental expenses was $70.22 per cow per year, or 1.76 cents per quart. The incidental expenses included bedding, stabling ($5 per cow), interest on the investment in the animals, depreciation in the value of cows, keep of bull, etc., but not interest on land, buildings and dairy equipment.

Based on actual cost of growing and harvesting products consumed and of labor, the total cost for feed, labor, etc., for the year was $165.95 per cow; based on market valuation of feed consumed, $191.82. The yield of thirty-one cows averaging 8,661 pounds of 3.96 per cent milk, the total cost per quart of milk will be in the first case 4.16 cents, in the second case 4.8 cents. No credit, however, is given to the cow for the manure or calf, neither is the farmer's time debited. Calculating that the manure is worth $20 per cow, and the grade

calves $6 each at five days old, the cost of producing four per cent milk, even with the high yields reported and not including cost of supervision, was approximately four cents per quart.

HOW THE DUTCH GIVE ADVICE

United States Consul Frank W. Mahin, stationed at Amsterdam, has made an interesting report to the state department on the Central Bureau for Social Advice, formed in 1898. Today it is doing a flourishing business throughout Holland, furnishing free to regular subscribers, workingmen and even heads of industrial concerns, information regarding various subjects which ordinarily could only be obtained at considerable trouble or expense. The work and organization of this bureau is thus described by Mr. Mahin:

"The number of subscribers is now between 600 and 700. The total of the subscriptions is about $2,000, while the state grants a subsidy of $1,400 and several towns give subsidies aggregating about $800.

"Information is given not only to subscribers, but to anybody who asks for it. A fee is asked unless the inquirer is absolutely unable to pay. The director of the institution is a doctor of law, and the general management is in charge of a committee of nine persons elected by the subscribers. All religious and political parties are represented in the committee, so far as possible, to secure neutrality of action. All information is given to the inquirer by letter. When it is very important, the subject is submitted to experts before an answer is given.

"A special committee collects all documents relating to the history of workmen's societies in the Netherlands. Besides such documents, the bureau has a library comprising books and various periodicals pertinent to the work of the institution. The library contains about 13,000 volumes and over 800 periodicals, the latter including many from foreign countries. Many of the books are loaned to the library, while others are gifts from societies and individuals. The library is much used by the subscribers, and about $1,000 a year is spent for new books, periodicals, and binding.

"The bureau scans the newspapers and makes appropriate clippings, which are systematically catalogued for reference by patrons of the library who may be studying special subjects, and also publishes reports on various subjects pertinent to its work. Permanent members or subscribers each pay $2 a year or a sum not less than 40 cents at one time. Special rates are given to workmen's societies, being about $40 for each 100 members.

"Besides constant requests for information from subscribers, requests have also been received from other private individuals, from industrial concerns, insurance companies, employers' organizations, labor unions, municipalities, foreign social institutions, and foreign governments. Some of the subjects upon which advice and information have been given are cooperation, savings, loans, pensions, illness, burial funds, people's lodging houses, labor contracts, regulations in commercial enterprises, measures against unemployment, municipal-workmen regulations, minimum salaries and maximum labor hours regulations, etc."

This Dutch Bureau for Social Advice affords an interesting analogy to the Solvay Institute of Sociology,"[1] founded by private initiative in Belgium in 1901, and designed as "an international center of information and research in matters relating to the science of sociology."

TEAM PLAY IN SEATTLE

With over fifty social agencies enrolled and 125 representatives actively participating, Seattle's Central Council of Social Agencies was recently organized. It grew out of a conference of a group of citizens and Mayor George F. Cotterill, held in May, 1912. This resulted in a meeting being called by the mayor, which was attended by representatives of all the social agencies, also commercial and industrial bodies.

A committee of fifteen worked out a plan, and a second large meeting in December, 1912, adopted it. The constitution provides that each agency shall pay $5 a year and be entitled to from one to five representatives.

The council includes organizations whose activities are only partly concerned with social betterment. The Commercial Club, the Women's Commercial Club, the Central Labor Council, the University of Washington, the School Board, the Board of Health, the Public Library and the Ministers' Federation have all joined with the agencies directly devoted to remedial action.

There are three general departments. The first includes those agencies which are educational; the second those whose chief feature is relief or remedy; the third, those whose chief work is adjustment between groups, races, parties—fragments of the social whole.

The social program of the council is to reduce the need of the department of relief and remedy to a minimum and to increase the sphere of the departments on education and social adjustment. The council is advisory, not legislative. Its attention is to be given to the immigration problems, which are expected with the opening of the Panama Canal.

Mayor Cotterill was elected honorary president and the other officers are as follows: President, Rev. Sydney Strong; vice-presidents, Prof. J. K. Hart, Virginia McMechen and Ralph Atkinson; secretary, M. B. McBride.

[1]See THE SURVEY of September 11, 1909.

COURSES ON RECREATION

Through its new department of play and recreation, which opens next fall under the direction of George Ellsworth Johnson, formerly superintendent of the Pittsburgh Playground Association, the New York School of Philanthropy recognizes the need for trained recreation leaders.

Twenty years ago few American cities conducted playgrounds. In 1906 only twenty-four responses were made to inquiries sent to 1,000 communities by the Playground and Recreation Association of America. In 1912, 553 cities had playgrounds and 285 conducted 2,094 playgrounds with 5,320 professional play leaders. In addition seventy-one cities had opened school buildings for evening recreation. The new department will train men and women for the great number of positions created by this rapid growth.

The new courses will cover "the biological, physiological, psychological, sociological, pedagogical and economic significance of play; its practical uses and relation to social conditions and individual character and efficiency; commercialized play and recreation; origin and content of plays and games and their relation to different ages from childhood to maturity; organization of play activities; history and meaning of the play movement; organization and administration of play and recreation systems; practical planning and conduct of play and recreation centers; functions of directors and leaders; special activities such as festivals and pageants; observation, practice work, reading and research."

Through his noteworthy work as head of the Pittsburgh system of playgrounds from 1907 to this year, Mr. Johnson has become recognized as one of the leaders in the national movement for play and recreation. His book on Education by Plays and Games, and such papers as those on Why Teach a Child to play, The Renaissance of Play, and Play as a Moral Equivalent of War have attracted wide attention and proved stimulating to playground workers. He graduated from Dartmouth College and at Clark University made an intensive study of the content of plays and games, later doing pioneer work in the development of recreation activities while superintendent of schools at Andover and Hyde Park, Mass.

CLOSING EXERCISES NEW YORK SCHOOL

At the closing exercises of the School of Philanthropy on June 6 Samuel McChord Crothers emphasized the necessity for individual development after leaving the mere preparatory work of the school, and for self-communion even amid the congested conditions which often surround the daily life of an active social worker. Anticipating the pressure which must be met, both from worldling and weakling, he pointed out the value of ascertaining in people the possible trait on which character and independence may be built, rather than acquiescing in a flaccid acknowledgment of their deficiency. Thirty students received certificates covering the first year of work, and diplomas of graduation from the second-year courses were given to eight. An alumni prize of $25 for best all around fitness for social work was awarded to Stockton Raymond of Columbus, Ohio.

The six weeks' summer session of the school, under the direction of Prof. Carl Kelsey of the University of Pennsylvania, began June 16. The subject this year is delinquency, and the aim of the course is to give a general insight into the fields of criminology, penology and criminal procedure. The work of the course includes a brief written account of a visit to a jail, reformatory, prison, or a session of a criminal court, selected reading and visits to fifteen institutions in or near New York city.

CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS CELEBRATES ITS TENTH YEAR

The close of the tenth year of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy measures a marked advance at every point of progress. The number of students registered has grown from thirty-six to 110. Adding to these the 103 in attendance at last summer's session and the 171 in the winter's evening class, 384 students have taken work in the school within the last twelve months.

The Alumni Register, recently published, lists 1,026 men and women who have taken one or more courses in the school during the decade. Of these, however, only 122 have received a certificate from the year course. This year's class numbers thirty-five, of whom twenty-five are college graduates while four others have taken a year or more of college work. Thus eighty per cent have had all or part of a college education. While only one man received the certificate of graduation last year, seventeen have taken regular courses this school year, of whom seven were graduated. Of the 110 students registered in the regular courses of the year, eleven came from the East, eighty-seven from Illinois and other central and western states, six from the South, four from the Pacific coast and two from foreign countries.

Four times the school has been crowded out of its classrooms and space in addition to the entire thirteenth floor of the Lake View Building on Michigan avenue has already been secured in the same building to provide quarters for the new Municipal Department and civic ex-

hibits. Through the special gifts of Mr. and Mrs. William F. Dummer and others, the school was able to establish this department. It is to give special training to students wishing to prepare for such positions as civic secretaries of chambers of commerce or of city clubs and for those forms of civil service offering opportunity and security of tenure for professional work. Dr. Howard Woodhead, for several years connected with the sociological department of the University of Chicago, has assumed the directorship of this new department. His qualifications include the study of municipal administration abroad.

The special work of the Department of Social Investigation chosen for the past year and for next year is the inquiry concerning dependent wards of the Juvenile Court of Cook County. The results of last year's investigation of the truant wards of the Juvenile Court is almost ready for publication. Within twelve months the department has published its previous study of the Juvenile Court, which was conducted under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation. It has also issued the papers of the child welfare conference, entitled The Child in the City; and several pamphlets and reprints on housing, vocational guidance and other subjects. The bureau for supervising the employment of children conducted by the department with the aid of advanced students, has been taken into the headquarters of the Chicago Board of Education where it will be utilized by the principals of schools in their vocational guidance of the pupils leaving schools to go to work.

The extension department has greatly increased its material for the social museum and for the traveling exhibits which are sent on request to universities, clubs, schools and public conferences. Duplicates of the Chicago Child Welfare Exhibit were prepared for exhibition in London, at the Belgian International Exposition and at Brussels. Publications of the Extension Department include a handbook—City Welfare: Aids and Opportunities—and a housing bibliography. The library has been enlarged by special gifts of books, photographs and stereopticon slides.

The field work continues to be distinctive in the training offered by the school. Eighty-three students were assigned to fifteen hours per week for a whole term of three months in the districts of the United Charities. Of these, thirteen continued in this service through the remainder of the year and seventy were assigned to nineteen other fields in accordance with their predilection.

The summer session, beginning June 18, adds a second course to meet the demand of those who have taken the single course in former years. This new course will cover the requirements of the winter work on relief and family rehabilitation, with the field service supervised by the United Charities. Credit will be given toward the certificate of the school.

The alumni dinner at Hull House rallied over a hundred former students. The address, following the presentation of certificates to the graduating class, June 7, was delivered by Prof. Charles R. Henderson, who has become a trustee of the school. His subject was The Goal of Philanthropy. Victor Elting of Chicago has accepted the chairmanship of the Board of Trustees and Sophronisba P. Breckinridge becomes dean of the school to assist President Graham Taylor in the educational administration, so that he may assume the conduct of more courses in the school.

SOCIAL TRAINING IN OTHER SCHOOLS

Summer courses are not offered in the Boston School for Social Workers, the St. Louis School of Social Economy or the Philadelphia Training School for Social Work, but some of the summer sessions at universities have significance for social workers. At Harvard particularly opportunity for such study is afforded in courses on the Psychology of the Abnormal by Dr. William Healy, director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago; on Municipal Hygiene and Sanitation by Prof. G. C. Whipple; and on Vocational Guidance by Meyer Bloomfield, director of the Vocation Bureau, Boston.

Recent developments and announcements for the work of the next academic year at the various schools of philanthropy show some interesting advance steps at St. Louis and Philadelphia. The St. Louis school was recently made a department of Washington University, and it has added to its staff so that there are now four regular members on the faculty. Enrollment rose to fifty-eight this year as compared with thirty-nine the year before. A study made by the school into fatal industrial accidents in St. Louis has been published by the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare.

At the Philadelphia Training School for Social Work a new line of co-operation with various Philadelphia social agencies has been undertaken through "working fellowships" ranging in value from $30 to $50 a month offered by social agencies. These fellowships are given to men and women equipped with the proper preliminary training who intend to devote themselves professionally to social work. In return for the salary or fellowship each student will devote about eight hours a week to class work and from thirty to forty hours a week to field work under the direction of the agency giving the fellowship. Each co-operating agency selects the working fellow and pays his salary.



PERCY STICKNEY GRANT
Who has spent twenty years "fishing" for workingmen in a church on Fifth Avenue, New York.

A SUCCESSFUL FISHER OF MEN

W. S. RAINSFORD

It is twenty years since Percy Stickney Grant came to New York as rector of the Church of the Ascension, and in our city a twenty-year rectorship is a long term of office.

He and I soon became fast friends, for we were from the very first agreed as to what we wanted to accomplish, even though the conditions of the districts in which our parishes lay made slightly different the methods we employed.

We wanted to reach the plain people. We were determined to do what in us lay to prove to New York that the Protestant Episcopal Church (long may she hold the honored name) was not a religious organization chiefly set on seeking the patronage and following the movements of well-to-do and fashionable people, but was willing and able to spend and be spent for those who were neither well-to-do nor fashionable—those whose lives were hard, whose tenements were narrow, and who therefore needed large and beautiful churches, sweet music, and Christian sympathy and help as no others did.

I had been for ten years at work on the East Side, when Dr. Grant came to the West. The Church of the Holy Communion had, of course, always been a free church, but his coming strengthened the hands of Dr. Mottet and myself—and the criticism of the free church movement (and there had been plenty of it) sensibly diminished when Dr. Grant, carrying the vestry of the Church of the Ascension with him, declared that church also free.

If a fisherman would succeed in his business of catching fish, he must ever be ready to change his tackle, and alter the trim of his hook. Dr. Grant soon saw that comparatively few men of the laboring class attended any church, and that fewest of the few came to our church. He was a fisher of men. To the fisher's life he was vowed. There were plenty of fish in the sea, if there were few in the Episcopal boat, so he set to work vigorously to overhaul old nets, watch the tides, and re-examine his bait—to do, in short, such things as any fisherman with common sense would do. He did it all with such rare courage and charm, for he was young, and fresh, and strong, and utterly in earnest.

Of course, all his experiments did not succeed—whose do? But many saw what he was and is trying to do, and honored him for trying. For thinking men know that if organized christianity is to hold its own—today, tomorrow and the next day, it must cease to spend its time in rearranging labels and its energy in rummaging among the moth-eaten trappings of an illustrious past, and set itself once again to the doing of the great task its Master gave it long ago—the task of caching men.

PAROLES FOR LIFE PRISONERS

[*From Good Words, the little paper gotten out by the federal prisoners at Atlanta Penitentiary.*]

When the first golden rays of the rising sun shot across the crests of the rolling Georgia hills on Sunday morn, January 19, they awoke the occupants of both hill and dale to another day of a prosaic existence; to another day of cheer or sadness, or to another day of worship or work.

Speeding on their way, the golden rays crept swiftly over the huge gray wall surrounding the Atlanta Federal Prison and flooded with light the massive stone and steel structures within. Through gloomy prison bars their brightness penetrated, carrying into every nook and corner of the Abode of Sorrow the bright and cheerful light of another day of life. As they stole silently into cell after cell, the golden shafts of light found each and every one of the fifty-eight life prisoners confined within these walls, wide awake to welcome their coming, for to them the golden light had never seemed so bright and warm and cheerful. It brought to them a day bright with hope and comfort, for during the dark hours of the night the warden had sped the message to each one of them that the bill extending the benefits of parole to those life prisoners who had served fifteen years of their sentence had been passed by the Senate—and

there had been no further sleep for them that night. They arose, laughed and chatted; for who would waste in sleep the hours that were now fraught with golden hope? Thus the golden rays of morning sunshine first found them.

Many welcomed it as they had not welcomed the morning light for many a long year. For was not this the first time that it had brought to them a golden gleam of real hope? The bright sunlight of days gone by had not meant to them what it had to the other prisoners—another day nearer home. To them it had always meant nothing but another day nearer Death. But now, for the first time since their imprisonment, the sun's first rays on a perfect Sunday morn enveloped them with the bright light of a newborn hope—the hope that they could once more be free. Free to spend their declining years with loved ones! Free to prove to the world their worth!! Free to taste once more liberty!!!

To one of them the sun's rays must have seemed like a message from the God he has so long and faithfully worshipped; for after thirty-three years of watching the sun rise and set on nothing but dark and hopeless days, it at last brought to him the light of a day filled to the brim with hope that he might be as other men.

As the sun's first golden rays sped on toward the sea, leaving in their wake the birth of another day of life, nowhere, from the Pacific to the Atlantic, were they any more warmly or joyously welcomed than they had been by the fifty-eight life prisoners within the huge gray walls of the Atlanta Federal Penitentiary.

EDUCATION AND WORK IN A REFORMATORY

FRANK MOORE
Superintendent New Jersey Reformatory

A change in the general reformatory problem has been gradually taking place in the last ten years. In the beginning a reformatory was established to receive only first offenders. This meant that almost the entire population of a reformatory institution was composed of those who were accidental violators of the law. Many of these young men came from favorable circumstances in life. They had not been hardened by repeated crimes. In mind and body they were not greatly inferior to the average. They realized that by being sent to a reformatory they had happily escaped the serious punishment of a penitentiary, with its consequent disgrace. Both they and their people felt that great leniency had been extended to them. This made the atmosphere of the reformatory quite different from that as it exists today.

The probation system, established in many states during the last few years, has had much to do with bringing about a marked change. Hopeful offenders are now very wisely being given an opportunity to mend their ways without losing their liberty, while often only those who have been given chance after chance are sentenced to confinement. Thus a more hardened type is being sent to the reformatory each year. It is greatly to the credit of the courts and the efficiency of the probation system that so much corrective work has been done without incarcerating the offender, but nevertheless the work of the reformatory is rendered increasingly difficult.

This change in the character of the reformatory population requires that there shall be a change in its methods in at least three regards:

First, attention must be given to curing physical weakness. Hospital methods must have a larger place in the reformatory than heretofore. At least 50 per cent of our delinquents have some physical or mental weakness. The work of curing the sick is only a part of the service the physician must render. If the constitutional impediments to competency, that are inborn or have come by accident, are not removed they constitute a barrier which shuts the weak soul up in the valley of despair and keeps the would-be deliverer from reaching out a helping hand. The scientific medical treatment, the tuberculosis pavilion and the operating room must first clear the way for the moral reformer.

Second, the man's physical and mental needs must be more intelligently considered in assigning him to work. Many men are failures, and on that account criminals, in life because they have been misfits. No more important moment, therefore, comes to the man behind the bars than when he stands before the officer who assigns him to work. The man's crime, his type of character, his physical needs, his mental capacity, his experience, his happiness, ambition and future opportunities are all to be given consideration with such care and candor that he cannot help but feel that his best interests and not the state's are being sought.

The assignment to work is such an important matter that no single officer should be allowed to determine it. The physician, the psychologist, the disciplinarian, the officer in charge of the industries and the warden or superintendent should together have the man before them. The question they must ask is, "What type of man is this?" "Is he lazy, sexually pervert, alcoholic, psycho-epileptic, feeble-minded, or some other type of man?"

Suppose he is a sexual pervert. His work must be adapted to his character. To put this man at work which does not interest him, and so allow his mind to wander, is to encourage his thoughts to turn to evil. To leave him in solitary places where he can muse is to light

fires of lust in his dark soul that burn his moral being to ashes. He must be given work to do that will bring wholesome fatigue and cause the fountains of life to be absorbed with cooling influence by his bodily tissue. It is all-important that he should be given vigorous manual work, work that uses energy, so that when night comes rest shall be sweet to him.

Suppose he is feeble-minded—about one-third of those admitted to reformatories today are mentally deficient. It is useless to undertake to teach such a man a trade. Such offenders are capable only of simple manual toil. They can wheel a wheelbarrow, drive cows and chop wood, but they cannot lay bricks, build houses or print newspapers.

Suppose he is normal in mind and body. This kind constitute the hopeful class of offenders. Great care, therefore, needs to be taken in dealing with them. The individual's choice must be the basis of assignment. The question is, "What will this man be happiest in doing?" His inclination must be discovered and his natural bent followed as the line of least resistance, in order that he may be made happy by progress and encouraged by success.

It becomes more than ever necessary, therefore, that the reformatory determine for itself what shall be the character of the industries it is to conduct. The old contract labor system is positively a means of evil. Mental and physical weakness are increased by it, and the probability of reform decreases in inverse proportion. The state use plan, if adopted, must consider first the needs of the characters of the men who are to be employed. Always the interest of the man, and not the commonwealth, must be approved or the state fails in accomplishing the chief end for which the reformatory is established.

Third, the system of education must be altered to fit the changed mental character of the incarcerated offender. The majority of the young men sent to a reformatory today are below the fourth grade of the grammar school course. The work, therefore, of the department of education in a reformatory is both important and difficult. The institution must endeavor to secure the strongest possible teachers. It seems a right ambition to aim to make the educational work in a reformatory the strongest that can be found anywhere.

The fact that one-third of the inmates of reformatories are feeble-minded makes it necessary that all instruction for this class shall be simplified, and that longer time shall be allowed the individual to learn. The normal and the subnormal should be separated and different standards established in their education and discipline.

It is necessary, too, that there should be moral lessons. Many strange ideas in the minds of the offender need to be rectified by clear and careful teaching. In their own homes oftentimes they have acquired wrong notions.

The teacher is a part of the offender's everyday life. He can bring to bear upon the miscreant's mind the truths of right living in a clear and practical way, as a lesson to be learned. Each teacher should add his own personality to the lesson that is to be taught alike in each room, thus every day a moral thought is given, and an atmosphere is created such as constantly tends to make a law-abiding and moral citizen.

Two things must inevitably result because of the change in the character of the offender and the methods that are therefore made necessary.

1. The period of treatment in the reformatory must be materially increased. Hardened cases with dull minds and defective bodies can not be set right within the limits that in the past were thought sufficient for those who were normal. How much the time spent in the reformatory will have to be lengthened is as yet an uncertainty. For some classes of cases it will doubtless have to be indefinitely increased.

2. The extent of the reformatory's success will be less encouraging than formerly. In correspondence we have found that the data upon which the reformatories of the United States base their estimate of results is somewhat meager. Some claim that 65 per cent, some 70 per cent, and still others 87 per cent make good. One superintendent puts the matter as follows:

"I believe that 25 per cent of the boys paroled make a greater average of success than is made by the people in the class from which they come. This is due to the training and preparation they get at the institution. Another 25 per cent make good to the extent of living free from crime, and can be classified as good citizens, sustaining the relations of life in a creditable manner. Another 25 per cent are more or less on the ragged edge, having a disposition to minor vices and bordering often on criminal conduct. From this class many are returned to the institution for a second commitment. The last 25 per cent are feeble-minded, degenerate specimens of the race. It would be better for them and for society if they were under some modified system of humane restraint that would prevent them from entering into the complex relations of civilization and reproducing their kind. I believe at the very least 50 per cent are capable of reformation and development into excellent citizenship."

The modesty of this claim recommends it; it seems better in the interest of exact data to adopt it in preference to a higher percentage.

INDUSTRY

THE WASHINGTON WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT AND ITS CRITICS

HAMILTON HIGDAY

LATE INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE COMMISSIONER, STATE OF WASHINGTON

The Washington Compensation Act, from the day of its introduction into the Legislature, as a bill, has been the chief target in the organized campaign of the casualty insurance companies against the principle of state administered workmen's insurance. In this campaign the statement of principles or creed issued by the International Association of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, an organization said to represent 90 per cent of the casualty business written in the United States, has been generously distributed throughout the country. The Friedensburg criticism of the German social insurance system has been gratuitously circulated with equal liberality by the same organization. At every legislature, where the change from employer's liability to some form of compensation has been under discussion, agents and spokesmen for casualty concerns have uttered warnings against any form of state administration of indemnity funds. They concede the necessity of state supervision; they even urge a stony path for an employer who will not take policies in casualty companies or at least in mutual organizations of employers, privately administered; but they fear the extension of the principle of state insurance.

A brief explanation of what the Washington Compensation Act really is will clear the ground for a consideration of these attacks. It went into effect, as between employer and employe, October 1, 1911, and the first compensation year ended October 1, 1912. It created a compulsory fund to which all employes in extra-hazardous employments, divided into forty-seven groups, contributed. During the year something like 6,000 employers paid into the hands of the state, as trustee, roundly $1,000,000. During this same year there were formally reported to the Industrial Insurance Commission which administers the law 11,896 accidents, a close approach to 1,000 accidents per month, out of an industrial army of approximately 140,000 men.

Out of the $1,000,000 contributed by the industries of the state there was paid to injured workmen, roundly, the sum of $700,000, approximately $300,000 remaining on hand as a balance credited in various amounts to the forty-seven classes. This fund was accumulated and distributed without the aid of courts, juries, lawyers or claim agents, the whole jurisdiction of the courts having been swept away by this courageous work-accident legislation.

That the act is wholly satisfactory is not intended to be construed from these statements, but it is believed that a referendum separately put to employers, employes and general tax payers, would show overwhelming approval. The experience of the first compensation year is as follows:

Employers under the act approximately	6,000	
Workmen under the act approximately	140,000	
Total premiums paid		$980,445.75
Awards paid injured workmen in cash	$445,527.51	
Reserve to guarantee survivors' pension	243,984.95	
		689,512.46
Balance in accident fund		$290,933.29
Accidents reported	11,896	
Awarded claims	6,827	
Claims rejected	393	
Claims withdrawn, suspended, doubtful and under investigation, etc.	4,676	

The first annual report of state administered compensation for workmen in Washington is a book of 516 pages, of which an edition of 5,000 copies was printed. In its eight chapters covering the whole field of compensation, are discussed with great frankness the difficulties and successes of the administrative commission. The details of the Washington system may be briefly summarized from the report as follows:

Accumulation of Funds

Every employer in the state engaged in "extra-hazardous" employment is compulsorily a member of one of the forty-seven classes of the employers' association. The Legislature fixed the maximum on each $100 of the pay roll which the members of each class may be called upon to pay during each calendar year. The intent of the law and the practice of the commission is to assess only an amount sufficient to pay the accident awards as they accrue. Accordingly the first year's experience proved unexpectedly gratifying to most classes of employers.

For instance, the lumbering and milling industry is Class 10. The employers of that class during the first compensation year, October 1, 1911 to October 1, 1912, paid to the state, acting as trustee, $324,102.86, which was practically all distributed in compensation awards: $206,146.50 to injured workmen, $117,366.32 being reserved for pensions to widows and children of killed workmen and workmen totally and permanently disabled. The experience in this class was that

the insurance cost for the year to the employers was $1.46 per $100 of pay roll. This was possibly slightly more than the current premium for employers' liability policies written before the law went into effect, but the lumber industry of the state is enthusiastically in favor of the system as it stands because there is absolutely no pending litigation for personal injuries. Every injured workmen who makes a valid claim within one year is compensated, or may be, on compliance with reasonable and untechnical requirements.

Quite generally, employers at first confused the maximum premium established by the Legislature with premiums previously required for policies in casualty companies. The actual first year's experience, however, showed that in many classes only a small fraction of the permitted premium was actually called or required to meet the drain of accidents, for example:

		Premium per $100 of Payroll	
Class	Industry	Permitted	Required
10	Logging and lumber mills	$2.50	$1.46
14	Street railways	3.00	.23
16	Coal mining	3.00	1.23
22	Laundries	2.00	.17
41	Printing	1.50	.07
42	Stevedoring	3.00	1.25

A complete "bird's eye survey" for the initial eighteen months under the law up to April 1, 1913, is shown in the accompanying table.

At the end of any year should there appear a deficit in the funds of any class, the employers in the group are assessed pro rata to cover the shortage. Class 46, powder manufacturing, was assessed for such a shortage three months after the law went into operation, at the end of the calendar year 1911, and a report was widely circulated by the National Civic Federation and the organized casualty corporations that the Washington state fund had "gone busted." The truth was that the Du Pont powder trust, which conducts 90 per cent of the powder manufacturing in the state, refused to pay its premium into the accident fund of its class. It claimed that the act violated provisions of the federal constitution and asserted its intention to carry the question to the United States Supreme Court. Had the company contributed, notwithstanding the fire in a rival plant in which eight girls were burned to death, the premium cost would have been only 5 per cent on the year's pay rolls as against the legislative maximum of 10 per cent. Opponents of the Washington system have been obliged to shift their ground. Instead of proclaiming confiscatory insurance cost, they now prophesy collapse from "insufficient reserves."

Distribution of Funds

The award schedules in the Washington Act fall under three heads:

For a workman temporarily incapacitated payments range from $1 to $2 per work day, according to number of dependents, until recovery;

For survivors of workmen killed, awards range from $20 to $35 a month, according to number of dependents, up to a maximum of $4,000;

Dismemberments or permanent cripplings are compensated according to a scale which measures the handicap of future earning power; the amounts range from $25 for loss of small toe to $1,500 for loss of arm at the elbow.

Accident Experience

The number and seriousness of accidents, the manner in which they occur, the time lost, and the permanent disability which results, the age, nationality, occupation and marital condition of injured are considered in the report from numerous angles in 57 statistical tables and charts. The 6,356 accidents, on which completed awards were made, were taken as the basis in preparing the tables.

Approximately 1,000 accidents occur a month, an accident hazard of 8 per cent. The average award, combining both "time loss" and "dismemberment" elements was slightly less than $100. The number of preventable accidents, in the opinion of the commission, exceeds 50 per cent. In July a campaign of education for accident prevention was undertaken by a majority of the commission over the vigorous protest of the manufacturer member.

Bringing the operations under the law up to April 1, 1913, eighteen months' experience, the summary is as follows:

Firms listed and assessed	6,500	
Employes listed and protected	145,000	
Total number accidents reported	19,226	
Claims allowed	12,753	
Disallowed, suspended and waived	4,318	
In process of adjustment	614	
Accident report incomplete	1,541	
Paid into accident fund		$1,703,556.90
Paid out on claims		929,443.92
Invested in interest-bearing reserves to guarantee pensions		442,681.22
Net balance in accident fund		331,431.76
Gross expense of commission		152,829.06
Expense of doing business		8.2%

The Attacks

It is against this act that the attacks of the casualty insurance companies, marked by statements inexcusably inaccurate, have been centered. In November, 1912, *The Market World and Chronicle,* of New York, an insurance publication, gave four full columns of misinformation signed by A. R. Marsh.

This article claimed that the accident fund in Washington covers medical expense, which was only $4,653.55 for the first compensation year, ending October 1, and remarked: "Either the physicians of Washington receive an inconceivably small compensation for their services or the victims of industrial accidents are given a barbarously inadequate amount of medical attention."

As a matter of fact the workmen of Washington must pay their own doctor, medicine and hospital bills out of their awards under the law or out of private resources, or else charity, intentional or otherwise, foots the bill. The official report shows that the average cost of treatment to an injured workman is $25 (p. 283). There were 11,896 accidents reported (p. 117) out of about 140,000 workmen compulsorily covered by the law (p. 109), 7,000 cases, roundly, being compensated in full or in part in the

INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE COMMISSION OF WASHINGTON

STATEMENT OF CONDITION OF ACCIDENT FUND APRIL 1, 1913.

OCCUPATION	Class	No. of Firms	No. of Workmen	Months called out of 18 since Oct. 1, 1911	Total amount paid in	Claims paid	Pensions paid	Bal. reserve to secure pensions	Balance in fund	DEATHS REQUIRING		RATES PER $100 OF PAY ROLL		
										Pension	No Pension	Basic	Assessed	Required
Sewers	1	120	3,018	Continuous	$ 43,003.26	$ 12,864.48	$ 144.15	$ 5,592.33	$ 24,402.30	2	7	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
Bridge and tower	2	118	2,048	Continuous	34,469.15	11,980.20	694.12	7,312.75	14,482.08	3	5	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
Pile driving	3	75	530	Continuous	11,839.66	4,702.55	.....	.....	7,137.11	.....	3	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
House wrecking	4	91	429	Continuous	3,796.07	2,371.10	.....	.....	1,424.97	2	.....	Various	Full rate	
General construction	5	1,400	10,601	Continuous	136,971.60	47,795.77	3,304.75	35,603.58	50,267.50	12	2	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
Power line installation	6	339	4,147	Continuous	100,689.62	19,676.01	1,645.05	22,456.11	56,912.45	10	11	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
Railroads	7	283	11,215	Continuous	169,801.95	59,568.36	4,534.16	54,283.87	51,415.56	21	16	5.00	2.50	.....
Street grading	8	393	11,790	Continuous	63,896.65	19,864.45	1,253.83	7,110.25	35,668.12	6	2	Various	On 77% of pay roll	
Ship building	9	41	949	6	11,962.31	6,86[illegible].50	61.35	2,551.72	2,488.74	1	.....	Various	On 33⅓% of pay roll	
Lumbering, milling, etc	10	1,437	42,164	11	648,458.60	428,408.75	22,288.08	191,231.45	6,530.32	76	91	2.50	1.53	1.52
Dredging	12	17	441	7	6,831.08	2,408.00	.....	.....	4,423.08	.....	.....	5.00	1.95	.68
Electric systems	13	130	1,064	9	27,611.10	6,175.23	1,606.93	16,031.39	3,797.55	6	2	4.00	2.00	1.74
Street railway	14	22	3,701	3	24,524.02	15,782.86	278.65	3,641.05	4,821.46	2	3	3.00	.50	.40
Telephone and telegraph	15	67	830	12	7,937.66	3,149.10	356.49	3,247.02	1,185.05	3	.....	3.00	2.00	1.70
Coal mining	16	48	5,477	9	132,304.18	67,987.83	6,094.74	54,976.19	3,245.42	22	8	3.00	2.00	1.94
Mines, other than coal, and quarries	17	167	2,171	7	21,486.89	13,134.45	564.00	6,036.50	1,751.94	2	5	3.00	1.17	1.08
Smelters	18	7	881	6	12,498.89	10,755.90	.....	.....	1,742.99	.....	.....	3.00	1.00	.86
Gas works	19	15	937	6	7,021.00	2,031.60	369.01	2,833.78	1,786.61	1	.....	3.00	1.00	.75
Steam boats	20	16	169	9	1,528.30	489.00	.....	.....	1,039.30	.....	1	3.00	1.50	.48
Grain elevators	21	223	1,923	3	9,306.37	8,646.58	.....	.....	659.79	.....	.....	2.00	.33	.31
Laundries	22	188	3,184	4	9,656.55	6,360.20	.....	.....	3,296.35	.....	.....	2.00	.44	.29
Water works	23	119	553	9	7,796.71	1,659.10	413.31	2,434.03	3,290.27	2	.....	2.00	1.00	.58
Paper mills	24	5	734	18	16,635.92	8,399.80	576.30	5,316.71	2,343.11	2	2	2.00	2.00	1.72
Garbage works	25	11	163	9	2,842.35	850.50	.....	.....	1,991.85	.....	.....	2.00	1.00	.30
Wood working	29	308	4,304	8	48,855.67	37,782.17	185.32	1,080.24	9,807.94	1	2	2.50	1.11	.88
Asphalt manufacturing	30	11	261	3	1,834.27	8.05	.....	.....	1,826.22	.....	.....	2.50	.42	.002
Cement manufacturing	31	83	981	9	11,758.94	3,398.53	661.68	4,361.03	3,337.70	2	3	2.50	1.25	.90
Fish canneries	33	41	3,687	3	11,787.21	5,470.50	200.00	3,800.00	2,316.71	1	1	3.00	.50	.40
Steel manufacturing foundries	34	548	4,488	9	49,156.91	31,430.00	551.85	3,124.83	14,050.23	1	1	2.00	1.00	.71
Brick manufacturing	35	49	1,703	3	6,358.01	4,373.50	153.00	1,702.60	128.91	2	.....	2.00	.33	.33
Breweries	37	72	1,045	6	10,704.79	3,671.20	928.83	3,153.81	2,950.95	1	1	2.00	.66	.48
Textile manufacturing	38	146	1,573	3	3,893.07	2,372.75	110.65	417.30	992.37	1	.....	1.50	.25	.19
Food stuffs	39	84	1,208	3	3,162.33	2,164.99	.....	.....	997.34	.....	.....	1.50	.25	.17
Creameries	40	106	552	3	2,228.85	614.20	.....	.....	1,614.65	.....	.....	1.50	.25	.07
Printing	41	349	1,966	3	6,792.94	2,908.15	.....	.....	3,884.79	.....	.....	1.50	.25	.11
Longshoring	42	68	6,849	9	20,661.71	16,716.95	286.66	3,807.39	149.29	1	1	3.00[1]	1.50	1.50
Packing houses	43	27	824	6	7,290.75	3,854.10	64.65	575.29	2,796.71	1	.....	2.50	.83	.51
Ice manufacturing	44	60	298	9	2,547.54	1,547.35	.....	.....	1,000.19	.....	.....	2.00	1.00	.61
Theater stage employes	45	23	130	6	526.21	181.15	.....	.....	345.06	.....	.....	1.50	.50	.17
Powder works	46	6	196	5	578.28	2,978.65	.....	.....	2,400.37	.....	1	10.00[2]	3⅓% would have been enough if paid	
Creosoting works	47	8	137	8	719.14	379.35	.....	.....	339.79	.....	.....	2.50	1.11	.58
Non-hazardous elective	48	57	310	6	1,830.39	342.45	.....	.....	1,487.94	.....	.....	1.35	.45	.08
		7,379	139,631		$1,703,556.90	$882,116.36	$47,327.56	$442,681.22	$331,431.76	184	168			

[1]This fund replenished April 2, 1913.

[2]Warrants issued but payment refused and warrants not paid for want of funds.

twelve months ending October 1, 1912. The treatment cost of these work accidents was therefore approximately $175,000, earned by 1,150 physicians (p. 243). The $4,653 referred to was for examinations by the sixty state inspector-surgeons (p. 47) employed to check up reports of the injured man's physical condition in doubtful cases, for a state-paid fee usually of $2.50 per examination.

A further charge was that under the state's law, $243,984.95 was the insufficient reserve expected to guarantee a monthly pay roll of $2,364.50 on the expectancy of survivors' lives. This wise-looking casualty objection falls, because the most cursory inspection of the law shows that the maximum reserve is $4,000, although there may be a widow and several children who will receive from the state in aggregate pensions over $10,000 before the widow dies or the children all reach the self-supporting age of sixteen (p. 261). If the reserve and its interest-earnings are exhausted, the class of employers in whose business the workman was killed is automatically assessed at the future date to continue the survivors' pensions. Children drop from the roll on arriving at the age of sixteen and widows on remarriage.

To the criticism that the per cent of claims settled by casualty companies five years and more after accidents happen demonstrates that a state system must maintain reserves in contemplation of similar experience, it is sufficient to point out the absence of an analogy. Claims in Washington can not be made to the Compensation Board after one year and the system does not contemplate the delays of litigation. Continuing pensions remitted monthly to survivors bear no real relationship to the lump sum settlements of profit-making organizations.

A Reactionary Pamphlet

More socially important than this article is the distribution by casualty companies, presumably throughout the country, of a thirty-one-page pamphlet attack on the Workmen's Compulsory Compensation System, with the significant subtitle: A Proved Failure and a Business Menace, for the reproduction of which, entire, the *Market World and Chronicle* gave a dozen full columns. The pamphlet is put out as the voluntary product of J. V. Patterson, president of a great Seattle ship-building corporation. Mr. Patterson opposed the compensation system in Washington, the "predatory provisions" of which "are in violent antagonism to freedom" and the constitution of the United States! He urged that the state had better be sure that workmen do not starve from lack of work than that the few who get hurt be insured payment of money. The state commission received many protests from owners of smaller machine shops against being included in a class with Mr. Patterson's plant because of its bad reputation for accidents. At the time his pamphlet was being distributed his plant had cost his class fund nearly $1,000 more than he had contributed.

The pamphlet bears all the earmarks of being put out and paid for by the casualty organizations. On the last page the Seattle representative of the Aetna company is credited with "invaluable service in its production"—the same George W. Rourke who put out a "treatise" similar in style, size and color in 1911, circulated by the thousand to convince the employers of Washington that the newly enacted law was unconstitutional and void. The "treatise" was speedily suppressed when the Supreme Court of Washington sustained the act from both state and federal viewpoints.

The Patterson pamphlet is to be found in nearly every shop in Seattle. During the sixty day session of our Legislature it was laid on the desk of each member with its "demand for legislative investigation." It was heard from in Ohio and republished in New York city—so important is this Northwestern state. This pamphlet undertakes to prove the "monopolistic state industrial insurance scheme" to be "a monumental mistake" and to show that:

(1) The creation of forty-seven separate and distinct employers' insurance associations to guarantee workmen's compensation is a crime against business.

(2) State administered industrial insurance is an injustice to employers.

(3) The law is a breeder of accidents and unjust to workmen.

(4) It is a tool for the unscrupulous politician to menace business.

Opposition to Trade Groups

It is charged that the state does not require "cash capital nor surplus and neither financial statement nor bond from employers to guarantee their assessments as they mature." But the full power and machinery of the state may sell out a man's business under the sheriff's hammer if he refuses to pay! Let it be granted that occasionally a small contractor or other employer will go insolvent or abscond after a workman in his employ has been killed or seriously hurt. The state out of sound public policy would better pool this risk, together with the risk of industrial maimings, than leave such a workman and his family to charity or the tender mercies of trained "claim agents."

Messrs. Patterson and Rourke then recite industrial calamities that happen—boiler and dynamite explosions, collapse of structures, ship building catastrophies, and naively remark: "Any such disaster would bankrupt a small company and would cripple or destroy a large industry." This is a curious and self-answering argument against the state pooling such risks and classes.

Misstatements of alleged financial consequences of the death of eight girls in a powder mill fire November 1, 1911, have been distributed to every office building and small town in America. The Patterson pamphlet repeats these

oft-told tales. The facts are given on page 60 of the Washington official report:

Total amount collectible from powder-mills of Class 46	$21,368.50
Liabilities resulting from "Chehalis disaster"	8,259.35
Balance	$13,109.13

The Du Pont powder trust defied the state of Washington and refused to pay into the accident fund its proportion, realizing that in its haste the Legislature, in establishing the forty-seven classes, had segregated some weak groups. The parents of these burned girls therefore collected their pensions in cash for a few months after the accident and continue to receive warrants monthly which are payable by the employer whose plant was immediately rebuilt and is operating. This employer, however, is avoiding payment by legal quibbling methods familiar to court procedure, hoping in the meantime the suit against the powder trust by the state will result in their payment into the fund and thus relieve him of the outlay.

On page 13 of the pamphlet it is indicated that there are no statistics (or that they were withheld by the state) of the number of accidents in each of the classes. Yet Appendix I of the state report furnishes the name and address of each employer in Washington (grouped by accident class), the amount paid into and out of the accident fund on his account, the approximate number of employes, the exact number of accidents reported. The commentators in their haste overlooked these 150 pages of classified statistics.

Injustice to Employers

Mr. Patterson declares that for some six or seven reasons the Washington act is unjust to employers. In spite of all this injustice the state has just closed its most prosperous year. Under this charge of "injustice" the pamphlet asserts that "the freedom of contract is abridged" because casualty companies are not allowed to compete with the state. Undoubtedly they would grant the state the right to take the poor risks and leave them the profitable ones.

Another "injustice" is that the state commission only investigates by correspondence and keeps no "permanent record of the testimony concerning accidents." As a matter of fact trained claim agents and members of the commission are constantly investigating claims where the facts are in dispute. An exceedingly careful and complete record is kept of all accidents. However, the proportion of cases requiring such investigation, like the awarded cases appealed from the commission to the courts, are relatively so few as to be almost negligible. Employer, workman, attending physician and eye witnesses fortunately have no motive for disagreement. Only thirty-eight claimants out of 17,825 have been induced to appeal from the commission's action!

It is charged that reserves should have been set aside for others—in effect that the commission should estimate out of the roll of convalescents those who will die, those who will remain incurably maimed, and those who will regain the power to work. Would Mr. Patterson do this in a privately managed employers' association? Or do casualty concerns maintain such refined accounting practice? Such reserves in Washington as are not used up because of remarriage, premature death, etc., revert to the funds of the particular class of employers.



EDWARD SWEUM

He is the first beneficiary under the Washington act. He lost both arms in a planing mill and received as compensaton $1,000 and a pension of $30 a month.

More to the point is the demand that "25 per cent of the $2,000 average reserve" be set aside to provide for undiscovered relatives of killed workmen. The commission communicates with consuls of foreign countries, etc., to ascertain available facts. It is submitted that with claims to be made within one year, the state may defer the setting aside of the reserve required by law until dependents are discovered, without essential injustice to any employer. Such anxiety was not always so insistently in evidence in insurance companies' offices.

Mr. Patterson compares the "rate per $100 of pay roll" given in the first year's experience —i. e., $1.40 per $100 in the logging and lumber mill class—with the "rate" three months later and finds it has jumped to $2.29! Remittances on new assessments called at the beginning of

the second year are included in the new "rate." Let the writer suggest that he wait five years for comparison; perhaps the "rate" then obtained by adding the five separate yearly premiums paid would make a showing of $7.50 per $100 of pay roll!

Should a deficit exist after premiums are assessed up to rate established by the Legislature, the law provides for making up such deficit at the end of the year by the members of the employer's class. If manufacturers, contractors, and other employers will not keep down accidents by preventive devices and painstaking management, they must pay for them. It is safe to say that the compulsory employers' associations, or classes, which the Washington law provides will enthusiastically aid the state in bringing the sub-standard employer and his machinery up to average, when they fully realize that to prevent accidents is to save money.

The reserve is experientially limited to $4,000 (which at 5 per cent interest yields $20 per month) for death and permanent total disability. The reserve is limited because of lack of data on the marriage rate of workmen's widows, and death rate of workmen's children under sixteen, workmen completely disabled, workingmen's wives, etc. The average cost per death is smaller because of the large number of single men without dependents. Would Mr. Patterson have the state call for full mortality table reserves on standard, healthy lives and doctor's estimates?

Breeding of Accidents

While the Patterson pamphlet declaims against the "breeding of accidents," the organized employers of Washington met in Seattle in January, just before the Legislature convened, and denounced any attempt to increase the powers of the commission to rearrange classes or readjust rates according to accident experience and safety precautions in individual plants; they opposed the substitution for the present plan of a plan of "first aid" or payment of medical costs of an accident (which are now borne wholly by the workmen in Washington). Men who are laid off by accident for one day or more now get compensation. Under the proposed plan workmen were to receive no compensation from the accident fund until after a "waiting period" of two weeks, but to have medical attention at the employer's expense. The idea of the plan was to stimulate the prevention of accidents and lessen their consequent drain on class funds.

In fact on November 19, 1912, a delegation representing organizations of lumbermen and metal trades employers went so far as to call on the governor and demand the removal of the compensation commissioner who advocated the plan and who insisted on devoting chapters in the official report to Accident Prevention and First Aid.

It comes with poor grace, therefore, for "big business" to attempt to discredit this law by pleading the workmen's cause. In fact, the law arose out of a joint commission, five representatives of employers and five of labor; the draft unanimously agreed upon provided a "first aid fund" out of which all medical and hospital service needed by injured workmen, including transportation from the place of injury, and $5 per week for board, etc., was to be furnished independently of the class accident or compensation fund. The lumbermen in violation of good faith, got the "first aid" provision stricken out before allowing the act to pass, and a "one-legged" law resulted. Out of 1,077 cases tabulated (p. 283) where no permanent disability resulted, the results aggregated as follows:

Wage loss	$74,840.18
Cost of treatment	25,218.80
Total loss	$100,558.98
Amount awarded (cost to industry)	33,050.63
Workmen's loss (cost to wage earners)	$67,008.35

Notwithstanding the unfair showing made (the above cases do not include death awards or dismemberment-scale settlements) workingmen pretty generally realize that they receive more satisfactory treatment than under the discarded casualty-litigation system. But the showing made certainly refutes the idea that the law operates so generously as to be a "breeder of accidents."

Admittedly, certain delay occurs in Washington in collecting information necessary to make an award. Perhaps forty days on the average elapse between accident and first money payment. But organized employers declined to pay the doctor, hospital, etc., i. e., meet the expenses for which money is most urgently required, and Mr. Patterson was very prominent in the fight.

Reactionary employers of the type revealed in this pamphlet and their profit-seeking casualty allies, are well described in a recent address by Chairman Pillsbury of the California Board of Accident Awards:

"Few employers have sensed the fact that ever since the rise of free industry in the world, the industries of the world have been subsidized out of the sacrifices made by injured workmen and those dependent upon them. Such is the fact. In part, this subsidy has been paid by the hurt and their dependents, and in part by taxes paid for the relief of the poor. Therefore, it is true to say that the industries of this and other countries have in part thriven off bonuses paid to them by poverty and property, and, to that extent, these industries are paupers and are not paying their own way. They should be made to, and the industry that can not continue except it be subsidized out of the blood and broken bones of men, the tears of widowed women, and the sobs of dependent children, were best to terminate their unprofitable existences."

NEW YORK'S NEW LABOR LEGISLATION

ABRAM I. ELKUS
COUNSEL FACTORY INVESTIGATING COMMISSION

One hundred and forty-seven lives were sacrificed in the Triangle Waist Company fire which occurred in New York in March, 1911, because of the faulty construction and neglect of maintenance of a factory building. The absolute indifference of the public, the fancied security, the conviction that all was well with existing conditions was ruthlessly shattered. In response to a widespread demand for an impartial inquiry into working conditions the New York State Factory Investigating Commission was appointed two years ago. This was the first step in a comprehensive plan of remedial legislation.

The commission was given broad powers and the scope of the investigations it was directed to undertake was wide. The investigation was to cover such matters as fire hazard in factories, general sanitary conditions, child labor, women's work, accident prevention, occupational poisoning, manufacturing in tenements, and the organization of the Labor Department and the administration and enforcement of the labor law.

The conditions confronting the commission during the first few months of its existence were hardly encouraging. Everywhere there seemed to be a spirit of antagonism between employers and workers. The Labor Department, in whose hands was placed jurisdiction over all matters affecting the health and safety of workers in industrial establishments, was comparatively insignificant, having a small force and a still smaller appropriation to work with. It was ignored by the manufacturers and the workers for the most part placed little reliance upon it. It did not, and with its limited resources it could not, perform its function of bringing about a steady improvement of working conditions through the education of manufacturers and workers.

The commission had to inspire confidence in labor leaders and social workers that its investigation would be a real one, that it would be fairly and impartially conducted and that results would be accomplished. The commission sought to overcome this lack of confidence which, considering the record of many legislative commissions was perhaps a natural one, by organizing on a sound scientific basis, retaining recognized experts to direct its investigations and selecting as field inspectors men and women of experience and training. Testimony—not hearsay or conjecture, but legal evidence—was taken in every large city of the state, not in an effort to support preconceived conclusions, but in an earnest endeavor to obtain all the light possible on the complex problems under consideration. All sides were heard. No commission heretofore has ever permitted any counsel but its own to interrogate witnesses. This commission permitted counsel for interested parties to examine and cross-examine witnesses. The commission employed investigators who worked in various industrial establishments and then on the stand at public hearings and in the presence of interested manufacturers, described the conditions they observed and were subjected to cross-examination by counsel for the manufacturers. The result of this was that there was practically no dispute as to the facts which the commission laid before the Legislature.

Usually, after completing the taking of testimony, a commission presents its recommendations to the Legislature together with a number of bills designed to carry these recommendations into effect. The only hearing on these bills given to interested parties is before a committee of the Legislature. This is necessarily hurried and has often resulted in defective legislation. The Factory Investigating Commission adopted an entirely different practice. Suggestions concerning legislation which the commission thought practicable or worthy of discussion were embodied in the form of bills, and thousands of these were printed and sent throughout the state to persons interested for criticism and suggestions. Hearings were held in a number of cities to consider these tentative bills, and many persons appeared and criticised the bills and proposed amendments. As a result when the commission began to draft its bills there was at hand the concensus of the best opinion on all its proposed measures. In order that there might be no technical mistakes in the bills, the commission called into consultation the Legislative Bill Drafting Bureau of Columbia University.

A noticeable change took place in the attitude toward the commission as the investigation progressed. Both the public and those interested as social workers rendered material assistance. Manufacturers who had hitherto regarded their employes with less respect than they did their machinery began to realize that they had not grasped industrial conditions and that they had made a mistake in their treatment of employes, not alone from the human standpoint but from the standpoint of dollars.

Of the thirty-two laws recommended by the commission at the last session of the Legislature thirty passed.[1] They cover every phase of factory life. Their enactment gives New York state a labor law second to none in the world.

Laws for the protection of factory workers in case of fire provide for the prohibition of smoking in workrooms, for fire drills, fire alarm signal systems and adequate fire-escapes and stairways. Others limit the occupants in a factory building to the number that can safely escape by means of the exits provided and prescribe in detail requirements for the future construction of factory buildings.

Child labor legislation covered the prohibi-

[1]Bills requiring automatic fire extinguishers in existing buildings and the labelling of containers of wood alcohol failed of passage.

tion of the employment of children under fourteen in tenements or in cannery sheds, and provided better regulations for the issuance of work certificates. Last year's bill, requiring physical examination prior to the issuance of certificates, was supplemented by a bill requiring the physical examination of children in factories and the cancellation of their working certificates subject to reissuance if later medical examination so warrants. Another bill gives wide scope to the Industrial Board, to be spoken of later, in the prohibition of the employment of children at dangerous machines or in trades or occupations found to be dangerous to their health. The educational standard was raised so that hereafter no child shall receive an employment certificate unless it has completed the work of the first six years of the public school, or an equivalent; that is, has received the normal education of a child of twelve.

In the protection of women workers laws were passed prohibiting night work for women in factories and requiring seats for women workers. Women were found to be employed in canneries as many as 115 and 119 hours a week. The hours of labor for women were limited to sixty a week during the canning season, and the industrial board was authorized to permit their employment for sixty-six hours a week during the pea crop season if, in its opinion, the health of the women workers would not be endangered thereby. The employment of women in the core-rooms of foundries was restricted.

Laws were passed dealing with safety and sanitation, viz., guarding of machinery, regulation of dangerous trades, cleanliness, proper lighting and ventilation, adequate water-closet and washing facilities and safe and healthful conditions in foundries.

Conditions in bakeries were the subject of a separate act. This provides for proper sanitation of bakeshops, prohibits future cellar bakeries, prohibits the employment of diseased bakers and requires bakeries to obtain sanitary certificates before they are permitted to operate.

The bill dealing with manufacturing in tenements represents an important advance in social legislation. It prohibits the employment of children under fourteen and the manufacture, in living apartments of tenements, of any article of food, dolls or dolls' clothing or infants' or children's wearing apparel. Manufacturers who send goods to a tenement home are required to obtain a permit, and provision is made for publication of names of those holding permits.

What the commission considers of even greater importance than the foregoing measures is the law reorganizing the Department of Labor. By this law the department is lifted from the obscure position it has heretofore occupied and is made one of the great departments for the state government. An Industrial Board was created to make detailed rules and regulations for safety and sanitation in different industries under varying conditions. These regulations, adopted after a public hearing at which all parties in interest will have an opportunity to be heard, are to be incorporated in an industrial code which may be added to or modified as conditions warrant. The Industrial Board is given authority to conduct special investigations into industrial conditions and has all the powers of a legislative committee to subpoena witnesses and compel the production of books and papers.

For scientific investigations a Division of Industrial Hygiene was created, composed of trained professional men, a physician, a chemist, a mechanical engineer and a civil engineer. For the health inspection of industrial establishments and the physical examination of children employed therein, a section of medical inspection was created. The Department of Labor was placed upon a scientific basis and given the facilities with which to solve the increasing complex problems of modern industry. But more than that, it is to exercise a great educating influence in the community, to raise the standards of employers and workers, to inspire in both the desire for a steady betterment in the conditions of labor and to teach them the methods to be adopted to attain that end. Employers and workers should be made to feel that it is going to be profitable, not only in a social sense but financially, to improve working conditions.

The problem of the future with reference to industrial workers is a most serious one and requires earnest thought and consideration. What is needed among workers, and particularly those in industrial establishments, is efficiency. The claim is made that wages are small because the worker is not capable of earning a higher wage; that the worker lacks skill and apparently the ability to attain skill. These facts the commission is now investigating and will report its decision thereon to the next Legislature. But whatever may be the report of the commission on this subject which involves the minimum wage question, or on other conditions of labor, there can be no doubt but that there should be a great change in the system of education for boys and girls who are to work in the industrial establishments of the state.

The public schools and common schools of our state apparently train our boys and girls to be clerks, and when they leave school they find themselves unfitted to enter any of the industries. Their entire school training not only unfits them for entering a factory or learning a trade, but tends to instill a dislike for a trade or for being a skilled worker in a factory.

After the boys and girls enter a factory or mercantile establishment, a continuation school should be established, in which they may be instructed and encouraged to keep abreast of the world's progress in literature, art and science, and also taught those subjects which will help them advance in their own occupation.

The Department of Labor as reorganized is going to be the great educational factor in the industrial world; but the department's work will be made a thousand times as great and the results accomplished by it will be a thousand times better if the boy and girl receive in the school, in the first instance, the training and education which will fit them for work in the factory or other industrial establishment.

EDUCATION

THE BORDER LINE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND WORK

[The following articles deal with various aspects of the problem of industrial education prominently before the American people of today. They have come into the hands of THE SURVEY *independently and, while no particular connection is claimed for them, it is believed that their publication at this time throws real light on the subjects discussed.*—Ed.]

THE JOB HOBO AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

If you want to see the panorama of modern industry, said John R. Commons in a recent address before the Social Service Institute in Milwaukee, you will have to look in at a free employment office. There you behold it passing before you. "You are astonished," he went on, "at seeing the crowds of boys and young men—the army of the semi-skilled. You offer them a position at a dollar or a dollar and a quarter a day, where they can learn a trade or get promotion, and they laugh at you. They have been spoiled. They could earn that much before they were sixteen years old! At the age of seventeen or eighteen they have been earning eighteen to twenty cents an hour—twice as much as you offer them. To the boy of sixteen, twenty cents an hour, at a two-months' job, looks bigger than the fifty cents or a dollar an hour and steady work at the end of a ten-year line of future promotion. He has suddenly found himself earning more than his immigrant father.

"Why is it that these boys do not look ahead? Why do they not know that twenty cents is the highest they will ever earn? That they will scarcely hold such a job more than four or five months? That ten years from now they will be loafing in the back part of the employment office with the flotsam and jetsam that they already see behind them, vainly waiting for a twenty-cent job of two or three days, or else hopelessly accepting, for the rest of their lives, an old man's job at a dollar or so a day, long hours, and Sundays thrown in?

"Let us see where they got their notions of work and wages. At sixteen or seventeen they are put to work feeding a semi-automatic machine. In two months they have learned the job and got the speed. Their wages go up to eighteen or twenty cents an hour. But the work is monotonous—just one or two operations, hour after hour, ten hours a day, sixty hours a week. The monotony grows—gets unendurable. The older man at the machine is afraid to quit. He keeps on—his mind shrinks—he never thinks of his work unless something goes wrong—he thinks of other things—his childhood, his former playmates—his days and nights of fun and wild oats—anything to keep his mind off the deadly monotony.

"But the boy rebels. He must get a move. His foreman will not change him to a different machine or a different foreman. Other boys have got the speed there. The foreman must have output—he puts up with beginners and learners only because he must. The boy quarrels and quits in a huff; gets impudent and is 'fired.' He hunts another shop—gets on another machine or a similar machine under different surroundings. After a while he has learned several machines by a wandering apprenticeship through several shops.

"The employer storms. Here he is paying eighteen to twenty cents an hour for work that takes little intelligence. Yet he cannot keep his hands. They quit on the least provocation. They are conducting a continuous, unorganized strike. When they get too speedy and earn too much, the employer cuts their piece rate prices as much as he dares. Their high wages are not due to their skill, but to their disgust. The employer ascribes their instability and impudence to their laziness, intemperance, vice. He compares them with himself and others who, by hard work, low pay and thrift, have climbed to eminence. He disregards the fact that, with his specialized machinery, he does not want intelligence, except in his foremen and master mechanics; that if the machine hand stops to think about his work, he promptly abhores it; that he sees nothing in it for him but the twenty cents he gets for it and the cut in piece rates if he gets more."

Where the Pinch Is

Large employers, says Professor Commons, have begun to feel the pinch. It comes to them in the scarcity of all-round mechanics and intelligent foremen. They need a certain amount of brains, distributed through the shop, to supervise the machines and to "boss" the machine hands. But their factories are not built to produce intelligence. So in the past ten or fifteen years they have begun to create positions for apprentices.

This modern apprentice, says Professor Commons, differs from the old-time apprentice in that he needs intelligence more than manual skill. In the first place, he must learn to operate a number of different machines. Then he needs to know something about the theories of mathematics and mechanics on which the machines are built. Often he must dip into chemistry, biology or commercial geography to learn something about the raw material he is using. Finally, he must study plans

of shop organization, cost-keeping, efficiency, labor problems, etc. These studies open up to him the line of promotion to foreman, superintendent, manager.

But this kind of training the shop itself does not give. "Hence," says Professor Commons, "large employers, who can afford it, have set up apprenticeship schools in their establishments, where the apprentice puts in part time along with his shop work. These schools, with their mathematics, designing, business organization, and other studies, are the brain-factories of modern industry which produce intelligence, while the shop itself, like the older kind of apprentices, turns out only manual dexterity.

"But this modern apprenticeship cannot go very far. It is expensive. Only large companies can afford it. Even the large companies keep it down to narrow limits. A shop of 5,000 men will have only a hundred or two hundred apprentices. Worst of all, other employers "steal" the apprentices, and the company finds itself educating mechanics for the use of its competitors.

"Further, the employer's apprenticeship system really enlarges the evil which it should reduce. It develops the intelligence of a few, and makes it less necessary to develop the intelligence of the great mass of machine-hands and common laborers. Instead of thousands of intelligent boys and young men in their shops, from whom to select, the employers are compelled to resort to engineering colleges, and then to start their young engineers on a course of shop-apprenticeship. The separation of brains from hands is a business necessity. We must look elsewhere for the system that will unite intelligence and labor."

The Wisconsin System

Such a system, thinks Professor Commons, is furnished by the continuation schools which Wisconsin has set up. Here he takes issue with views expressed in THE SURVEY by Professor John Dewey, of Columbia University, who deems such industrial schools as those in Wisconsin a menace to the democracy of American education.[1] Professor Commons says these schools are planned to do two things: first, to make the intellectual and artistic side of industry reach every boy and girl, instead of a few apprentices; and second, to make the employer and the schoolmaster co-operate with and supplement each other, instead of duplicating and controverting each other.

The Lack of Teachers

The great danger which, to Professor Common's mind, threatens these schools is the lack of teachers who have had a thorough shop acquaintance in some industry or trade, and at the same time are capable of using that knowledge to teach the intellectual and artistic principles that the boy does not get in the shop. At this point Professor Commons disagrees with H. E. Miles, president of the Wisconsin Commission on Industrial Education, who declares in this issue of THE SURVEY that a humanly perfect school, with plenty of excellent teachers, can be started in almost any town in a month.[2] Back of the problem how to get and keep the right kind of teachers, says Professor Commons, is the problem how to *know* the right kind. He pictures the two usual types of teachers; first, the one "who starts her thirteen-year-old children off with what she calls the 'principles of design." They are, first, she says, 'Rhythm,' which she defines as 'joint movement or action'; second, 'Harmony,' or 'the consistency of likeness,' and third, 'Balance,' or 'that repose which results from the opposition of attractions.' It would not be strange if the children did not understand. Such a teacher is what we call 'academic.'

"On the other hand, picture a teacher in a continuation school who comes to his superintendent after the third day, and says: 'I have showed the boys all I know about wiping joints, fitting pipes and using tools—what shall I teach them next?' This teacher is what would be called 'practical.'"

Eliminating the Job Hobo

The danger in Wisconsin, thinks Professor Commons, "grows out of our sudden and comprehensive plan of stimulating industrial education without securing in advance the quality of teachers required. Every town that starts a school and gets full attendance, thereby gets a share of the state fund, and the effort in some of the towns is directed more to forcing large numbers of children into the schools from the homes as well as the factories in order to qualify for the state fund, than it is to making sure that they will get the right kind of instruction after they are forced in. This may give an appearance of success, but, if it is success based on the police power of the state rather than the useful education secured, the success will only be temporary.

"The first thing is to go slow on numbers and, above all else, *get teachers.* Then the numbers will come. We are, in fact, calling for a new profession in teaching—the profession of the practical man who can teach the theory and science that underlie his practice. We are, indeed, already well prepared to train these teachers, provided they have had the shop experience that is first in order. The Stout Institute at Menomonie is recognized the country over as a normal school without a superior in the training of industrial teachers. Every local industrial board could well afford at its own expense, to give its teachers, who have had shop experience, a summer course every year in that school. Ordinary normal school methods are by no means adequate to furnish the right training for this work."

When teachers of continuation schools have learned to teach the theory and science which modern apprenticeship requires, we may expect, thinks Professor Commons, that "all boys and girls up to eighteen, and perhaps even to twenty-one years of age, shall be declared by law to be apprentices; and all shall be required to attend the school on their employers' time, regardless of any apprenticeship contract. With such a system of industrial education, beginning at fourteen, extending to eighteen or twenty-one, and supplementing the training of the shop, we may expect considerably to erase that blot on our modern in-

[1] See THE SURVEY, March 22, page 870.
[2] See page 403 of this issue.

dustry—the boy of seventeen to twenty, vainly wandering from shop to shop in search for an illicit apprenticeship, and finally sinking into the class of stupid, low-paid workers, or the class of dependent paupers."

A Universal Apprenticeship

The administration of the law has not yet, in all localities, reached children who work at home, girls in domestic service, or children on the farm. But for them, too, thinks Professor Commons, industrial education should have a place.

"In some towns the continuation schools are beginning to provide for them. Outside the towns it is the problem of the rural schools in agricultural education. As fast as teachers are equipped, in town or country, for the kind of instruction that their children require, so fast may we expect the people and the lawmakers to require their children to attend.

"Thus gradually shall we approach the new apprenticeship that modern business, in industry and agriculture, imperatively demands. It must be *universal* in that every boy and girl must become a *business man*, if he would hold his own in the increasing competition of buying and selling; he must become an *intelligent worker*, if he would advance beyond the dead-line of dependency on others; he must become a *citizen*, in fact as well as law, if he would take his part in the complicated government that determines his opportunities and his burdens; he must protect his *health*, if he would stand the strain of study and exertion that are the first condition of promotion. All of these requirements are common to all occupations, yet no occupation of modern industry teaches them. The gap must be filled by the state, the school and the teacher. This is not trade education, nor even vocational education,—it is that universal apprenticeship that is common to every trade and vocation."

WORK AND CITIZENSHIP IN WISCONSIN

H. E. MILES

PRESIDENT WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION; CHAIRMAN COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS

Industrial education is not a question of philosophy or of speculation. It is a project under rapid headway, with an ever accumulating body of new experience and information. That it must succeed primarily and in chief measure through the continuation school is more and more apparent, if not now everywhere conceded.

In the thirty years, from 1880 to 1910, in spite of all the hue and cry, only about thirteen trade schools were established. These had a total enrollment of 1,500 to 1,800 regular pupils, with a cost per student year of about $250 to the state, or $300 if interest on plant is included. To this is to be added the student's loss of income, say $400 per year, making a total expense to state and students of $700 per year. No wonder the schools were never full and the number benefited so slight as to make it a question in the minds of some whether such schools were worse than nothing, because they quieted the conscience and narrowed the vision as to the larger moral, economic and social obligation. A recent statement of the Connecticut State Board of Education pleads for the continuation school, saying that there are from 40,000 to 60,000 children between the ages of fourteen and eighteen in that state in need of such industrial education. These children are now out of school and in employment, most of them having left presumably by the end of the sixth grade.

Connecticut has been experimenting with the subject by expending $50,000 per year in the two cities of Bridgeport and New Britain in all-day, all-week schools at a cost to the state of about $200 per student year, taking this money from everybody's pocket through state taxes, and devoting it to only 250 children out of the 40,000 to 60,000 whose need and whose right was equal to that of the 250. We need not take time either to rejoice for what she has done for the 250 or sorrow at her neglect of the 40,000. She was, at least, one of the first states to take any action at all and it is a delight to note that bills are pending before her legislature establishing continuation schools throughout the state.

Compulsory attendance from the fourteenth to the sixteenth year (better the seventeenth), is necessary for children in employment and for that 50 per cent of the child life of the nation which leaves school by the end of the sixth grade. Anything else is a continued playing and compromising with right and necessity. This education is not a boon nor a privilege. On the part of the child, it is a birthright. On the part of the state it is absolutely necessary for the safety and advancement of society. To leave attendance optional is to substitute for necessity and right, personal preferences, good nature, and more or less cheap persuasion. It is to have some employers and some parents do right because they are willing to and others sacrifice the child life entrusted to them for any one of a thousand cheap excuses. When any state, notably one like Connecticut or Massachusetts, seeing the right, so legislates, argument and cavil are dispensed with and the public in short order happily conforms.

There is no chance that Wisconsin will be over proud or confident in her work. She is simply doing the altogether common-sense and ordinary thing, as previously done for one hundred years

in countries more enlightened educationally. The last figures from Wisconsin, are, however, a demonstration.

Her laws were passed too late in 1911 for much to be accomplished in the school year 1911-12. Only two schools were started with 700 pupils. Last fall about thirty schools were opened with from 3,000 to 5,000 pupils. In November, the enrollment was 10,000 and by February it had risen to 16,000. Half of the pupils, those between fourteen and sixteen, are enrolled under the compulsory attendance law; the others, the older, are in voluntary attendance, mostly in the evening schools. The state limits its aid to thirty schools and $3,000 to any one school. The number of schools has been increased to forty-five by the Legislature now in session. The number of students next year will not be less than 25,000; it may be many more.

The compulsory attendance is for only five hours a week and the aid is limited to one-half the actual maintenance charge. Except in Milwaukee, the $3,000 limit will meet half the expense of each school.

This expense per student year proves to date to be about $10. The students continue in employment, and almost invariably, by grace of the employers, without loss of wages for the hours spent in school. Contrast this $10 per year per student with the $30 average cost in the elementary schools of the country, $75 in the high school, $100 in the so-called trade high schools and $250 or more in the old fashioned trade schools. An additional $250 to $450 or more must be added to the latter figures, as the student's loss of wages.

It would seem that such figures as these should act as a foreclosure on debate, and cause everyone to turn his back upon the old attempts and give speedy and even-handed justice to the great body of the working people and their children through continuation schools. Too long have Americans measured accomplishment by money expenditure and felt that big money appropriations are the surest way to success. The wisdom of those who framed the Wisconsin laws on industrial education enables and requires her state and the local boards to make shrewd social engineering and co-operative effort take their proper place as infinitely better than great money expenditure.

To care for her 16,000 students not a single building was erected; in only one city was there any outlay worth mentioning for rent and the expenditure for equipment was very slight. Compare this with schools like the Stuyvesant in New York. Half million or million dollar investments, factories without products, imitation industries, whose chief hope lies in keeping children away from work, out of income, and by her imitation processes do for a few, without thought or provision for the half million others in her own city floundering and going wrong, dreadful examples of human efficiencies wasted by the state's neglect. As the state superintendent in Pennsylvania has just said, "to educate all the children who need it through any such all-day, all-week schools as have been developed yet, would bankrupt any state."

Thank the Lord, that course is as unnecessary as it is wasteful and impossible.

Los Angeles is doing marvellously well in adding to her public school curricula the vocational element and interest, in shop work in wood and metals, domestic science, etc. Her budget for 1914 calls, however, for a 40 per cent increase over the appropriation for 1913—one million dollars. Part of this is for the anticipated increase in school population, but 25 per cent is in the main for this more expensive vocational training. As she is a non-industrial community, she has no other recourse; the work is marvellously stimulating and helpful to her youth culturally, and it fits many of them for the higher places in industry. It is admirable so long as she can afford it, but it is no example for great manufacturing towns.

Whether Wisconsin and continuation schools at $10 (or even twice that, some day) give as much to the child in employment as the all-day schools costing in maintenance and loss of wages combined, from $300 to $600 per student year, need not be accurately determined. Those who watch the results from a combination of factory employment, of the honest dollar honestly earned, and the half day in the continuation school, where the science of the industry and the fundamentals of citizenship are taught; who see the marvellous interest with which all the social forces support these schools and conspire together for best accomplishment, working people, educators and employers; who see the children inspired, absorbed, learning to love work, their minds opening to the best things in life, it seems that the continuation school offers enough, and insures such widespread knowledge, balanced judgment and efficiency for the workers of our country as assure an ever broadening and strengthening future.

It is a pleasure in this connection to remember that recently in Germany, a census was taken of the leading men in 105 of her foremost industrial organizations, and 64 per cent of the men in the top places were found to be the product of her continuation schools, while men from her all-day vocational schools and her colleges of engineering were, for the most part, serving under the men from the continuation schools.

A general statement that a school substantially perfect can be established in any up-to-date industrial community in from one to three months for children in employment from fourteen to sixteen years of age, has been questioned, and has possibly caused amusement occasionally. If any one who questions it will study conditions in such a community, will gather together these children, most if not all of whom left school by the end of the sixth grade, he will get a new conception as to a perfect school, that is, the right sort of school for such children. It will differ greatly from such an all-day school as might be grafted into the present common school system. He will find the majority of the children exceedingly deficient in English, arithmetic, etc., and indisposed to learn them, but wonderfully eager to learn to do and make things, and ready for any sort of schooling incidental to these things. Their

heads will be about as good as his own in discerning between a teacher who knows just how from long practical experience in industry, and the pretender from a normal school. He will get, by very careful selection, someone from a factory who is excellent in his work, loves children and has the teacher's instinct. He will be surprised to find in any such town one and sometimes many such men who have taught, are graduates of schools of distinction, or in some other way, unexpectedly well qualified. He will start the school, it will be surprisingly successful; it will be conglomerate; quite different from the theoretical imaginings of the pedagog, due largely to the fact that the pedagog left it to this new school to teach these pupils at from fourteen to twenty-five years of age what they were supposed to learn in the elementary fifth grade.

He will say, however, after a couple of months' experience, that there is a thousand times more in teaching than is dreamed of by your formal pedagogue. He will have leavened a whole community, made young lives seize with avidity upon the main springs of learning, of moral and social well being, of personal efficiency, self expression, and developing manhood and womanhood. He will say to himself, this has been perfect in the sense that there was no other way of right procedure and that the further perfection to which we all aspire is only attainable by this course, through growth from within.

In Wisconsin at this time all but one or two of the shop courses are taught by persons selected as above. Where teachers, otherwise qualified, undertook the work, their classes dwindled and the teachers lost out.[1]

[1]Since the above was written the Wisconsin Legislature has appropriated all that the state board deems desirable for the extension of this work and the enlargement of Stout Institute where teachers are prepared. The work will never lack legislative or popular support so long as it is properly conducted.

HOW INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IS CONTROLLED IN GERMANY

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In 1907 the authorities in Berlin extended to Dr. George Kerchensteiner an invitation to come to the metropolis of the fatherland and reorganize the schools of that city on the basis of his successful achievements in Munich, the city at that time celebrated throughout Europe for its advanced position in education. This call to Berlin was, to be sure, a tribute to a scholar, to an organizer of superior ability—to a genius if you choose. But it was much more a recognition of a system of education that had been worked out by a distinguished educator. They wanted Dr. Kerchensteiner in Berlin in order that the same idea which he had put into operation in Munich might be realized in a permanent institution in Berlin.

What is there, then, about the Munich system that has attracted so widespread attention and led to this action on the part of the authorities of conservative Berlin? It is simply this: Dr. Kerchensteiner has been able to unify the whole work of education in Munich, vocational and non-vocational, under one authority so that the schools have come to serve the highest interests of the city and state. The Berlin government saw in the Munich school organization possibilities for the elimination of the waste characteristic of other systems, and the solution of the vexed problems of control of the industrial schools that was seriously agitating other parts of Germany. It saw in this plan superior possibilities for service and achievement. This effort on the part of the city of Berlin seems to contradict the view that is sometimes expressed in this country that the separation of the control of industrial schools from that of schools for general education is the reason for Germany's advanced position in industrial education.

The Nature of Control

Let us examine somewhat more closely the nature of the control of industrial education in Germany:

State	*Central office of control in the state*	*Special office of control in department*	*Local control*
Prussia	Ministry of Trade and Commerce	Permanent Commission for Industrial Education	Board composed of representatives of the government and commercial bodies
Bavaria	Ministry for Church and School Affairs		Principals of the high schools and the district school inspectors
Saxony	Ministry of the Interior		Trade school inspector, professors of the Training School for Teachers of Industrial Subjects, and inspector of Schools for Lace-Makers.
Wurtemburg	Ministry of Education	Commission for Industrial Education	
Baden	Ministry of Education	Trade School Board	Trade school inspector
Hessen	Ministry of the Interior	Bureau of Commerce	Trade school inspector

It will be seen that each state, and not the national government, has control of its educational system. At the head of each system is

one of the departments of the state government, and in three out of the six leading states in Germany this central authority is vested in the minister of education. This official gives unity to the whole of education because he possesses and exercises final authority in all school matters. He is not a nominal head as most of our state superintendents are. Where there are two local boards, their work is unified by this higher authority. In those states, on the other hand, where there are two department heads in charge of education—one in charge of industrial and the other general education, as is the case in three states—the work of both is unified by the constant co-operation of these two heads, so that it is impossible for the two local boards to work at cross purposes, one duplicating the work of the other.

How different in our own country! If we have two local boards, there will be nothing to prevent them from duplicating work, each doing work that could be better done by the other, and both leaving out work that ought to be done. We see plenty of evidence of this defect in the administration of our present city government under its diversified boards, as in park, playground and school administration. Where Germany possesses unity under the two board system, we would have separation; where Germany has co-operation, we would have antagonism. Where Germany, under her system, serves the various communities by unifying the aims of the different kinds of instruction, we would impair the effectiveness of each by antagonistic aims and activities. The central authority in Germany looks after matters of administration in the minutest details, even to the extent of reserving to itself the right of granting permission to visit these schools. Therefore, the central authority in Germany gives such unity as would only be possible under a unified local control of all our educational activities in the cities of this country.

Success Attends Unification

I insist, then, in the first place, that the widespread impression in this country that Germany's system is successful because of its independent board arrangement is incorrect. I insist, also, that success is greatest in those parts of Germany where the unification of all kinds of educational activities is most complete, and that the unsettled problems of control and policy are in those states where such unification has not been realized. I insist, further, that separate local boards in this country would not mean what they do in Germany; also that unification of the schools under a state board in this country would mean little. A central authority can never make itself felt here as in Germany because of the history of such authority and the present attitude toward it. To be sure, we would not want it to be felt to the extent that it is in Germany.

Lexis in his book, *Das Technische Unterrichtswesen*, has the following to say of German industrial education:

"In school matters the principle has become established in Germany that it is the task of the state to provide schools of all kinds and grades and locate them according to the educational needs of the various communities. While at the present time institutions designed for general education are publicly administered, this is only partially true in the field of industrial education; more especially in education of a commercial and trade nature. In the field of industrial education we find besides the public educational institutions, numerous private schools which are conducted in the interest of private business enterprises by those private individuals whose interest the vocation serves. Along with these private schools is a large number of public institutions which are partially supported by the industrial corporations interested in the vocation for which the institution prepares. Also large unions or societies have taken over the entire support of schools that are publicly administered."

Historical Reason for Separation

The statement of Lexis points to the fact that there is a historical reason for the general practice of having separate local boards of control and in some cases separate state departmental control, and indicates that the present system is not consciously built up and recognized as final in matters of organization in Germany.

Germany's commercial and industrial groups recognized the necessity of industrial schools to provide skilled workmen; they established these schools and supported them to train workmen for their various vocations. Since the aim of the schools was to benefit a special class, the class benefited supported these schools. As the control and supervision came gradually to be taken over by the state, in some instances the state department in charge of industry assumed charge of these schools, because the schools were designed to serve the industrial classes and were supported largely by them. As the schools have grown to serve a larger purpose, to receive more and more of public support, and to offer more subject-matter of a cultural nature, the problem of control has been thrust again into the foreground of discussion.

In the discussion the following seems to be taken for granted by all concerned: actual unification of all schools in aim and policy is necessary. On the whole this can be most easily secured by one central authority having final control in all matters of organization, location of schools, and in school policy. There are serious difficulties in the way of realizing this ideal in some states, especially in Prussia, because of the efforts of the churches to force religious instruction into the curriculum, and because of the efforts of the school and business people to prevent the churches from doing so. Whatever lack of unity there is at the present time, is due to these conditions and not to a belief in lack of unification.

Within the limit of this article I can merely indicate another consideration: the teacher problem. Germany takes her teachers for industrial

schools from two sources: the teachers in the regular schools, and skilled laborers in the industries themselves. Those teachers taken from the public schools must have an intimate knowledge of the industrial life of the community before assuming their duties as teachers in these schools. Those teachers taken from the industries must receive instruction in the science and pedagogy of the vocation before beginning their duties. If we depend upon the first type of teacher in this country, the impossibility of making the industrial school a success under a separate board, any more than under the present board, is self evident. If, on the other hand, we take skilled workmen from the industries, require them to master the science as well as the practice of their vocation, and in addition to become skilled in methods of instruction, the cost of equipping schools with this character of teacher will be prohibitive. Besides, if teachers with such qualifications as are essential to success in industrial schools controlled by a special board, instructing in vocational subjects, can be brought into contact and harmonious co-operation with the teachers of our schools as they are, the result, by vitalizing the work of the lower grades as well as that of the continuation grades with a distinctly vocational aim, will be infinitely more beneficial.

Under separate boards the breach between the two kinds of schools will be impassible: harmony will not be possible. After nearly three years of study of German industrial life and population at first hand and a study of schools there under most favorable conditions, I fail to find anything in Germany's organization or method to suggest an advantage of separate local or state boards of control, or one state board and two local boards, in this country. Numerous as are the difficulties that are sure to arise in the administration of the industrial schools by the regular board of education, they are few in comparison with what will happen under separate control. Whatever might be accomplished with separate boards is little compared with the possibilities for achievement under a unified board as is realized under another form in most states of the Fatherland.

REVOLUTION IN SCHOOL CONTROL

E. H. FISH

DIRECTOR, BOYS' TRADE SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASS.

The discussion of Industrial Education and Democracy has brought out many widely differing views of which those of Messrs. Miles and Dewey in THE SURVEY[1] are rather extreme. Is it not possible to see this subject in a light that more nearly agrees with the temper of the general public than either of these.

Lay control of public schools has been for many years one of the delusions to which we have persistently clung. We elect school boards year after year, but what do they control? In how many places do they have enough active interest in the schools to be able to take intelligent action on such vital matters as courses of study and methods of instruction? In almost every community we find that the school board contents itself with fathering its constituents' desire for the best school houses in their respective districts, in the selection of text books and in getting jobs for their friends' friends. I have no desire to intimate that the friends' friends do not make good teachers, but simply to show that the attention of the board is drawn away from the most important educational matters.

The majority of school committeemen will go around a block rather than meet their superintendent face to face if they suspect that he wants to talk about anything requiring knowledge of educational matters. The result is that superintendents find that they can get absolutely no support from their committees for such things, consequently they are obliged to take counsel one of another, and with the usual result of inbreeding, they have gone to seed.

In the meantime the world has developed, it has been passing through a period of intense social unrest wherein its views on every subject have changed vitally. Education, supposedly under lay control, actually under expert control, has lagged behind. The public has awakened to the fact. In a few places the school boards have risen to the situation under the leadership of a live superintendent but in the vast majority of other places educators are standing pat.

Of what value would be a school board composed exclusively of business men? Are they any less prone to pick their favorites for jobs, are they less anxious to sell their back lots to the city for school houses? Are they any more competent to meet the technical details brought up by their superintendent? I doubt it, and as Mr. Miles says, it is about impossible to get them to serve on school boards at all. They realize that their contract with boys and girls has been through the medium of a pay envelope and they hesitate to attempt to handle them where they have no such means of control.

I believe most firmly in new and distinct boards to handle the industrial school situation, but I believe just as keenly in new boards to handle all other kinds of education. I should consider it a calamity for either board to consist solely of

(*Continued on page 423.*)

[1]See THE SURVEY for February 15, page 682, and March 22, page 870; also this issue, page 403.

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

ADVERTISING RELIGION

Since the Men and Religion Forward Movement[1] emphasized, through its Publicity Commission, the value of using the press, religious advertising has been discussed at many conferences and attempted in a number of cities. After several such conferences at the Central Y. M. C. A. in Philadelphia, which were attended by both business men and ministers, the Students' Association of the University of Pennsylvania ran a series of advertisements to inform the alumni about health conditions in Canton, China, and what the university medical school has done to improve them. The legitimacy and effectiveness of this particular effort can scarcely be questioned.

The most enterprising and journalistic attempt to advertise the churches in the daily press is that of the allied Protestant churches in the Saturday newspapers of Baltimore. A whole page is used in each paper every week. The lower half of it contains notices of religious services in the usual form. The upper portion is devoted to display headlines and paragraphs, really advertising, through cartoon and print, the attitude which is or should be taken by the church toward some uppermost interest. For instance, in the Baltimore *News* of Saturday, May 10, a black-faced headline announced:

"THE PENITENTIARY—AND THE SOCIAL CREED OF THE CHURCH.

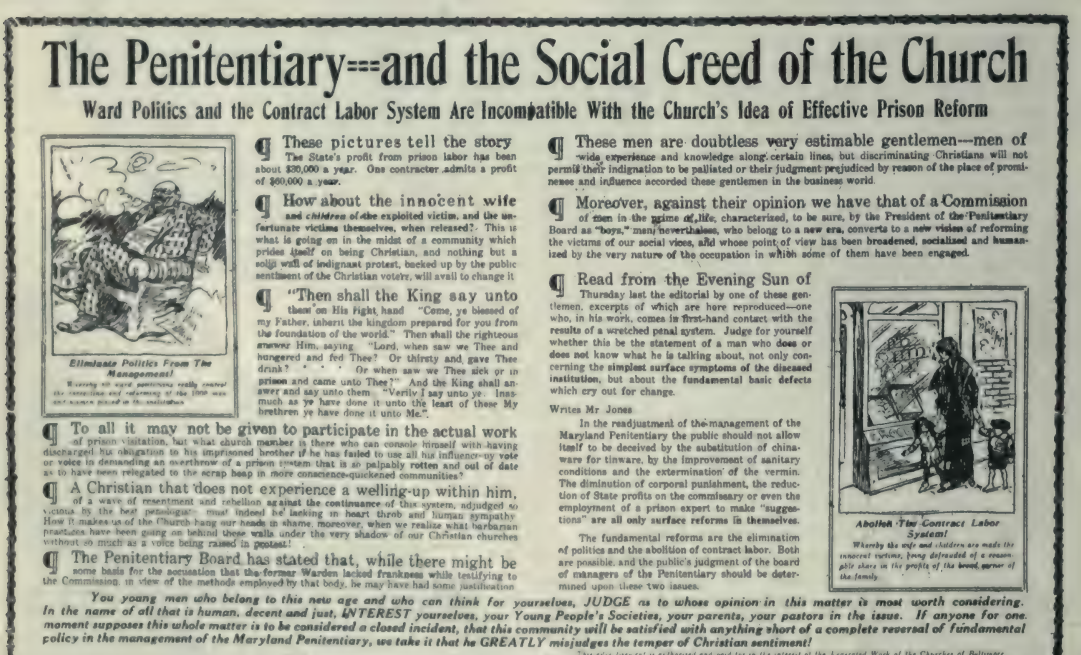
"WARD POLITICS AND THE CONTRACT LABOR SYSTEM ARE INCOMPATIBLE WITH THE CHURCH'S IDEA OF EFFECTIVE PRISON REFORM."

Then follow, as the accompanying cut shows, pointed paragraphs which are flanked on either side by two cartoons, one of an opulent and corpulent ward politician and the other of a wife who needs a share of the profits of the breadwinner of the family.

Some of the more striking paragraphs in the advertisement read as follows:

> These pictures tell the story. The state's profit from prison labor has been about $30,000 a year. One contractor admits a profit of $60,000.
>
> How about the innocent wife and children

[1] Men and Religion Messages. Vol. VII, The Church and the Press. Association Press. Seven Vols. Price $4; prepaid of THE SURVEY $4.75.



The Penitentiary---and the Social Creed of the Church

Ward Politics and the Contract Labor System Are Incompatible With the Church's Idea of Effective Prison Reform

Eliminate Politics From The Management!

¶ These pictures tell the story The State's profit from prison labor has been about $30,000 a year. One contractor admits a profit of $60,000 a year.

¶ How about the innocent wife and children of the exploited victim, and the unfortunate victims themselves, when released? This is what is going on in the midst of a community which prides itself on being Christian, and nothing but a solid wall of indignant protest, backed up by the public sentiment of the Christian voters, will avail to change it.

¶ "Then shall the King say unto them on His right hand "Come, ye blessed of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you from the foundation of the world." Then shall the righteous answer Him, saying "Lord, when saw we Thee and hungered and fed Thee? Or thirsty and gave Thee drink? . . . Or when saw we Thee sick or in prison and came unto Thee?" And the King shall answer and say unto them "Verily I say unto ye. Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these My brethren ye have done it unto Me.".

¶ To all it may not be given to participate in the actual work of prison visitation, but what church member is there who can console himself with having discharged his obligation to his imprisoned brother if he has failed to use all his influence—by vote or voice in demanding an overthrow of a prison system that is so palpably rotten and out of date as to have been relegated to the scrap heap in more conscience-quickened communities?

¶ A Christian that does not experience a welling-up within him, of a wave of resentment and rebellion against the continuance of this system, adjudged so vicious by the best penologists, must indeed be lacking in heart throb and human sympathy. How it makes us of the Church hang our heads in shame, moreover, when we realize what barbarous practices have been going on behind these walls under the very shadow of our Christian churches without so much as a voice being raised in protest!

¶ The Penitentiary Board has stated that, while there might be some basis for the accusation that the former Warden lacked frankness while testifying to the Commission, in view of the methods employed by that body, he may have had some justification

¶ These men are doubtless very estimable gentlemen---men of wide experience and knowledge along certain lines, but discriminating Christians will not permit their indignation to be palliated or their judgment prejudiced by reason of the place of prominence and influence accorded these gentlemen in the business world.

¶ Moreover, against their opinion we have that of a Commission of men in the prime of life, characterized, to be sure, by the President of the Penitentiary Board as "boys," many nevertheless, who belong to a new era, converts to a new vision of reforming the victims of our social vices, and whose point of view has been broadened, socialized and humanized by the very nature of the occupation in which some of them have been engaged.

¶ Read from the Evening Sun of Thursday last the editorial by one of these gentlemen, excerpts of which are here reproduced—one who, in his work, comes in first-hand contact with the results of a wretched penal system. Judge for yourself whether this be the statement of a man who does or does not know what he is talking about, not only concerning the simplest surface symptoms of the diseased institution, but about the fundamental basic defects which cry out for change.

Writes Mr Jones

In the readjustment of the management of the Maryland Penitentiary the public should not allow itself to be deceived by the substitution of chinaware for tinware, by the improvement of sanitary conditions and the extermination of the vermin. The diminution of corporal punishment, the reduction of State profits on the commissary or even the employment of a prison expert to make "suggestions" are all only surface reforms in themselves.

The fundamental reforms are the elimination of politics and the abolition of contract labor. Both are possible, and the public's judgment of the board of managers of the Penitentiary should be determined upon these two issues.

Abolish The Contract Labor System!

You young men who belong to this new age and who can think for yourselves, JUDGE as to whose opinion in this matter is most worth considering. In the name of all that is human, decent and just, INTEREST yourselves, your Young People's Societies, your parents, your pastors in the issue. If anyone for one moment supposes this whole matter is to be considered a closed incident, that this community will be satisfied with anything short of a complete reversal of fundamental policy in the management of the Maryland Penitentiary, we take it that he GREATLY misjudges the temper of Christian sentiment!

This space (gratis) is redeemed and paid for in the interest of the Associated Work of the Churches of Baltimore

ADVERTISING RELIGION IN BALTIMORE

of the exploited victim, and the unfortunate victims themselves, when released.

A Christian that does not experience a welling-up within him, of a wave of resentment and rebellion against the continuance of this system . . . must indeed be lacking in heart throb and human sympathy. How it makes us of the church hang our heads in shame, moreover, when we realize what barbarian practices have been going on behind these walls under the very shadow of our Christian churches without so much as a voice being raised in protest.

This real live "display ad" ends with these lines in black-faced type.

> In the name of all that is human, decent and just, interest yourselves, your Young People's Societies, your parents, your pastors in the issue. If anyone for one moment supposes that this whole matter is to be considered a closed incident, that this community will be satisfied with anything short of a complete reversal of fundamental policy in the management of the Maryland Penitentiary, we take it that he greatly misjudges the temper of Christian sentiment.

In italics the *Baltimore News* management assures readers that "this advertisement is authorized and paid for in the interest of the federated work of the churches of Baltimore."

In addition to such spread advertisements, the news columns contain a series of "three minute talks to Baltimore men—being a series of virile and straight-from-the-shoulder articles on the place of religion in the life of the world today." Dr. J. Ross Stevenson in the issue of May 17 writes on Thou Shalt Not Covet, in which he says:

> Inordinate greed dishonors God, desecrates the Sabbath, overthrows the sanctity of the home, invades a neighbor's rights, and hence is not only irreligious but immoral.

Another of these talks by Dr. Theodore Clinton Foote on Why is Religion? ends thus:

> The soul is in reality ourself. It dwells in a body which it must take care of, and it possesses a faculty capable of intellectual work, but it is itself. It can, if it will, learn from religion how to be happy. This is what religion is for. Try it.

Objectionable Ads in Religious Papers

In contrast with church advertising in the daily press is this protest from an editorial in *Successful Farming* against the bad advertisements so often found in the religious press.

> We have no explanation to offer for the slowness of the religious press in casting out quack medicine and other fraudulent advertisements, but we note with pleasure that at last there is hope that some day your church and Sunday school papers may be as free from bad advertising as have been the columns of *Successful Farming* for the last few years.
>
> A man who has worked for an advertising agency that caters to the religious press says he is going to quit because business is falling off—due to the activities of the American Medical Association and such magazines as *Collier's*.
>
> "The religious paper gets its subscribers largely through the efforts of local pastors in small towns. Now, since the American Medical Association has been showing up the fraudulent 'patent medicines' the local doctor, who is usually a man of some influence in his community, protests to the pastor against this class of advertising in their church paper. The pastor writes to the publisher saying that it is impossible for him to recommend the paper unless such and such advertisements are dropped. And there you are!———"
>
> Yes, there you are, with a prospect that some day the religious press may be clean. *Clean*—get that. It is an outrage on the best citizenship that the religious press has harbored to the last the class of advertisers that can no longer get into a decent farm paper.
>
> Look at your own church paper. If it is not clean in the advertising make a kick to the publishers.

A letter received from the new editor of an old and influential journal, privately owned but edited in the interests of one of the most historic of all American religious denominations shows the basis for this protest:

> I have done a hazardous thing. I have thrown out of the———several thousand dollars worth of advertising of objectionable patent medicines.
>
> I simply could not bear to have any disreputable advertising in the Easter number and so raised a protest which resulted in a cancellation of these objectionable contracts. I had no right to do this, but did it because I believed you would stand by me.
>
> Out of the issue next before Palm Sunday I threw an illustrated consumption cure, a pimple cure, a cancer cure, a remedy for piles and a full page rupture cure.
>
> The paper is in no condition financially to bear this loss. These advertisements are the most profitable single line of advertising the paper has, and it needs every dollar of this money.
>
> Now, if you believe I did right in this matter, I want you to stand by me, and help make up this loss. . . .
>
> I am writing merely to ask if you believe in the cleaning up of the advertising columns in this way, to stand by me now when I come to reckon up with the business department and tell them that the ministers of this country are sick and tired of this kind of advertising and will support the paper that has courage to throw it out.

The Men and Religion Message on the Church and the Press is the most candid and complete

discussion of the subject in print. It embodies not only the conclusions of eminent editors and publishers, headed by George W. Coleman, president of the Associated Advertising Clubs of America, but is also in large part based upon answers to carefully prepared questionaires from representatives of the leading daily newspapers and the foremost religious newspapers and from a large number of ministers and laymen. The volume includes chapters on The News Value of Religion, The Circulating Value of Religious News Features, Paid Advertising and the Church, The Religious Press: Its Place and Problems, Religious Features in the Daily Press, The Human Interest in Religious News, The Church and the Press: the Two Great Agencies of Democracy. Among the well-considered recommendations to the newspapers and to the churches one urges that religious news be covered as promptly and adequately as any other form of news and in the same way; another commends "all discreet efforts for presenting the claims of the gospel to a community through display advertising in newspapers, on bill-boards, etc."; a third urges the federated churches to maintain a central publicity bureau, to which news agencies and newspapers may apply, by day or night, for the latest news affecting any of the religious organizations in North America or abroad.

Large Scale Missionary Advertising

No such advertising for the promotion of religious interests has ever been attempted in America as that connected with the "World in Chicago." Perhaps the greatest of the "display ads" utilized was the fact that every afternoon and evening, except Sundays, the Coliseum and the Auditorium, the greatest arena and the largest theater in the city, were in constant use by this great enterprise. Multitudes came to see the exhibits, plays and pageant, and to hear the demonstrators and lecturers.

But before and during this long series of spectacular events, modern methods of advertising were used to attract sight-seers and auditors, and to create a "missionary atmosphere," so strong that its influence would be felt beyond those attending. Over 2,000,000 copies of circulars in various forms were scattered broadcast, but effectively. Over 1,200 country newspapers were regularly supplied with news matter and plate illustrations. Paid advertisements were placed in all the city dailies. The religious press was utilized to the full extent. Effective lithographs and placards faced people everywhere, especially in the street railway cars and on the station platforms of the elevated and steam railways. Greatest of all, however, was the personal influence of the 20,000 volunteers enlisted every week as players, chorus singers, ushers and demonstrators at the two places of assembly and as secretaries and stewards in the churches.

When time enough has elapsed to test the residual effect of this vast expenditure of money, time and talent, THE SURVEY may present the results of the work in Chicago, with a description of the socially significant features of this unique event. But enough has been seen to demonstrate both the legitimacy and potency of the appeal of religion to the eye through visualized and dramatized presentations of conditions needing the application of religious ideals, standards and sympathies.

Advertising Patriotism

Moving pictures for advertising patriotism among the recently arrived immigrants in the civic theater at Pawtucket, R. I., were first suggested by the Brotherhood of the Congregational Church of Central Falls, of which James B. Dingwell is pastor. No less than 1,500 people, more than half of them Polish, crowded the theater in response to invitations extended in six different languages. The mayor of the city, a former governor, and other prominent citizens emphasized the importance of the plan to present pictures of stirring scenes in American history accompanied by short addresses on practical phases of American life.[1]

METHODIST ACTIVITY IN THE FAR WEST

Evidence that the denominational social service commissions are getting into action has been coming in all winter through correspondence and press dispatches from California and the Pacific Northwest. On the Pacific coast the social welfare movement among the Methodist churches received an impetus through a tour made by Rev. Harry F. Ward, secretary of the Methodist Federation for Social Service. The principal cities of Colorado, Utah, Montana, California, Oregon, Washington and Idaho were visited. Church congregations, gatherings of ministers, meetings of working people in labor union halls, and groups of labor leaders responded to the call for social service.

The central labor assembly in one of the California cities invited the ministers and church workers to meet and hear Mr. Ward as its guest. In Ogden the ministerial association, the women's organizations, the trades and labor council and the Socialists united in the call for the meeting and decided to form a central council for social welfare. The invitation to come to Denver was issued by the Ministerial Alliance, the Federated Churchmen, the Federation of Social and Civic Bodies and the Iliff School of Theology. The meetings in Seattle opened with a labor mass meeting in the Labor Temple, with the ministers of the city present as the invited guests of the unions, which represent 15,000 working men. They appointed a committee of seven of their best men to co-operate with the social service movement in the churches. Even the more radical labor elements in Spokane and Butte were found to be responsive.

Among the permanent results growing out of the co-operative movements of the churches which were thus started are many practical and

[1] See THE SURVEY for May 24, p. 262.

varied phases of community service. In Los Angeles the Methodist Brotherhood decided to make a study of unemployment. Elsewhere in California the churches lined up for a state-wide federation to work for legislation along moral and industrial lines. The need for social center work in prosperous fruit towns and the duty of making the community realize the needs of labor were impressed upon the churches of these regions. In Denver the campaign was vitally connected with the closing of the red-light district, the work of the Morals Commission and with the installation of the commission form of government and preferential voting.

"To effectively preach Jesus Christ in the great assemblies of organized labor; intensely to interest the materialistic group of commercialists on the subject of 'My brother's keeper;' to hold spell-bound an industrial grimy-faced company until the ringing of the work gong; acceptably to present the social gospel to record-breaking audiences in our most discriminating churches; to stand ready always to answer an interrupting questioner at any point" requires, in the opinion of a deeply impressed witness of these scenes, "a rare combination of statesmanship and spirituality." That Mr. Ward impressed these qualities of leadership upon the individuals and communities which heard him is indicated by their response in word and deed.

Labor agreed that the social creed of the churches is "good enough for us," and was impressed by the evidence that the churches are trying to put it into effect. The church group enthusiastically endorsed the program for social welfare by united action. Students appreciated the lecture courses and addresses at the colleges, universities and high schools. Business men not only interposed no opposition, but through their commercial and civic organizations took concrete steps for social advance. The mayor of Tacoma surprised the ministers, a fortnight after the campaign had closed, by proposing to cooperate with the churches in hiring a field secretary to follow up the suggestions and do some of the things outlined for that city.

Both the spread and the permanency of the movement were advanced by the wide publicity given the campaign and Mr. Ward's addresses by the daily, labor and religious press and by the stream of pamphlets and local publications. The *Labor World* of Spokane, after reporting the address given at the central labor council, summarized the impression which everywhere prevailed among workingmen outside the churches:

"The meeting was one of the best that has ever been held by the Central Labor Council. A capacity house greeted the Rev. Harry F. Ward and listened with close attention to his remarks. One man said 'It is the first time I have ever heard the social message of Jesus Christ preached by a preacher.' If that sort of stuff is preached, the churches will find plenty of help from the labor ranks. We welcome the enlistment of any forces that will co-operate in the work of uplift."

SOCIAL ADVANCE OF TWO CANADIAN DENOMINATIONS

Social work among Canadian Methodists which began with the movement for temperance and prohibition developed into a department of temperance and moral reform in 1902. As the result of the efforts of "committees on sociology" appointed by the general conference in 1906 and in 1910, a more constructive and formative work was taken up by this department to carry out the suggestions of these committees. These recommendations dealt with the ownership of property, industrial justice, the taxing system, the public ownership of public utilities, purity in elections, the elimination of social vice, the protection of the home, child welfare and the juvenile court.

While continuing its support of temperance campaigns, the department provides literature, lectures and sermons on social service, holds conferences with employers and employes, co-operates with other bodies in securing legislation and the administration of laws promoting social progress. It has aided in the establishment of settlement work and rescue homes in several cities, has helped secure better industrial and sanitary conditions in shops, has prompted the introduction of the co-operative wage system, and has had a part in initiating juvenile courts and other institutions and agencies for the feeble-minded, the aged and for dependent children.

In co-operation with the kindred department of the Canadian Presbyterian churches, successful efforts are now being made to secure two homes for delinquent girls, one in the maritime provinces and the other in the prairie provinces, and also another for delinquent boys in Saskatchewan. Through the same co-operation social surveys have been conducted in Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Fort William, Fort Arthur and Hamilton. A special lecturer has traveled from place to place discussing current social problems among boys and young men. Another is to be appointed to conduct campaigns for social betterment similar to those carried on by the Methodist Federation for Social Service in the United States under the leadership of Mr. Ward. Included in the program for such campaigns are the housing problem, commercialized amusements, the "Canadianization" of the immigrant, city conditions and the problems of the rural community.

The general secretary, Rev. T. Albert Moore, with headquarters in the Wesley Building, Toronto, averages 40,000 miles a year in Dominion-wide traveling to advance social propaganda.

Canadian Presbyterians in Line

The Canadian Presbyterian churches, which share with the Anglican and the Methodist in nearly equal part the religious responsibility for the Protestant population of the Dominion, have developed a social sense and vision in their work which is as surprising to themselves as it is to others. Their department of Social and Moral Reform was rechristened the Department of Social Service.

Preliminary to the Toronto meeting of their General Assembly, which includes one-sixth of the pastors, a great congress was held for three days at which practically all the ministers of the denomination were assembled. Moved by the social spirit ten givers donated $10,000 each to pay the traveling expenses of these widely scattered and isolated preachers and their wives to spend twelve days. The guests numbered 4,500, of whom 1,800 were ministers. They filled the 3,500 seats of Massey Hall all day and evening, day after day, overflowing into neighboring churches where addresses were repeated.

The social key-note of the congress was emphasized quite as clearly and strongly by those representing foreign and home missionary work, parish and evangelistic effort, as by those directly interested and engaged in social service.

Immigration led the way in the discussions, as well it might. In 1912 Canada received one new immigrant to every sixteen of her population, while the United States received one to every eighty-one of our people. One-third of these immigrants to Canada were "non Anglo-Saxons," so that from southern and eastern Europe Canada received one immigrant to forty-eight of her population, while in the United States we were receiving from the same source one to sixty.

"Non-Anglo-Saxon immigration" was discussed with acute concern both by representatives of the Slavic and Jewish immigrants and by Canadians interested in them and in their influence upon the future of the Dominion. The "danger" feared from them was charged back upon the "Anglo-Saxons" who were held responsible for the new-world conditions deteriorating the old-world sturdy stock of peasant people. Canada was held responsible for the demoralization of the frontier folk, along the Northwestern Railway line in British Columbia, for tolerating segregated vice in that one of the nine provinces of the Dominion, after it has been abolished in the eight others.

Up-to-date facts and forces were presented from all parts of the Dominion to show that, for the self-defence of their own interests as well as those of the people whom they serve, the churches must grapple with the problems of infant mortality, child-welfare, housing, recreation, police service, local government and the betterment of rural life conditions both economic and social. No more effective speech was made than that by Warren H. Wilson in forcibly presenting the dependence of the rural church and community upon the farmers' larger control over the market and price for his produce.

The warmth of the reception given the man and his ideas increased the surprise over the reaction in the American Presbyterian Assembly against the social advance led by such men as Mr. Wilson and Mr. Stelzle. Neither the Presbyterians nor the Methodists of Canada show any indication of this reactionary spirit, but steadily increase their sympathy for and support of their rapidly developing social work, under the effective and co-operative leadership of Rev. J. G. Shearer and Rev. T. Albert Moore.

SOCIAL SURVEY OF A RURAL TOWNSHIP

One demonstration of the new vigor of the country life movement, is that religion is reckoned among its dynamic forces. The church and allied organizations are almost everywhere counted among the active agencies of this new awakening.

An original study published by the Department of Agriculture in the University of Minnesota through its Bureau of Research and Agricultural Economics is one of the best and latest evidences of this relationship. It is entitled Social and Economic Survey of a Rural Township in Southern Minnesota by Carl W. Thompson and G. P. Warber. Sharply contrasted pictures showing good and bad cultivated fields, barns and barnyards, schoolhouses and churches, enhance the interest of the seventy-five pages of text. One-half is devoted to the business economics of farming, and the other half to the social economics of farming communities.

Starting with the civic relations of the farmers, their own answers are given to the question why they become poorer citizens the more they are Americanized. Diagrams show the percentage of circulation attained in this township by various classes of periodicals. The increase has been marked since the establishment of the rural mail delivery. One incredible statement is that since its introduction "few farmers are found at political meetings." Only 14 per cent of them ever attend farmers' institutes. The retarded development not only of the district school, but the town high school, is partly accounted for by the criticism by church people of the lack of religious instruction.

Yet the support and effectiveness of the religious activities in this township do not demonstrate the zeal of these critics of the school in compensating for its deficiency. Although 75 per cent of the women in the township are connected with its churches and 65 per cent of the men, only 34 per cent of the latter attend church regularly and the women show only a slightly better record. While all the nationalities in the township averaged 70 per cent of their people in church membership, the Scandinavians had 93 per cent. Although 59 per cent of the families have children of Sunday school age, only 15 per cent of these families are represented in the actual Sunday school attendance. This is partially offset by the fact that 32 per cent of all the families send their children to parochial schools, both Catholic and Lutheran, where they receive relegious instruction on week days.

Rural recreations are interestingly described. Sociables and picnics proved to be the most popular. Reading and cards came next in order with equal scores. Dancing and music followed nearly abreast while still farther down the line moving-picture shows and baseball vied with each other. Fishing and billiards were practiced by only 14 and 5 per cent of the people respectively. The lure of the town is graphically shown by diagrams, accounting for the sons and daughters between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one as on the farm or gone to the city.



A FLOAT IN A HISTORICAL PARADE AT SAG HARBOR
The crew of "old salts" in this boat have all seen actual service in former years as whalers.

CIVICS

KINDLING SOCIAL LIFE AT SAG HABOR

At the far end of Long Island on Gardiner's Bay, between Long Island Sound and the Atlantic Ocean, lies the old seafaring town of Sag Harbor. Besides being a port of entry with some commerce, which, however, is less than in former years, Sag Harbor is the home of a watch case factory, a silver works and two cigar factories.

In this pleasant old village of 3,000 people, Mrs. Russell Sage lived when a girl and now has a summer home. Firmly believing that the village life needed quickening she hit upon the idea of accomplishing this through organized recreation, and to this end created Mashashimuet Park and Social Center. The results which have followed, the kindling of civic spirit and the revival of social activities, have been very similar to those which William E. Harmon of New York brought about in Lebanon, Ohio, through the Lebanon Trust[1]. Many of the methods followed indeed at Lebanon are parallel to those previously started at Sag Harbor.

An old horse racing park was secured on which athletic and recreation fields were laid out and a field house built. The park also includes a pond for skating, swimming and wading. A director of recreation with an asistant has been provided bv Mrs. Sage to organize and promote the activities. Although in a small community one would at first think that there was ample room and chance, if not the best of facilities, for recreation, this special organized work proved its popularity with young people of all ages from the start. Baseball, tennis, and track events were encouraged. A number of stated athletic tournaments, some open to the townspeople only —some to those of neighboring communities— were conducted. The High School Athletic Association used the field for its practice. During the first season the track meets for the younger boys were competitive. Since then, however, it has been thought best to have a major part of the competitions against records. For this purpose different competing classes have been established following the methods of the Public School Athletic League of New York, which supplied the standards it was reasonable to expect from members of each class.

Space was set aside also for children's gardens and a small library established at the field house for those who care to read. To make the grounds available on the only day on which a good many



ENTRANCE TO MASHASHIMUET PARK

[1]See THE SURVEY of March 1, 1913, page 749.



SAG HARBOR'S FIRST SKATING

are at leisure, they are open as a park on Sundays, but athletics and games are limited to week days. This arrangement seems to meet with popular approval. Among the activities conducted for children of kindergarten age are story telling, paper cutting, sand play, and group games. For older people moving picture entertainments, dancing, social picnics, a lecture and entertainment course and band concerts have been arranged. There is also tennis, baseball, athletics, skating and public festivals in which young and old participate. A year round program is arranged. Sag Harbor had no ice skating until a tide gate was put into the outlet of this pond so as to hold the water at a fixed level for freezing. Lights are installed during the skating season and band concerts given on the ice by the village band.

To facilitate the establishment of some of the worth while attractions of a city during the season when the park could not be used, the Fahys Company lent the use of the Atheneum which has the main hall of the town. Here basketball games that have kept the whole town on the *qui vive* were held. Play classes for young people of varying ages were formed. Successful exhibits of folk dancing and drills were also arranged. The Atheneum was likewise used for a lyceum course of lectures and musicals and musical-literary features. An admission fee was charged which very nearly paid for the expenses. On other nights community dances were held. Since the field house has a heating plant, it has been used for entertainments and house parties by small groups of people during the winter seasons.

Another line of activity has been the organization of special classes in a number of industrial and commercial subjects, as well as in English for foreigners. In this the social center has had the co-operation of the school authorities. Small fees are charged for the courses which in the last season included mechanical drawing, bookkeeping, telegraphy, electricity and typewriting. This work has also received the special encouragement of the Fahys Company, some of whose employes have been registered in these classes for two successive seasons.

The story of Mashashimuet Park and Social Center in land and good will is an illustration of how a rural environment, which has come to be considered by many a handicap to one born and reared in it, may be made interesting and attractive. It is one of the influences which it is expected will help to retard a too early exodus from country to city on the part of our present population and an endeavor to so prepare country boys that they will be able to win their way anywhere without unlearning anything. It is one of the many ventures which are aiding rural environment to do its best work.

THE VILLAGE AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEM

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In this age of investigation and self-analysis, we are bringing to light such a vast and strange assemblage of social and political facts that we are apt to stare at ourselves and say, "Is this the way we really live? Is this what our national life really is?" This is not strange, for until recently we have been like ostriches, blind to criticism and secure in our illusion that our national system was the greatest, and our national life the best, in the world.

Our cities, long our shame, were the first to get out of the "ostrich" class. They have become pioneers in a determined fight for a better, cleaner and more efficient national life; it is from them that even the national government takes its cue in administrative reform.

There is another type of community, outnumbering our cities probably ten to one, which until now has been hidden in the general social and economic hinterland—the village. Who has thought about our villages? Who cares about them? What are they doing, and how are they doing it? Of what significance are they? Should they be "reformed," and if so, how?

Outward Characteristics

In the village, where the stimulating contact of successful people does not exist and where often the population appears to be more dead than alive, the physical set-up is frequently defective. Streets are but partially, often improperly, paved, and there is no street plan. Buildings are only half "kept up." Rotten tenements may be found in villages as may also typical "East Side" living conditions. Sewers are apt to be defective and "sanitary" conveniences are often decidedly insanitary. Population is congested along "Main Street" and sparse in the rest of the village. In contrast with English and European villages, the American village is often poorly articulated, even slabsided—it lacks coherence and individuality.

Administrative Characteristics

Village administration varies in different sections of the country, but usually there are two common characterstics: *inertia* and *irresponsibility*. Governing boards of trustees are slow thinking and slow acting, and the members are usually unwilling as individuals to champion more progressive methods.

Village administrators are so closely in contact with the rural population and with the country habit of letting the season determine the

work, that alertness is rare. Add to this the fact that such men are not as a rule paid for their service, or are at best "part time" officials, and you begin to understand the lack of snap in village administration.

Village Finances

Among the specific weak points in the administration of village finance are the following: Bonding in excess of ability to redeem without refunding; bonding for a longer term than the improvement warrants; failing to estimate correctly for a year's administrative program; granting disadvantageous franchises, due to personal influence or to a general lack of corporate "back bone"; transacting routine business upon a personal and not a competitive basis.

Health and Sanitation

Here we come upon an amazing situation. Naturally fitted for the well-nigh perfect health of its inhabitants, we find in many villages the most startling parallels of urban defects: infant mortality is usually high; contagious disease cases are apt to run into three figures; the water supply is in many cases unprotected against pollution; milk is generally unanalyzed, nor is there any routine sanitary inspection of food and food shops; health records and reports are frequently in a most uncertain and incomplete state; nuisances often go for a long time without abatement. These things are not mere imaginings—they have been often noted in the course of investigation.

Another element which is strong in villages—because people are intimate and *personality* takes precedence over *function*—is a disposition to be "easy" on a popular offender against the sanitary regulations, to hold back disease reports to central authorities because it might "hurt somebody's business." In short, the village is still in the neighborhood class, and the conception of public health as possessing a higher claim than the individual's liberty—if the two clash—is rudimentary, to say the least.

Social Conditions

Here we touch an even sorer spot. Village social life is apt to be at a low ebb: the saloon is too often the most potent social influence, and through its power carries comparative immunity to allied evils. Recreation facilities, as known in cities, are largely absent, and the doubtful moving picture show is wont to monopolize the leisure time of the youth.

Men of larger caliber are either absent, or else decline to interest themselves in local administration, though, of course, there are many exceptions to this. Local business moves in a more or less narrow groove. Village ministers and teachers are frequently men of culture, but professional life is none too easy in the small community, and these persons are but too often chiefly engaged in trying to make both ends meet.

Referring to the previous grouping, the following is put forward as a tentative program for village betterment.

Physical Betterment

The average village should have a good engineer and architect go over the village with a view to adopting a "village plan"—of some sort. Time should be taken by the forelock and roads cut, open spaces laid out, building standards adopted, etc., *before* the village becomes the town and the town merges into the city. What crimes against municipal art and beauty could have been saved this nation by a few weeks—even days—of thoughtful "village planning" when our cities were young!

Administrative Efficiency

Village administration is a *one-man job,* if there ever was one. Get a good village clerk, pay him a decent salary, and let him be at his desk all day long, every day in the year. Half the inefficiency and waste in village government is due to lack of information, following the "part time" evil. With a wide-awake, capable administrative officer keeping the village books up-to-date and having a constant eye on the community's affairs, the chances for "steals," slipshod finance, etc., will be reduced to a minimum.

Some Specific Needs

As to specific administrative needs, many states have general village laws which purport to solve the problem of village organization and finance. That they do not in all cases is quite evident. In New York, for example, the General Village Law requires the assessment to be levied in June, although the fiscal year begins in March, thus enforcing a gap of several months during which villages, as a rule, have to borrow to pay current expense. State legislators would do extremely well to go over their village laws and amend them in the light of recently developed standards of efficiency.

Health and Sanitation—Remedies

The health problem in villages is not so much the framing of new health codes, or the adoption of the latest wrinkles in public health work, as it is in the enforcement of such rules as do exist, with addition of special regulations only where they are actually needed. Thus, the periodical testing of milk, the inspection of dairies and of food shops, sanitary disposal of garbage and the screening of stables can probably easily be "read into" the existing sanitary code. The doing away with cesspools and privies depends upon sewerage facilities and must be a step contingent upon the extension of the drainage system.

Above all, there must be instilled into villages an appreciation of the dangers which neglect of sanitary precautions and careless living brings to all persons of all classes. The idea of the public health standard as transcending the private health standard must be developed, as must likewise the habit of perfect and absolute publicity of health facts. Health maps, health lectures, bulletins, visits by state authorities—all are needed to assist in dispelling this portion of the general pall of village inertia.

Socially the crying need of the village is systemized, sane recreation. This is required pri-

marily as a counter-balancing force against the village saloon. Athletic fields and clubs, with contests free from professionalism, are wanted here as nowhere else; for, contrary to belief, the nearness of the country does not appeal to the average village youth, as he has the delusion of sophistication and is more likely to haunt the poolroom than to explore the rural byways in his spare hours. Recreation centers—free from sectarian influence—are badly needed, and most of all a "live" supervisor who can show people how to amuse themselves. A municipal moving picture show offers in many particulars the best solution of the "afternoon and evening" problem.

A State Bureau for Villages

In conclusion, the village problem offers one further suggestion: Cannot the state organize its villages, stir them into active life, make them keep awake, clean and efficient? Cannot each commonwealth "standardize" village improvement in all particulars—create a "village reference bureau" if need be? Inasmuch as the village is the recruiting station for the city, the earlier the state teaches its citizens the modern lessons of efficient and enlightened self-government and progressive social action, the easier will be the task when the larger units of government are concerned. And the gain will be that of all the citizens of the state, even those of the entire nation.

SPIRITUAL COUNTERPART OF THE SOCIAL CENTER

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Some weeks ago a speaker, looking over a gathering of the South Harlem Neighborhood Association of New York, remarked: "I truly think that this gathering, this association and others like it, is the most important civic event now taking place in Greater New York." The speaker emphasized this statement by referring to the police exposures, the subway controversy which was then at its height and the approaching municipal election. He implied that they were all ephemereal and insignificant when compared to the movement for the creation of new and positive social bonds.

For that is the meaning of the neighborhood association. It is a bridge between community need and personal need. Without it in one form or another, neither the community nor the individual can be anything but a possibility or a victim.

During the past year almost every month has seen the birth of a neighborhood association in Greater New York. Their membership is generally both personal and delegated. They are self-sustaining and usually work through committees and scheduled meetings. They do the practical work which lies next to hand, but the following list of active committees of one of these associations proves how varied this service is. The South Harlem Association has eleven committees: Membership, School Co-operation, Citizenship Bureau, Tenement House Conditions, Street Cleaning, Amusements, Parks and Playgrounds, Public Order, Public Health, Public Morality, Industrial Conditions. This association is the nascent social center of a region containing more than 300,000 inhabitants. In it are represented not less than twenty nationalities including all social and economic grades, and all creeds and parties.

What is a neighborhood association? American communities have a few continuous public interests which are largely taken care of by elected representatives. These officials become arbiters between local demands and community need, between special privilege and the people. Local demands, which are usually peremptory requests for the expenditure of public money on local improvements, do not necessarily represent the popular interests of the locality even. They are more often the expression of real estate interests. Yet this kind of local pressure is at present almost the only organized form in which popular interest reaches the mayor or council. Special privilege, on the other hand, is continuously active and always ruthless, and the domination of American city politics by special interest is the result. The classic example of this fact is the Congressman's attitude, "Give me a post office building and I'll give you a tariff schedule."

How can the people be brought to their local government? At present, New York, or any other large city, is composed mainly of newcomers, most of whom earn their living at competitive trades. In so far as they are socially grouped at all it is on sectarian lines, or national political lines, or secret society lines, or militant industrial lines, or race lines. Not one of their groups distinctly recognizes community rights. On the contrary, all desire to use that supreme instrument, the Law, as a means of imposing some special moral code or gaining some special economic advantage. They get the advantage, but it accrues to the institution, not to the citizen enrolled in it, for the citizen lives most of his life outside of any organization whatever, whether church, club, labor union, or political party. Most of the things he needs he cannot get through his clique. Most of the evils that beset him concern not at all the special interest which his institution or partisan group regards as its own concern.

In this sense America is socially governed by innumerable factions, and yet those factions do not represent the dominant life interests of the people who compose them. Does not this view of American conditions help one to understand the gulf that lies between the needs and native thoughts of most of us, on the one hand, and almost any of our governmental or institutional methods on the other?

Now comes the neighborhood association, which, as the law of its life, must really and honestly invite all citizens and all interests to join. The neighborhood association must keep

out of politics, not with reference to issues, but with reference to candidates and persons. Further the association must work through committees, but these committees must be subject to unlimited correction by the membership. The friendly and recreative features must be kept active, otherwise the association will lose its human attractiveness and fall a prey either to selfish, exploiting interests or to doctrinaries. Finally the committees must investigate practical neighborhood subjects and at the same time study the total community problem from the neighborhood standpoint.

None of these principles will be lived up to unless the association has an active membership committee, working according to a well understood system and issuing an appeal and making a campaign which will cross-section the whole neighborhood, men and women, young and old, rich and poor.

All vital interests, which the individual feels as his own personal problem, are really dependent on community arrangements, if they are to be satisfied. Most thinking people will agree that even one's conception of his own interests is largely a community reflex. This being true, can it be doubted that the neighborhood association which was loyal to its democratic ideal would in time succeed in establishing, between every interest and force in the neighborhood and the community represented in the city or district government, a definite relation? And can it be doubted that this result would transform our methods and our deeper ideals of government? What would become of our blue laws if the average citizen's experience could be brought directly and cumulatively to bear on them? Would city planning remain a dream, if the average householder was led to a vision of city planning through his own and his children's daily and local troubles and wishes? Can a truly organized democracy ever be realized, save through this method of a local, human friendliness and practical activity, slowly working outward toward the larger circles of community interest, and judging every community practice in terms of local human results?

Of course, not all the neighborhood associations have clung to the democratic ideal. More than one of them have really been nothing more than the effort of people, whose minds were made up in advance, to get a wider support for their own special ends. Sometimes these people have been real estate speculators. Sometimes they have been advocates of one or another kind of repression or license. Still other associations, failing to realize that a common standpoint must be arrived at before a neighborhood organization can act successfully, have struggled to plunge the association immediately into a campaign which involved attacking some class of people or some business interest which was itself a part of the neighborhood.

It is dangerous for a neighborhood association to begin by trying to close saloons on Sunday, by driving prostitutes from the district, by attacking confectionery stores which children frequent or otherwise saving the neighborhood by putting things out of the neighborhood. It is safer, if immediate action is necessary in order to secure membership, to work for the opening of a school building at night, the location of a tramcar station, the development of playgrounds. These are positive interests, along which truly constructive enthusiasm can play, and the purpose of neighborhood organizations is to build up a permanent social interest, not merely to eradicate what may or may not be an unmixed evil, but what is in any case an evil that mere repression can never destroy.

Just now everyone is interested in the movement to open our public properties for recreational and civic use. We want to throw open the schools and the library assembly halls. We want to encourage the more intensive uses of parks. Our mind is filled with the conception of idle properties which must be set to work.

This is well, for these properties may be thrown open before neighborhood groups can be organized through the process of using them. But, on the other hand, to throw our public properties open without at the same time setting our truly social energies at work, to think that mere physical provision will give us social organization, this will be a vital error. The movement for a better physical provision for leisure time has no final goal short of the organization of the people to use leisure time constructively, for community ends. It is well that in New York at least the neighborhood association movement is going ahead a little in advance of the readiness of public authorities to throw open the city's properties for free use by the people. That is, it *will* be well,—if the neighborhood associations hold fast to their ideal.

UNITED FRONT FOR OLD SOUTH BROOKLYN

Where 100,000 people are collected on a small area there are usually to be found new problems that cannot be solved by individual effort and that therefore call for united action. So it has been found in Old South Brooklyn—a section of the city which is more or less a geographical unit. It is bounded on three sides by water—Buttermilk Channel, New York Bay and Gowanus Canal—and on the fourth by Atlantic Avenue.

There, through the initiative of Mrs. Cornelius Zabriskie, a resident of Brooklyn, a recent study aimed to give a snap-shot view of the work which is already being done in the district, of ways in which individual efforts were or should be related, and of some neighborhood needs that could be met either by one church or by uniting many local forces, religious or otherwise. This survey was made by Mary B. Swain with the co-operation of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation.

The report dealt with the following subjects: nationality groups in the population, housing, health, charitable work, delinquency, schools, industries and recreation. The report, together with a plan of follow-up work, was turned over to a group of neighborhood leaders including representatives of the churches, settlements.

(*Continued on page 423.*)

HEALTH

AS usual with the approach of the summer months the medical journals are beginning to issue warnings against excessive indulgence in "soft drinks." This is not only because of the dangers from dirty glasses and from poisonous ingredients such as saccharin and various aniline dyes, but also because of the large amount of caffeine in some of the most popular summer drinks. It may be taken for granted that any cold "temperance" drink which produces a feeling of exhilaration and banishes the sense of fatigue is a caffeine drink. Of course, caffeine is not harmful to normal adults, but it is bad for the nervous and anemic and for children. Probably there are many nervous, restless city children who have really become caffeine habitues through visits to soda water fountains.

* * *

FOR the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, C. E. A. Winslow of the College of the City of New York, has just written an attractive little pamphlet which is directed to workmen in factories and shops. In a clear style the writer describes the dangers to health which the factory worker must encounter, the conditions which favor them and the ways in which they can be prevented or lessened. Naturally the dusty trades are given greatest prominence, but the evils of gases and fumes are also described, as well as those of ordinary air contamination, of bad lighting, poor water supply and unclean premises. It is brief but covers the essentials and is well illustrated.

* * *

THE laity has often insisted that the medical profession was to all intents and purposes a strong trade union, establishing standards of wages, forbidding scab work in the form of contract practice, disciplining members who were found working for less than the wage scale, and in return, standing by members in their difficulties with their employers, that is, patients.

Now at last this fact is beginning to be openly acknowledged by the British medical profession, which under the stress of the controversy over the Lloyd-George national insurance act, has been driven into the position of a body of trade unionists on strike for higher wages. The doctors are now actually discussing the advisability of reorganizing the profession on a trade union basis. In a recent issue of the *British Medical Journal*, the official organ of the profession, the leading editorial deals with Trade Unionism and Medicine. According to the writer, at the annual representative meeting held at Liverpool last year the question of the establishment of a medical union registered under the trade union acts was discussed and a local union has already been organized in Leicester and has obtained recognition under these acts.

The question is whether such a course will be more efficient than the present voluntary association in enlisting the loyalty of the rank and file of doctors. In the recent conflict the British Medical Association showed that it was not able to command the loyalty of its members in sufficient number to carry its point, for the strike was broken by physicians, members of the association, who accepted the government's terms and agreed to work for the pay refused by the association.

The interesting point to us in this discussion is the very evident feeling on the part of the Britsh doctors that they are being unfairly treated by the government under the national insurance act and that they are forced to united action in their own defense. They claim that they are required to bear the burden of a measure which was brought about by numerous complicated social causes and conditions with most of which the medical profession had nothing to do, and that in formulating plans for state care of sickness the interests of the medical profession were not consulted.

* * *

THE *Journal of the American Medical Association* sees in Dr. Friedmann's reported plan to establish an institute in every state a carefully, devised attempt to evade the control of the Public Health Service. In order to protect the public against impure and dangerous serums and vaccines the federal law places all such preparations which are subject to interstate commerce under the control of the Public Health Service, but articles which are sold in the state in which they are manufactured do not come under this law. According to newspaper reports Friedmann institutes are to be organized throughout the country, "each institute making its own serum, and in this way the necessity for interstate commerce will be avoided and the comparatively weak and poorly enforced state laws substituted for the strong and consistent control of the Public Health Service."

The development of this or any other plan on Friedmann's part has suffered a temporary set back, at least, in the closing of his New York institute in compliance with the stand taken by the New York City Board of Health. This body decided that patients could not be treated with the Friedmann serum until it had been completely tested by the board.

Following close upon the heels of this action Dr. George Mannheimer of the People's Hospital of New York in the *Medical Record* gives a clinical analysis of the condition of the first eighteen patients who took the alleged cure in this country. Dr. Mannheimer assumes that the treatment in these cases has been concluded and he declares that some of the patients are worse and that the disease was not checked in a single instance.

THAT was an unusually interesting dedication service which was held in Baltimore on April 16 when Henry Phipps presented the psychiatric clinic which will bear his name to the Johns Hopkins Hospital. It was unusual not only because of the many notable people who attended it, and because Sir William Osler, the beloved teacher, made the chief address, but because a clinic for the treatment of mental disease is still a new departure in America. We have been slow to recognize the need for what Mr. Phipps called "ameliorated treatment of the insane," so slow to recognize the fact that the insane are sick people and should be treated as other sick people are treated.

The clinic will be under the charge of Dr. Adolf Meyer and it will have as its avowed purpose the adaptation of hospital methods to the care and treatment of the insane. As Dr. Henry B. Hurd, superintendent of Johns Hopkins Hospital said,

> "It is hoped that the effect of this will be to secure prompt admission for all patients without legal formalities or vexatious delays, just as pneumonia, typhoid fever or any other acute diseases are received for treatment at any hospital as soon as the necessity of hospital care is apparent. Once admitted such patients may receive the same careful study and observation at the hands of a large and experienced staff as other hospital inmates. When convalescence has been fully established and the patient has been permitted to return home the watchful care of the Phipps Clinic will still be over him through the agency of a member of the staff, whose duty it will be to ascertain home conditions and supply what may be lacking in the way of advice and watchful care or treatment to prevent a return of the disorder. It is thus hoped to cure speedily those who can be helped in order to prevent the great increase of chronic insanity, which is proving such a burden to every state of the Union."

* * *

ON May 12 Governor Sulzer signed the anti-cocaine bill which bears the name of Assemblyman Walker, and New York state now has a law which will make it more difficult for physicians to prescribe cocaine illicitly, for druggists to dispense it, and for cocaine habitues to obtain it. The law is novel in that it is aimed at the wholesale dealer as well as the dispensing pharmacist. The wholesaler is required to keep records of his sales in such a way as to make it possible to discover retail drug stores which buy cocaine in larger quantities than their legitimate trade would warrant.

Every new state law to control this growing evil is welcomed by doctors as a profession. Many believe, however, that the cocaine traffic should be under federal control. It is their opinion that this is the only control which will prove effective. As long as the present diversity in state laws exists it will always be possible to evade the strict laws of one state by shipping in the forbidden goods from a more lenient neighbor. Chicago's cocaine fiends are said to be supplied from Hammond just over the Indiana border. In the same way New York city may possibly be supplied from New Jersey or Connecticut.

In Pennsylvania a bill has been passed which restricts the sale and possession of opium, morphine, heroin, their salts and derivatives. The bill prohibits the sale of these narcotics or their possession by any one but druggists and practitioners of veterinary medicine and permits possession of these drugs by hospitals, colleges and scientific or public institutions.

The bill makes it unlawful to sell or give away any of the narcotics mentioned except upon the written prescription of a registered practitioner of medicine, dentistry or veterinary medicine and the prescription is to be kept on file by the druggist for at least five years.

* * *

J. C. SALTER and Dr. Taylor Cronk have invented a device for the proper disposal of sewage on trains which was presented to the International Congress of Hygiene last fall and which it is hoped will be adopted by the railway companies in the near future. The railways in this country have made decided advances in sanitation in recent years but that phase of railway sanitation has thus far been neglected.

In former years when population was less dense and when trains were not so frequent and crowded, it was perhaps not so serious that the railways should scatter sewage over the right of way. Now that railways cross thickly populated tracts of territory, and express-trains pass through towns of considerable size without stopping, the crude disregard of hygiene in this matter is entirely out of keeping with present-day sanitary science, particularly as the railway rule is to have the toilets locked only during the times of stopping at stations, which gives opportunity for the scattering of offensive material, distinctly dangerous to health, even on the streets of towns.

There is also danger in the present arrangement in the fact that railways frequently cross streams that are connected with water-supplies, and the present custom of disposing of the contents of railway water-closets may well prove a source of contamination of drinking-water.

At present the Pullman Company makes arrangements for the disposal of sewage when cars stand on sidings in smaller towns waiting to be picked up by through express-trains during the night. There is no reason why there should not be an extension of this system that will protect the public, especially its water-supplies.

* * *

THE United States Public Health Service, having issued its ultimatum against the common drinking cup and insisted upon pure drinking water on passenger trains, has gone one step further. Hereafter ice that comes in contact with the drinking water must be certified to be pure by state or municipal authorities. Inspection is required every six months.



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MENTAL EXAMINATION OF ALIENS, ELLIS ISLAND

MEDICAL INSPECTION OF IMMIGRANTS

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The present is an intensely utilitarian age. The question of results, either present or future, is raised in connection with practically all our actions. The disposition of the mentally deficient has recently come to be considered as one of vital importance. Of the number at present with us, we are asking whether they shall be left as the Spartans were to fight for their very existence and finally to succumb; whether they shall be asexualized; whether they shall be simply segregated and thus prevented from increasing their numbers; or whether they shall be trained in special schools erected for the purpose.

The question has also been raised as to the methods that should be employed to prevent the admission of the mentally defective into this country among the hundreds of thousands of aliens that flock annually to our shores. It has been stated that under proper restraint the number of feeble-minded would be so reduced that in thirty years many of the existing establishments for their care would no longer be needed; but if the number is to be continually increased by the influx of foreigners, this happy solution can never be attained. It is safe to estimate that four out of every thousand immigrants can be legally classified as feeble-minded, imbecilic or idiotic. The same proportion holds as to the number that are insane or will become so. In other words, we are admitting about 3,000 mental defectives annually and an equal number that are or will become insane.

Some appreciation of what this means or may mean to us as a nation may be gained from the history of the famous Jukes family with its numerous progeny of paupers, criminals, alcoholics and sexual immorals. If the number of social misfits descended from Max Jukes is a criterion, as it certainly is, of what may come from others, the importance of restriction cannot be too forcibly impressed upon us as a nation.

This one family has come into considerable prominence in eugenic literature and we know that there are others, such as the Tribe of Ishmael, and many that have not come within the scope of literature.

It is evident that it is well worth while to institute measures to prevent the flooding of our country with such undesirable material, and toward this end it may be well to inquire what we are doing and what might reasonably be attempted.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, if we include the salaries and commutations of officers of the Public Health Service and the wages of attendants, we find that at the port of New York, where nine-tenths of the immigrants arrived, the sum of eight and a fraction cents per head was expended for the examination of each alien.

The question is—are we putting forth enough energy and money to keep from our country criminals such as Czolgosz, Schrank, Gallagher, "Lefty Louie" and "Gyp the Blood" every one



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THE PRIMARY MEDICAL INSPECTION AT ELLIS ISLAND

of whom is to be classed either as insane or mentally defective. This class we can exclude if we put forth sufficient energy. The last two of the five named were born in this country and are mentioned merely as showing the legitimate fruit of a germ plasm with criminalistic tendencies in succeeding generations, regardless of geographical location. It must be remembered that this class is reproductive beyond the average. With a decided lowering of the power to control or the possible absence thereof and with no consideration for results or for the future, their passions are to a great extent unrestrained and the result is exactly what might be expected. The entrance of all insane into this country can probably never be prevented, but it is possible to keep out practically all mental defectives.

If the scheme advocated by Dr. Davenport, and by many considered as Utopian and impracticable, were put into full operation, it is estimated that the cost would be only about fifty cents for each of the arriving aliens. On pages 222-223 of his book on Hereditary in Relation to Eugenics it is stated that four hundred field-workers should be located in the various countries furnishing immigrants. Their duties would be a service abroad similar to that which such workers perform in this country,—visiting the relatives of persons in question to learn their personal and family history. When it is considered that defectives are costing this nation over $100,000,000 annually, such expense might be considered a good investment because of the saving which would result to our institutions.

The cost of putting into effect the scheme urged by New York state officials of increasing the force at Ellis Island to at least one hundred officers, would come to about the same sum. Even with the head tax as at present fixed, it does not seem disproportionate to spend half a dollar, or one-eighth of the tax, in an attempt to keep our nation free from the would-be murderers of Presidents and other prominent officials of our government.

Would it pay? The industrial life insurance companies pay twenty-five cents for simply a glance at a child and, with less involved than an individual alien means to this nation, industrially and eugenically, the companies insuring from one thousand dollars up—pay from $1.00 to $7.50 for an examination. The alien possesses a potentiality far beyond the value of the average insurance policy. During the last fiscal year eighty insane aliens were certified at the port of New York by officers of the Public Health Service. Conservatively estimated the cost of each one of these insane to the nation would be $275 per year and the average life is ten years. Reckoning upon this conservative basis by the certification of this limited number of insane, one single item, $220,000, or more than three times the entire expense of the medical examination of aliens at this station was saved to the nation. There were also 142 mental defectives certified during this same year. Their cost to the nation can only be estimated, but judging from the examples cited above, it would have been considerable. In some respects the cost is not to be calculated in terms of dollars and cents, arising as it does from arson and like crimes furnishing temporary amusement to the perpetrator.

Eight hundred sixty-seven cases of loathsome contagious diseases were detected and practically all returned. Also 10,696 cases were certified as

afflicted with disease or suffering from physical defect, rendering them unable at present or at an early date to earn a livelihood, and hence liable to become a burden upon the public.

Almost half as many were also stated as being afflicted with some minor disease or physical defect not seriously interfering with their ability to earn a living. It can thus be seen that the expenditure of a trifle more than eight cents every six seconds, the average time expended on each alien during a fairly busy day, resulted in a profit of more than 300 per cent on the insane alone. When the mental defectives, those suffering from loathsome and contagious diseases, together with those physically below par, each of which classes is certainly equal in importance to the insane, are also considered it is evident that a good dividend was earned.

When only about 5 per cent of the mental defectives are being detected and about 25 per cent of the estimated possibility among the insane is being attained, it would appear from what has been accomplished with the present limited force of officers that a more liberal expenditure of time and money would be warranted. The "estimated possibility" mentioned above has reference to the percentage of insane that could be detected under ideal conditions. In the opinion of competent judges it never will be more than 15 per cent of the number alienated or of those destined to that unfortunate state.

If Max Jukes and others of his ilk had been prevented from entering this country, as was entirely possible, the saving to us is almost beyond comprehension. If the small force of Public Health Officers is at present able to stop those whose cost to the country would be more than twelve times the expense of the station, there are good reasons for so increasing the force that there may be a fair chance to arrest the 95 per cent of mental defectives and the 75 per cent of insane that are now escaping and gaining entrance to this country to its physical, mental and moral detriment.

CARE OF THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE

For several years doctors in New York city have been anxious to have the Board of Estimate and Apportionment appropriate money for physicians for the examination of mentally defective children for the ungraded classes of the Board of Education. Last fall just after this request was granted it was announced that the Department of Charities had established a bureau for those mentally defective. Dr. Schlapp, its director, and Mr. Thorne, the superintendent of the Bureau of Dependent Adults of the Charities department appeared before the Public Health, Hospital and Budget Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine to present the reasons for the establishment of such a bureau, their aims and methods of work. Later Elizabeth Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes, Dr. Smart, physician for the ungraded classes, and Dr. Ira S. Wile, member of the Board of Education, presented to the committee the work of these special classes.

As a result of these conferences, and of a study of the reports of the Royal Commission on the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded, the committee adopted the following resolution which presents a well considered plan for the care of the mentally defective in New York. While appreciating the circumstances which led to the establishment of the special division for those mentally defective in the department of charity and which now call for its continuance the committee of the New York Academy of Medicine declares that the department is not a suitable agency for the permanent control of the problem. The most important recommendation is for a Board of Control corresponding to the State Board of Lunacy.

"We believe that the interests of the state and of the individuals concerned would be best served if the care of the feeble-minded in New York were provided for as follows:

1. That the laws of the state be so altered that the entire charge of the feeble-minded throughout the state be placed in the hands of a Board of Control. Such a board should have powers analogous to those residing in the State Board of Lunacy and should be responsible for the care of all feeble-minded in the state from birth to death. They may, however, at their discretion, delegate the education of such children as are educable to parents and, in such communities as make proper provision for the care of the feeble-minded, to the local education authorities during that part of the lives of such educable feeble-minded children as comes within the usual school ages.

2. Race, religion and economic status should not relieve the family of a feeble-minded individual from the supervision of the state authorities or the restrictions which it might be necessary to impose for the public welfare.

3. Before school age the care of the feeble-minded would naturally fall to the family under the supervision of such a board, with or without the additional observation of private agencies.

4. During school age all educable children should be taught so far as possible to be self-supporting, either by private means, or in existing public schools or in special institutions if these are later provided.

5. After school age, the feeble-minded who are non-self-supporting should be cared for by the state or by private means under state supervision. Those who are self-supporting might be allowed under restrictions to live outside of institutions, but it should be the ultimate aim so to supervise all feeble-minded in or out of state institutions that

(Continued on page 425.)

EDUCATION

(*Continued from page 407.*)

manufacturers. There are times in nature when evolution ceases and devastation by flood or fire is necessary to sweep the tables clean for a new deal. Are not we at the point where revolution must take the place of evolution in our schools?

The vital, immediate reason for placing industrial education under separate lay boards of education lies in the fact that the old boards fail to control their schools in the spirit of the times. The result of placing control of these schools in the hands of the old school committees, as has been done in about every instance, has been that they have been located in old abandoned school houses or lofts which have been deserted by progressive manufacturers. They have been equipped inadequately and manned still more inadequately, and they have been so pinched for funds or so hampered by red tape that the only wonder is that they survive at all.

In contrast to this we in Worcester have found that a lay board composed of manufacturers, contractors, professional men, superintendents and labor men having only one string to its bow has been able to get funds from our city to erect, equip and man industrial schools efficiently. They formulated a plan which was in no way a tearing down of the public schools, because they had nothing to do with those schools, but which was based on a study of the actual present industrial situation. There were no precedents to break down. The start was made from the virgin soil. The result is that in a state where most of the industrial schools which were transferred to public school control have lost registration, we have gained in number and favor so that we have nearly completed an addition to our building which is larger than the first section and which will give us two acres of floor space for the teaching of trades with the other necessary work to make an all around citizen.

The board, composed as it is of men of diversified interests, has never as a whole proposed to limit its schools to teaching the manipulations and technique of trades. We have always pledged ourselves to offer the essentials, or what we consider the essentials, of a high school education, by which we mean that we teach mathematics, science, English, history, civics and drawing, not merely as they apply to a mechanic but as they apply to every one who is to have the right to vote, and as they apply to every man who has a soul that rises above the mere machinery of commerce or industry. A board composed of business men exclusively could be no more liberal, it might be less. It certainly could not be any more anxious to make its schools meet legitimate present day demands.

I expect and hope to see at no late day all kinds of public education harmonized and unified under one control. But it is painfully evident that industrial education must either have separate control for the present so that it may be administered by people whose views are different from those of conventional old line school people or it has no chance of success.

CIVICS

(*Continued from page 417.*)

schools, library, the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities and other organizations that had assisted throughout; and it was accompanied by the recommendation that some one of the various needs pointed out be selected and dealt with, with the hope that the social forces of the district, having once united, would hold together to deal with others in turn. A housing exhibit around which is to be developed an educational campaign for better housing conditions was chosen as the beginning point. E. G. Routzahn in co-operation with the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, the National Housing Association and the New York Tenement House Committee prepared a detailed plan. In order to strengthen the backing for the program, these leaders in local work for community betterment formed themselves into the Old South Brooklyn Civic League, and have decided to bring a worker to the district to be actively in charge of the league's program. The new worker, Edith G. Van Ingen, formerly connected with the New York Child Labor Committee, took up her duties in May.

CIVIC AND SOCIAL TOURS TO EUROPE

Two civic and social tours of Europe for the study and observation of foreign conditions with special reference to their bearing upon the solution of our own welfare problems are to be conducted this summer by the International Civic Bureau, 1 Madison Avenue, New York. The itinerary of the tours includes the leading cities of Germany, France, Holland, Belgium and England.

Besides giving attention to land problems, municipal administration, labor problems and public and private welfare activities the parties will also visit the chief points of interest in the various cities. The program throughout will be under the charge of experts.

The trips which are being arranged by E. E. Pratt under the auspices of New York University have been combined with the above tours and will go under the management of the International Civic Bureau.

NEW BRUNSWICK TOWN PLANNING ACT

A Town Planning Act passed by the Legislature of New Brunswick this year places restrictions upon various phases of city and town development. It provides that any town or city council may prepare a town-planning scheme, but before it is acted upon it must be approved by the government. Thus, all future developments in the towns and cities of this province will be subject to the supervision of the government.

Local commissions, whose appointment is subject to the approval of the government, are to be responsible for supervising the development of new town areas. The commissions are given important powers in regard to making provision for traffic highways and proper sanitary conditions and may regulate the number and nature of buildings per acre. Private rights when injured must receive compensation.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

June and July Conferences

Blind, National Association of Workers for the. Jacksonville, Ill., June 24-27, 1913. Sec'y, Charles F. F. Campbell, 962 Franklin Avenue, Columbus, O.

Charities and Correction, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

Child Welfare, International Congress of. Brussels, July 23-26, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing M. Paul Otlet, 3 Rue de la Regence, Brussels.

Christian Citizenship Conference, World's. Portland, Ore. June 29-July 6, 1913. Chairman, Rev. James S. Martin, 209 9th St., Pittsburgh.

Home Economics. American Association of. Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913. Information may be secured from Marguerite B. Lake, Forest Hill, Md.

Officials of Charities and Correction, American Association of. Fourth Annual Meeting. Springfield, Ill. June 24-26, 1913. Sec'y, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.

Public Health Nursing, National Organization of. First annual meeting. Atlantic City, N. J., June 23-25, 1913. Sec'y, Ella Phillips Crandall, 52 East 34th Street, New York.

LATER MEETINGS

International

Blind, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the, London, England, June, 1914. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

Children's Welfare, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam.

Consumers' League Conference, International. Antwerp, Belgium, September 26-28, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing Miss Pauline Goldmark, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

Farm Women, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

Foodstuffs, International Congress for the Fight against Deterioration and the Adulteration of. Ghent, August 1-3, 1913. Sec'y, M. Antony Neuckens, Hotel de Ville, Brussels.

Housing, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe, director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

Infant Mortality, English-speaking conference on. London, England, August 4 and 5, 1913. Under auspices of the British National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, London.

Prison Congress, Quinquennial. London, England, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

Students ("Corda Fratres"), Eighth International Congress of. Ithaca, N. Y., August 29-September 13, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing the Cornell Cosmopolitan Club, Ithaca, N. Y.

Town Planning and Organization of Municipal Life, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, summer 1913. General Sec'y, Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

Unemployment, International Association on. Ghent, Belgium, September 3-6, 1913. American Section Secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d Street, New York.

National

Conservation Congress, National. Washington, D. C., November 18-20, 1913.

Industrial Education, National Society for the Promotion of. Seventh annual convention. Grand Rapids, Mich., October 19-25, 1913. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

Infant Mortality, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Washington, D. C., November 14-17, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore.

Prison Association, American, Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

Probation Association, National. Buffalo, N. Y., August 26-28, 1913. Sec'y, Arthur W. Towne, 105 Schermerhorn Street, Brooklyn.

Religious Education Association. March 5-8, 1914. New Haven, Conn. Sec'y, Henry F. Cope, 332 So. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

State and Local

Charities and Correction, Fourteenth New York State Conference of. Buffalo, N. Y., November 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, Marcus A. Beeman, 105 East 22nd Street, New York.

Charities and Correction, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

Charities, Massachusetts State Conference of. Northampton, Mass., October 21-23, 1913. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston.

Student Conference for Young Women, Central States. Auspices of National Y. W. C. A. Williams Bay, Lake Geneva, Wis., August 22-September 1, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing conference registrar, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York.

EXHIBITIONS

International

Panama-Pacific Exposition. San Fancisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, Washington, D. C.

Panama-California Exposition, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

School Hygiene, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

National

Conservation Exhibition, National, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

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HEALTH

(Continued from page 422.)

propagation of their kind may be prevented. To accomplish this result some kind of custodial care for women and men in farm colonies will have to be provided.

6. All of the feeble-minded who come under the jurisdiction of the courts should be referred by the courts to the state Board of Control for detention and care, and be separated from the feeble-minded who have developed no anti-social tendencies. Every child brought before the children's court should be referred to the State Board of Control for mental examination.

7. To the end that the life history of all feeble-minded be at all times available, for the sake of the schools, the courts, and the authorities of the state, a bureau should be established at once for the permanent records of all the feeble-minded from birth to death who come within the jurisdiction of the state. Until such time as the proposed Board of Control is organized and provided with necessary facilities the Bureau of Records of the City or State Department of Health should be the official depository of such information as may be obtained.

8. We believe that there is a need for the so-called ungraded classes of the public schools. Our criticism of such work as is now done for the feeble-minded by the Department of Education of New York city is that the examinations and tests and selection of children suitable for education have not been under adequate medical direction, and that the equipment and organization are insufficient. Furthermore, we find no provision for the morally defective who are found at present in the regular classes of the public schools.

9. We believe that although a department of charities is not a suitable agency of government to take upon itself the permanent control of the great problem of the feeble-minded, nevertheless, under existing conditions and until such time as a board of control may be established there is a legitimate field for the present activities of the Department of Charities.

The committee also reports that any thoroughgoing organization of the care of the feeble-minded should contemplate:

1. State control co-operating with existing local or municipal agencies.
2. A permanent bureau of life records with compulsory notification and registration.
3. Self-support where possible for the feeble-minded.
4. Segregation and detention where necessary.
5. Prevention of the propagation of their kind.
6. An organized and permanent campaign of study and education, for the prevention of the causes which lead to feeble-mindedness.

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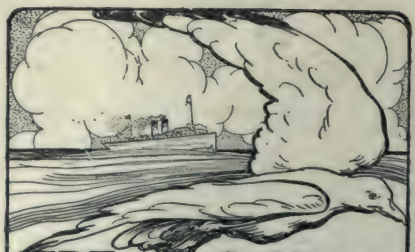
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MISCELLANEOUS

THE APPOINTMENT BUREAU of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston St., Boston, Mass., wishes to know of opportunities in Social Service affording living expenses, for college graduates (1913) who have majored in Economics and Sociology, but have had little field work.



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VOLUME XXX, No. 13 WEEK OF JUNE 28, 1913

THE SURVEY

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A LETTER FROM A SURVEY ASSOCIATE

June 7, 1913.

Dear Mr. Editor:

This week's issue of THE SURVEY is excellent—better, in fact, than usual.

I have been talking to some men who are not $10 Co-operating Subscribers to THE SURVEY, but would gladly become such if offered the opportunity. The idea came to me that the co-operation of such men might be secured by others who are already enrolled as Survey Associates. Personally, I could get three or four, let us say four, new members if you do not push me for time—if you give me, say, until September.

Why don't you make this plan general? A number of your subscribers, I am sure, would agree to secure one, two or possibly three new Co-operating Subscribers before a given date. You could furnish them with lists of present Co-operating Subscribers to prevent their asking people who are already enrolled. THE SURVEY is, of course, a co-operative enterprise; and the function of "co-operators" is to co-operate.

I will write this afternoon to four different people, asking them to become co-operators. If I secure one of the four, I shall send out three more letters, and keep on sending letters until I secure the four or more.

Sincerely yours,

A Co-operating Subscriber.

If you are a Co-operating Subscriber and want to help—if you are not one and want to be one—if you are not one and can't afford to be one, but still want to help by getting some one else to be one, now is the time when it would count for much.

(See back cover.)

THE PITH OF IT

TWENTY years of neighborliness in Henry street. P. 427.

EVEN the innocent bystander—the public—seems safeguarded by the revised Erdman Act, which both the railroads and the trainmen are urging upon Congress. P. 429.

THE Cincinnati car strike settled by an unusual combination of forces topped by Mayor Hunt's application for the appointment of a receiver on the ground that by failing to operate its cars the company had violated its franchise. P. 432.

EDGAR Gardner Murphy, organizer of the National Child Labor Committee, and widely known for his work in behalf of education in the South and of a better understanding of race problems, died Monday at his home in New York.

THE tea shop girls of London. P. 444.

MAJOR Peixotto's boys across the roaring main. P. 444.

SURVEY readers take their pens in hand. P. 441.

FOURTH OF JULY ORATIONS

FIRECRACKERS are following stage-coaches into ancient history, and there is call for relief indoors and out from the old-fashioned Fourth of July oration. THE SURVEY next week—July magazine number—will have some addresses of a new sort. As patriotic as Patrick Henry's best, but sounding new notes of the needs and strivings for freedom in a new century.

First on the program will be a ringing speech on widows' pensions. Not as associate editor of THE SURVEY, or as secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, or as director of the School of Philanthropy or as professor at Columbia—not as any of these, but as an individual, did he write this, says Edward T. Devine. Answers the question: "When is a pension not a pension?"

"Social work at present lacks a plan to make it effective," Dr. Patten will say in his Independence Day speech to SURVEY readers. The crying need of this one hundred and thirty-eighth year of our independence is not for more social agencies but for a comprehensive social philosophy. The basis he lays for it in a brief five pages—a short speech—will be read and re-read and discussed, we hope, in later issues. A sharp jerk at the bridle for some who have been galloping down faint trails.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

GRAHAM TAYLOR — JANE ADDAMS

Associate Editors

PAUL U. KELLOGG
Editor

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Another speech, the president's address at the National Conference of Charities and Correction by Frank Tucker. Traces the three periods of the conference: first, when it was concerned only with the care of the poor and the sick and the weak; next, when prevention was the keynote; and third—but that is a secret until the release date a week from today. On the anniversary of this, our national birthday, Mr. Tucker declares "men are not born free and equal," and tells why he believes it.

One hundred and thirty-seven years ago a few men gathered in an old red brick building in Philadelphia and signed a paper that led to the political freedom of a continent. Last month an even smaller group met in Chicago and set going a movement which shall free men and women from the fear of want in sickness and old age and death—the first American Conference on Social Insurance. Dr. Rubinow will summarize the discussion in the light of his intimate knowledge of European experience.

A little gunpowder is a dangerous thing.

THE COMMON WELFARE

"A WAVE OF LOVE" IN HENRY STREET

Henry Street, New York, where Lillian D. Wald has just completed twenty years of service in the first of all nurses' settlements, was in a most unusual condition and frame of mind. Out of every window hung as many heads as there was room for. Along the edges of the roofs, on stoop railings, in queer attitudes of poise and gymnastic contortion, people waited for the coming of the pageant.

Then flashed a thousand electric lights, a deafening shout went up and the line of beauty turned into the street.

Indians and Dutch, true to the original in bearing and dress; boys and girls of the Colonial days; Quakers of 1806; stately men and women of 1860; groups of Irish, Scotch, Germans, Italians, Russians—all as from the pages of the book of Henry Street history—walked with banners flying to awaken in the minds of the present generation a sense of what has gone before.

In turn each group took the arena in the center of the street and illustrated in simple action, dance or song the life of its day. The performance was a picture in color, wonderful in costumes, effectiveness of incident and animation of actors; the audience was tense with appreciation.

The climax of the evening was the recessional —the long banner of the settlement was borne over the heads of the performers, and the gayly colored line began to weave its way up and down under the blaze of lights. Instinctively the spectators on the grand stand rose and the men removed their hats. Amid a thunder of cheers for Miss Wald, the settlement and Borough President McAneny, the line passed out of sight.

Not only did the neighborhood contribute of its resources, but equal interest from the city authorities was shown. The roadway was roped off, the new asphalt pavement freshly washed and swept, the passageways and arena effectively kept clear by the police, the adjacent school opened for dressing rooms—all of which meant that the various city departments had issued special permits and instructions that the city might officially co-operate with the neighborhood in recognizing the event. When the firemen stood spick and span at salute as the procession passed, and the church bell rang merrily, a woman neighbor voiced the feeling of many when she said: "It surely seems as if a wave of love has struck the block."

Twenty years ago Miss Wald came to the neighborhood of Henry Street, beginning in a simple way the work which developed into the Henry Street Settlement, with its many civic and social ramifications. Dramatics and pageantry have long been features of the activities of the house, but to celebrate the twentieth anniversary of her coming it was agreed that all previous efforts should be surpassed. History was searched for incidents; hands and heads were set to work to execute the plans. It was the culmination of two months of enthusiastic preparation which produced the effect that mere beauty or skill alone can not give.

Thanks to the pioneer efforts of Percival Chubb, New York is familiar with the true festival—a performance that is not only beautiful, but has meaning and draws from the experiences of the actors for its expression. The city is also beginning to realize the possibility of the street for festivity, and the celebrations at Greenwich House, St. George's, and the Henry Street Fourth of July dances have proved that the street can command order and respectful attention when a sincere appeal is made. It was for this anniversary pageant to illustrate the possibilities of beauty in detail and finished performance.

Nine out of ten of those who took part in the anniversary pageant were Jews, either born in Russia or of Russian parentage. The appeal of the best American traditions had been made to them and they had responded not only well, but with a genuineness and spontaneity that roused the audience.

On a Henry Street corner stands All Saints' Church, fashionable seventy-five years ago when the street was one of the city's finest. Climb up long and shaky ladders past the door of the old slave gallery, over thick carpets of undisturbed dust, to the small arched windows, there to command a view of the whole brilliant spectacle. Then, lifting the eyes, gaze over the roofs of East Side tenements to the great bridges outlined in yellow light and over to the west a dark ridge of skyscrapers surmounted by the jeweled dome of the Singer tower.

To the early worshippers in All Saints' both views would have been visions equally unim-



THE PATERSON PAGEANT POSTER

aginable. But the triumph of architecture in producing New York's wonderful sky line would cause no more wonder to that generation than the triumph of democracy which created the spectacle of beauty in the street below.

The problem to those who saw and in a measure understood is not so much by what means to restrict the numbers of this Jewish race coming to our shores, but how to increase the points of contact with the highest American culture that the leaven of idealism with which it is so heavily endowed may be preserved to the enrichment of our country's life.

PAGEANT OF THE PATERSON STRIKE

Of quite another sort was the Paterson strike pageant given the same night. The average man who went to look on and the social observer familiar with labor struggles left Madison Square Garden with a vivid new sense of the reality of the silk strike and of industrial conflict in general for that matter.

The pageant, in which a thousand strikers participated, went the "human document" one better; it gave a real acquaintance with the spirit, point of view and earnestness of those who live what a "human document" tells; it conveyed what speech and pamphlet, picture and cartoon, fiction and drama fall short of telling. The simple movements of this mass of silk workers were inarticulate eloquence. And the words of "Big Bill" Haywood, or Elizabeth Flynn or Carlo Tresca or Pat Quinlan, in their efforts to give typical strike speeches, added nothing to the effect which the workers themselves spontaneously gave. Even the speakers seemed to feel this, for what they said seemed calm in substance and delivery compared with the whole-hearted simple vigor and earnestness of the thousand.

Yet it was an earnestness that had little of the vindictive. Grimness was not the dominant note in this characterization of industrial warfare—even when the workers surrounded the coffin of Modestino, the non-silk worker who was killed on the porch of his home when the detectives fired on the strikers. There was almost a note of gayety when an Italian striker sang, to the music of one of his native folk songs, some words concerning the strike, and the refrain was taken up with much gusto by the group around him. When the strike was called, and the throng rushed from the door of the mill to the front of the stage and down the center aisle, there was dash and enthusiasm.

Perhaps the thing that struck the observer most forcibly was the sort of people the strikers seemed to be and the absence of race prejudice. A large proportion were substantial, wholesome appearing German-Americans who seemed utterly to lack the hot-headed emotionalism which most people think characterizes I. W. W. adherents. One German striker, when asked how those of his nationality got along with the Italians, said, "We're all brothers and sisters"—and it certainly seemed so, for the Italian singer was reinforced by a hearty chorus of German women.

The pageant was without staginess or apparent striving for theatrical effect. In fact, the offer of theatrical producers to help in "putting it on" was declined by those who wanted the workers' own simple action to impress the crowd. There was no complicated detail. The "episodes"—all with the same scenery, a great painted canvas mill building—showed: the workers dully going to work, entering the mill, and then rushing out a little later when the strike was called; picketing and police clubbing in front of the mill; the funeral of Modestino; the strikers giving their children for temporary keeping to "strike mothers" from other cities; and a typical strike meeting addressed by I. W. W. leaders.

The hall was decorated with great signs to enlist sympathy for the strikers and stimulate the reading of I. W. W. literature. This was sold almost by the ton. Every seat was occupied at prices ranging from ten cents to $2. This alone made it a financial help to the strikers' cause, but a large collection was taken also. That the whole occasion was most inspiriting to the strikers was very evident, surely, to any one who heard the mighty volume of sound when the audience joined in thundering out the Marseillaise.

A BILL TO END RAILROAD STRIKES

A bill amending the Erdman Act and overcoming some of its defects, which in the last twelve months especially have been brought to the fore, was introduced last week in both houses of Congress. The importance of the matter is indicated in the fact that twice within the last year the whole eastern section of the United States has been threatened by a railroad strike, and now the same cloud is looming up again, for the conductors and trainmen in the eastern section are taking a strike vote.

When the Erdman Act first began to be taken seriously, railroad disputes were usually between a single road and its employes. Now the thing is done wholesale. In the controversy between the engineers and the railroads, for example, which was settled by arbitration, last fall, fifty-two railroad companies were involved and over thirty-one thousand engineers.

For a strike of such magnitude, the railroads declared that an arbitration board of three, as the Erdman Act provides, was inadequate. Accordingly, an arbitration board of seven members was finally agreed upon. Five of them were selected as impartial representatives of the public, and only two represented the parties to the controversy. The result was unsatisfactory to the employes, who insisted that these five were not sufficiently familiar with railroad conditions to pass upon the matter. Accordingly, when the locomotive firemen came into conflict with the railroads, they insisted upon an arbitration board of three, as provided by the act. So bitterly did the railroads oppose this proposition, and so persistently did the employes stick to it, that a strike was only a few hours off when the railroads finally capitulated.

A second important defect in the Erdman Act is that it provides for no official whose sole duty it shall be to attend to the matter of railroad controversies. Instead, it provides that the commissioner of labor and the chief justice of the Commerce Court may be called upon to act as mediators in case of a railroad dispute. Within recent years the work of this nature has been so continuous that the commissioner of labor has found it almost impossible to attend to the work of his bureau.

It is to meet these two difficulties especially that the new bill is designed. It provides for a commissioner of mediation and conciliation who, with two other officers of the government, will constitute a board of mediation and conciliation. An assistant commissioner is also provided for. The bill provides for arbitration when desired, by a board of six instead of three; two to be selected by the railroads involved, two by the employes, and two by the four already chosen, or, in case of failure, by the board of mediation and conciliation.

It is significant that the railroads and the railroad brotherhoods have co-operated in drafting the bill and are giving it their united support. It is this fact that has led officers of the National Civic Federation, who have been instrumental in bringing the matter to a head, to feel sanguine as to its results if it becomes a law. Having asked for such legislation from Congress, neither the railroads nor the employes can very consistently refuse to submit their differences to arbitration under the terms of the act. In this connection Ralph M. Easley, chairman of the executive council of the Civic Federation makes this significant and optimistic statement:

"The railroads and the brotherhoods have joined hands in this proposition, and that may reasonably be taken to mean that we are to have no more strikes on the railroads in this country."

NEW HANDBOOK ON INFANT MORTALITY

Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the Federal Children's Bureau, has issued a bulletin in the nature of a report on what American cities are doing and can do toward preventing infant mortality and the high death rate of children under five years of age. It finds that the efforts of city health officials in the last ten years have resulted in reducing the general death rate of cities below that of rural districts and villages; that babies die of diseases which are largely preventable, and that therefore welfare work directed toward saving their lives usually meets with immediate and decided response. In New York and Philadelphia, for instance, systematic baby-saving campaigns have shown a reduction of between 30 and 40 per cent in the deaths of children under two years of age.

Miss Lathrop reports that practically the only limit of the good results to be obtained by enthusiastic campaigns "lies in the financial side of the question. The investigations of the Children's Bureau indicate that the principal impediment to effective work in the health departments in most cities is the lack of adequate funds for carrying on preventive measures intelligently, and experience verifies the truth of the motto of the New York Health Department, 'Public health is purchasable; within natural limitations a community can determine its own death rate.'"

The bulletin describes in detail the features of a successful baby-saving campaign. It enumerates them as, encouragement of breast-feeding, inspection of milk supply, establishment of milk stations, baby clinics, a corps of visiting nurses, prenatal care of expectant mothers, instruction of mothers, forming "little mother leagues," destruction of flies, attention to housing

conditions, and the thorough watering of the streets.

In conclusion the bulletin advises city health officials to establish a continuous graphic statement of the births and deaths of babies by means of different colored pins placed on ward maps, and urges the prompt registration of births in order that the baby may be brought under observation as soon as possible.

It is proposed to issue every year a similar bulletin which will serve as a complete manual for municipal and private agencies at work for infant welfare.

NEW YORK MAYORS FOR HOME RULE

During the three days of their meetings at Binghamton, the 300 men who attended the New York State Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials took action that would have raised the hairs of earlier burgomeisters. They not only discussed, and in some cases settled, the usual municipal problems of taxation, sewage and the like, but tackled such subjects as excess condemnation, home rule for cities as opposed to the legislative wisdom which comes out of Albany, municipal plans to reduce the cost of living, municipal ownership of transportation lines, and Sunday baseball. A referendum of mayors is to be taken on the baseball proposal to which there was strong opposition.

The conference took positive action when it adopted a legislative program; authorized two surveys of cities of the state; resolved to establish a state bureau of municipal information; adopted a state-wide municipal welfare movement; wiped out the misunderstanding that had existed in relation to the municipal empowering act, or so-called "home rule" law, and made clear the scope and powers of the new state health law.

Attorney General Carmody declared that the municipal empowering act is purely an enabling act, and that it does not undertake to do more than to fill out imperfect grants of powers to the cities by the Legislature. In this he completely reversed his first interpretation of the law and accepted the views of the Mayors' Conference Legislative Committee, which during the winter carried on an energetic campaign for the measure. He urged the adoption by the Legislature of the remainder of the conference home rule program, namely an optional city charter law and a constitutional amendment.

The conference protested against giving poor law officials authority over admitting patients to public hospitals and passed resolutions commending the governor and the Legislature for enacting the Seely-McDaniels health bills, calling upon counties to build tuberculosis hospitals and upon cities to employ visiting nurses and to establish dispensaries. The conference strongly favored the constitutional amendment authorizing "excess condemnation."

The city planning expert advisory committee was authorized to make a survey of the cities of the state to learn what has been done and what needs to be done in the way of city planning. It was also authorized to arrange for a state city planning conference early next year, and to devote its efforts during the coming year to the establishment of city planning commissions in every city as provided by the new law. So pressing has become the problem of taxation and assessment that the conference decided to make a survey of assessment methods in the various cities.

The state bureau of municipal information will be operated by the cities through the conference and in co-operation with the state library. It will be established at Albany, financed by the cities of the state, and supervised by a council of five mayors.

TO COUNT ALL THE BABIES

Governor Sulzer of New York recently signed the bill to amend the public health law in relation to vital statistics, which was prepared by the Public Health Commission appointed by the governor for the purpose of revising and standardizing the public health legislation of the state. The new law closely follows what is known as the "model bill," a draft of legislation for the registration of births and deaths which has been recently revised by a committee that included representatives of the American Medical Association, American Public Health Association, American Bar Association, Children's Bureau and the Bureau of the Census.

New York has long been included in the registration area for deaths, but the registration of births in the state, except in New York city, has been known to be incomplete, as is the case in nearly all states of the Union. The April report of the bureau of health of Rochester, for example, estimates that 500 births are unreported in that city every year. The new law requires births to be registered within five days after their occurrence, establishes a penalty for failure or neglect to make such report, and further provides that should application be made for a certified copy of a birth certificate within ten years after the occurrence of the birth and the same is not to be found on record, owing to the negligence of the physician or midwife, then the delinquent, if living, shall be compelled to file a proper certificate at once and pay a fee of $5 for having the same officially recorded.

Congress has long urged the authorities of the states that do not possess satisfactory vital statistics to co-operate with the Bureau of the Cen-

sus to the end that the United States may attain a complete and uniform system of registration of births and deaths. The death registration area now includes nearly two-thirds (63.1 per cent) of the total population of the United States. In the North nearly 84 per cent is included, while in the South a much smaller proportion (20 per cent) is represented.

VACATION SCHOOLS AND EDUCATIONAL METHODS

Vacation schools may have been due in the beginning mainly to the humanitarian impulse of drawing children off the streets. School superintendents arranged activities and programs with that purpose in mind. But their experience began to have important bearings on their educational theories and practice. The result is that vacation schools are making important contributions to the knowledge of educational methods, and are already affecting the curricula and conduct of the school systems of the country.

This is the analysis of the movement, given by Clarence A. Perry of the Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation in a report just off the press. In three years the number of vacation schools has nearly trebled. In 1909 they could be found in only fifty-six cities; in 1912 they were reported in 141. The movement began in 1885, when the first vacation school was started in Newark, N. J. Since they are well distributed throughout the country and show each year a fairly regular rate of increase, says Mr. Perry, they can no longer be regarded as a fad, but must be considered a development that is well rooted in real social benefits.

How vacation schools are affecting elementary education is especially interesting now when educators everywhere are experimenting to make the public grade schools answer youthful needs more closely. For one thing, says Mr. Perry, they have demonstrated the kind of school activity that secures the pupil's enthusiastic attendance. A Medford, Mass., principal reports that in spite of a temperature of 100 degrees in the shade some of the time, the attendance was better than for any previous year, some of the boys being so interested that they begged to "come early" and "stay after."

Vacation schools have also paved the way for the all-year school. A significant application of this idea has been made by Superintendent A. B. Poland of Newark, who placed two elementary schools upon an all-year basis in June, 1912. His report for 1911-12 shows how this plan enables pupils to complete the work of eight grades in six years. The principals in charge of the two Newark schools give facts tending to show that regular work during July and August need not be harmful to the pupil's health; that teaching voluntary pupils during the hot months is not necessarily a strain upon the teacher; that a large proportion of the pupils want to attend school during vacation; and that teachers of summer courses get experience which causes them to want to vitalize and make more practical the instruction of the other ten months. One principal testifies as follows:

> Eliminating useless subject matter—not subjects—will save a great deal of time. Thus if arithmetic is to be of any practical value to pupils after they leave school, they must be able to perform the fundamental operations rapidly and accurately, and to solve practical business problems; but such useless topics as indirect cases of interest, discount, insurance and commission, seem rather a means of confusing the child's mind than of serving any useful purpose.

The great majority of the 141 cities having vacation schools hold sessions for five days a week. In seventy-six cities the classes continued for six weeks, in others for eight, and in six cities for ten weeks. Academic work was provided in 114 cities and handwork alone in twenty-six. The sources of teachers' compensations vary as follows:

	No. of Cities
Board of education	89
Other governmental bodies	8
Tuition fees	28
Contributions from individuals and associations	15

COMPELLING DESERTERS TO SUPPORT THEIR CHILDREN

A recent report of the city comptroller gives $400,000 as the amount New York pays each year for the care of children deserted by their fathers. The courts can deal only inadequately with this situation, for if the judge or magistrate can not persuade the man to support his dependents, its only resort is to sentence him to the work-house. This does not help the wife and children.

To remedy this situation in the state of Washington, a bill has recently been passed which provides that when a man convicted of family desertion or non-support has been put to work on the public roads, the Board of County Commissioners must pay a certain sum to those dependent upon him. The commissioners are directed to pay the money out of any fund available to the wife or the guardian of the children or to a trustee appointed by the court. This trustee may be an organization or an individual.

With the approval of the commissioner of corrections and of the judges of the Domestic Relations Courts, a similar bill has been drafted for New York city. The measure has already been reported favorably by the city committee in both the assembly and the Senate and with certain amendments is expected to pass within a few days. The bill provides that men committed for desertion or non-support will be put

at useful labor and that the sum of fifty cents for each day's work be paid to the prisoner's dependents. Similar plans are in operation now in several cities, notably Washington, D. C., and Detroit, Mich.

ADULTERATED CLOTHES NOW UNDER ATTACK

In line with the war on adulterated foods and drugs; Representative F. O. Lindquist of Michigan hopes to have the government protect us from adulterated wearing apparel. He has introduced in the House of Representatives a "pure fabric and leather" bill. Its aim is to have the federal government do for clothing, shoes and other wearing apparel exactly what it does for food and drugs through the Bureau of Chemistry, acting under the Pure Food and Drugs Act. Mr. Lindquist has sent out over 2,000,000 pieces of literature urging popular support for his measure, and he states that he has the promise of over 6,000 women's clubs to co-operate with him.

Several years' study of the subject has brought Representative Linquist to the conclusion that 75 per cent of the clothing, shoes and other wearing apparel worn by the average wage-earner is adulterated. The proposed bill would not prohibit the manufacture of adulterated or inferior goods, but it would require that each article should bear a label stating the quality of material from which the article was made.

MOTORMAN AND MAYOR IN STRIKE STRATEGY

MARC N. GOODNOW

Deep conviction begets eloquence in even the most primitive men. Jim Glazier of Cincinnati probably never dreamed that he was gifted with power to sway his fellows until one night recently when 1,800 determined employes of the Cincinnati Traction Company reiterated their decision not to treat with the company until their newly-formed union was recognized. A letter from Mayor Hunt had just been read, asking employes to arbitrate on whether or not their union should be recognized. Immediately a dozen men sprang to their feet to speak against the plan. The first man recognized was Jim Glazier, a motorman. When the hisses against the mayor's letter had subsided, Glazier said:

"Mr. Chairman, I do not know whether I can make a speech or not, for I am not used to talking, but I have something in my heart which I want to say. I am an old employe. I have worked for this company for twenty-five long years. I have a family. It is a large one, too. There are eleven little children around my hearthstone to feed. The littlest one can't talk yet.

"I looked at this little boy this morning as I was leaving the house and I said to my wife: 'I have been just like that child for twenty-five years, I had my lips sealed by the traction company and dared not open them. But, thank God, now, after twenty-five years, you men have made it possible for me to talk.

"Now that I am a free citizen again and have the right of free speech, I want to say that I will take a shovel and dig in the ditch before I will go back to the traction company unless it recognizes our union. I say no, no, no, Mr. Mayor; we will not listen to this letter. Stick with me, boys, and we will win!"

And the "boys" did win the recognition they sought—which was the vital point for which they were contending—though they conceded the "open shop" principle.

For twenty-five years, as Jim Glazier said, traction employes of Cincinnati have been under an agreement with the company not to organize any union. There was an association of employes practically taking the place of a union, and with this association as a sop the street-car company exacted the pledge of the men not to follow other cities of the United States and band themselves together. There have been spasmodic, intermittent outbreaks of doubtful force during those years, but no concerted action such as that which began on May 9, following the failure of the street-car company to reply to letters asking for a conference.

Business was seriously interfered with, though for the most part the strike was taken good naturedly. Local newspaper men estimated that at least three-fourths of the population of the city was in sympathy with the striking men. Many business and professional men who did not have automobiles declared their intention of walking throughout the strike, and they held to their decision despite lame backs and sore feet. Buses, vans, express wagons and every sort of vehicle that could be used for transporting people to and from the city were put in commission. Those who preferred to walk wore in their hat bands or pinned on their coat lapels: "I'm satisfied—I walk"; or just plain "I Will Walk," bearing the initials of the I. W. W. Visitors to the city joined in the spirit of the strike and took their exercise good-naturedly. During the strike the international convention of the Young Men's Christian Association was held at Music Hall, and though there was no street-car service on the Ohio side of the river the sessions were well attended.

On May 19 an agreement was reached, providing for recognition of the union and the arbitration of all other points in dispute. Much of the credit for this consummation is being given to Walter A. Knight, president of the Federated

Improvement Associations. Almost from the beginning Mr. Knight had been actively interested in effecting a settlement. It is even said that he showed such ability and skill as an intermediary that Governor Cox was impressed by it and based his refusal to send troops on the work Mr. Knight was doing, at the same time urging both parties to get together on the basis of the Knight proposals.

But an influence from another angle and probably more powerful was that wielded by Mayor Hunt, who filed suit in the Court of Common Pleas asking for a receivership for the traction company on the ground that, having failed to operate its cars upon schedule, the company had violated its franchise and forfeited its rights to the streets of Cincinnati. Thus the company was put between two hot fires. It objected to recognizing the union and still more to having a receiver appointed. The actual prosecution of the suit would have been a dangerous precedent for other public utility corporations in the state. Upon agreement to arbitrate, the mayor's suit was dismissed with the declaration that the settlement of the strike had made a receivership unnecessary. Both the mayor and the city solicitor have declared they will prepare a history of the strike and its settlement for the use of other cities in similar difficulties and also as a reference work in case there ever are repetitions of street-car troubles in Cincinnati.

With the final acceptance by the street-car men of the peace proposal, both sides of the controversy appointed representatives to confer on the selection of a third arbiter. The traction company appointed Walter A. Draper, its secretary; and the union men named John P. Frey, editor of the *Iron Molders' Journal*. After several conferences these two men selected for the third arbiter Prof. Herman Schneider, dean of the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati, and made him chairman of their board.

The board immediately reinstated more than a dozen car men. Following that, daily conferences were planned for the purpose of establishing a new wage scale for motormen and conductors, hours of a work day and a scale of pay for men who are compelled to wait more than a fixed time for their "runs."

The full demands of the strikers were for a work day of ten consecutive hours; payment of at least half wages to extra men who spend from four to seven hours a day at the car barns waiting for runs; a wage rate of twenty-five cents an hour the first year, twenty-seven cents an hour the second year and thirty cents an hour thereafter; and the right to a union.

In a statement, explanatory of these demands, addressed to Mayor Hunt the men declared that they had been compelled to put in anywhere from twelve to eighteen hours' time and often were paid for only seven hours. The old wage rate was twenty cents an hour for the first year and after that gradual increases of one cent an hour until the tenth year of service, when the rate was twenty-four cents. Here it remained for five years. Those who had completed fifteen years of service were paid twenty-five cents an hour.

In commenting upon their demand for the right to organize, the men declared that their object was "to protect ourselves in the future against the low wages and long hours that now prevail, and also to protect ourselves against many grievances and complaints."

An amusing aftermath of the strike is the quandary in which the street-car company finds itself over the funds of the Mutual Aid Society. All the employes were required to hold membership in this and in order to receive the sick benefits and insurance offered were obliged to sign an agreement not to join a union, although they contributed from their own wages to the funds of the society. The strike left the society without any members, and with about $75,000 in its treasury. What to do with the money is the problem with which the company is wrestling.

MORALS AND THE PRICE OF LAND

FRED EASTMAN
Locust Valley, N. Y.

The proposition is: If the price of land in any rural community be raised without a corresponding rise in the income derived from the land, the morals of the community suffer.

Let the year be 1900. Let the land be any typical agricultural township in the United States. It is valued at an average of $20 an acre, and the typical farm, including, of course, improvements, is worth about $5,000 and yields all told 8 or 10 per cent interest. The population consists of about 200 families of strictly American stock, 90 per cent of whom have resided in the community fifteen years or more. There are five or six one-room schools in the township, and six or seven churches. The average enrollment in the schools is thirty-five; the average membership of the churches sixty.

The social life of the community, while crude, is not sluggish. However conservative in methods of farming and of education, there is yet a spirit of pride and of friendly co-operation. Telephones have not yet been introduced, so there is still a good bit of visiting among families. The roads are so poor that there is little travel on them between town and country, and the recreations of the young people are confined to the neighborhood. These recreations consist of the games at school, a little baseball, an occasional spelling bee and singing school, and fre-

quent log rollings, husking bees and square dances. The old folks share in these sports and have a few of their own besides such as quilting bees and barn raisings. It is worth noting that nearly all these recreations combine work with pleasure and represent a form of co-operation possible only in a stable population among families that have known each other for a considerable length of time.

It is possible for a young man in this community to save enough money to buy a small farm by the time he is twenty-three or twenty-four, or if he has not saved enough he can usually borrow enough to make the purchase. On such prospects a young man can afford to marry. The average age of marriage in this township is nineteen for the woman and twenty-three for the man.

* * *

Now suppose the price of land be doubled without the farmer's income being doubled; that is, double his capital without increasing his interest. Important results follow.

The age of marriage is raised. A young man who can afford to buy land at $20 an acre finds it more difficult to purchase at $40. He will have to save longer, and his girl will have to wait for him, if she marries him at all. Whereas, when land was $20 an acre they might have "set up for themselves" when he was twenty-three and she was nineteen, now they must wait until he is about twenty-five and she twenty-two. In other words, the period between the arrival of their social instincts and their marriage is lengthened. Unless counteracting influences interfere, the consequence of this is a lowering of the moral standards along sexual lines. The percentage of young people who can keep themselves clean when this period is of five years' duration is naturally larger than the percentage who can keep themselves clean when this period is of eight years' duration. This is not to be interpreted as an argument for early marriage. It may be that late marriages are desirable. Doubtless they will be when sex education is more universal, but the statement here is simply that, other things being equal, when late marriages are forced upon young people who have little or no sex training there will be in all probability a smaller number of young people who can keep themselves clean through the extended period between the arrival of their social instincts and their marriage.

Stagnation follows in the whole social life of the community, especially as expressed in its institutions. Raising the price of land without proportionately raising the income derived from it increases the farmer's capital and his taxes but decreases his interest. When this condition prevails the natural tendency of the farmer is to sell, to convert the capital into cash and put it where it will bring a larger interest. When he sells he moves, and when he moves he and his family go out of the country school, the country church and the community life altogether. It makes for a shifting and decreasing rural population which is poor soil for schools and churches and community institutions of any sort.

Not only does the attendance and enrollment or membership of these institutions drop, often to a fraction of their former number, but there is less money to support them. Schools and churches are supported on profits and when the farmer's profits are decreased the prop is taken from his institutions. With the decline of these institutions goes the decline of community spirit, witnessed in the passing of community recreations, community gatherings and community pride. The spelling bees, the singing schools, the husking and quilting bees, the square dances, the log rollings and the barn raisings become things of the past.

"Those healthful sports that graced the peaceful scene,
Lived in each look and brightened all the green,
These far departing seek a kinder shore,
And rural mirth and manners are no more."

Morals do not flourish in such a stagnant environment.

This very thing has taken place in the United States in the last twelve years, and the condition described is the condition prevailing in the average township today. Farm land has increased 108 per cent in price, and the farmer's income has not increased in proportion. The average age of marriage has risen throughout the great majority of our rural districts. Social life is in a stagnant condition. Over a third of our counties show a decrease in their rural population. The enrollment in the average one-room country school is about half what it was ten years ago; the membership of the country churches has been steadily decreasing. The old forms of recreation have passed away.

These facts are not propounded for the benefit of the "pessimists' club." They are not necessarily facts that need be deplored. But they are *facts,* and they are presented here in order to point to certain underlying economic causes of rural transition and decay and to suggest to those of us who are working for the repair of rural life that we tackle the problem at its economic end.

If the farming population is to be a settled population, if it is to hold its young men on the farm, it must be made possible for these young men to procure land of their own at an early age, and the income of the farmer must be made to keep pace with the rise in the price of his land. Either his production must be increased, or the price that he receives for his crops, or both.

The morals of the community demand it.

BOOKS

SAN FRANCISCO RELIEF SURVEY

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION PUBLICATION. Survey Associates, Inc. 510 pp. Price, postpaid of THE SURVEY, $3.50.

The San Francisco Relief Survey contains the results of a study carried on during several years under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation. When the study was undertaken the field was divided under six topics: Organizing the Force and Emergency Methods, Rehabilitation, Business Rehabilitation, Housing Rehabilitation, Relief Work of the Associated Charities (after June, 1907), and Care of the Aged and Infirm. Each of these divisions was placed in the hands of an experienced investigator who had been closely associated with the relief work.

The chief aim of the study was to preserve for the guidance of workers in future disasters, as well as of those daily engaged in administering relief measures, a record of the lessons learned and the results attained in this colossal relief undertaking.

The plan has been well carried out. The volume gives an authentic and illuminating description not only of the relief measures which followed the earthquake of April 18, 1906, and the succeeding conflagration, but of the methods pursued by a force of experts, co-operating with public-spirited citizens, in dealing with the great problem of permanent rehabilitation.

The burned area comprised "the very heart and vitals of the city." The number of buildings destroyed was 28,188, the number of persons made homeless about 200,000. The property loss has been estimated at $500,000,000, of which only $200,000,000 is believed to have been collected from the insurance companies.

The seriousness of the situation following the disaster was enhanced by the comparative isolation of the city and by complete industrial paralysis. Not a mercantile establishment remained open. There was no water; not a pound of beef or a loaf of bread could be bought; no man or woman could earn a cent. At first, haste was essential in securing and distributing supplies and confusion was inevitable. No one knew what funds would be available or what would be needed.

The first attempt at organization was made by the Mayor, Eugene E. Schmitz. Hardly had the conflagration begun when he named a citizen's committee of fifty persons. This committee created a sub-committee, called the Finance Committee, with Ex-Mayor James D. Phelan as chairman, but did little else. With the prompt arrival from New York of Edward T. Devine, all-important unification was sought, and the Finance Committee became the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds, which in co-operation with the United States Army, soon gained a fairly complete control of the relief activities.

The city was divided into seven sections, each in charge of an army officer and a civilian chairman. Orderly distribution of relief thus became possible and the situation was sufficiently mastered to put into effect intelligent devices for reducing the vast numbers dependent on relief giving. The daily rations ranged, April 25 to May 2 (inclusive), from 306,000 to 313,000. By June 23 they or their equivalent at the hot-meal kitchens were reduced to 15,451.

The reawakening of industry and the efforts of each stricken person to solve his own problems should be given first place in this record of achievement. But a prompt, if faulty, registration, distribution of rations, gradually less frequent, the later introduction of hot-meal kitchens which were never popular—in place of the distribution of rations, and the rehabilitation work, were essential factors.

Rehabilitation was proposed May 5, 1906, barely two weeks after the disaster, when chaos seemed likely to continue indefinitely, and became from that time on the all-important interest of the relief workers. Altogether 20,241 families were assisted by the rehabilitation committees. These families probably comprised nearly, if not quite, 100,000 persons. As much as $500 each was given to 647 families. Rehabilitation consisted of free or reduced rate transportation to other communities, gifts or loans of tools, re-establishment in trade, the building of modest houses, and the setting up of respectable people as lodging house keepers.

The giving or loaning of tools enabled thousands of mechanics to resume self-supporting occupations. In re-establishing people in trade or as lodging house keepers a sharp line was drawn between applicants with well-conceived and those with only vague plans. Thus the destitute were spurred to develop intelligent solutions of their problems. On June 1, 1906, about 40,000 persons were living in tents and shacks in the public squares. To house them was a prime necessity. The working out of this problem is described in Part IV of the study.

In 1908, two years after the disaster, 894 of the families who had been aided to start in business were revisited to obtain data on results for the Relief Survey. Of these, 507 were still in business in which they had been started, 66 were employed in similar kinds of business, 65 in other kinds. Of the remaining 256, 29 were known to have died, 31 to have left San Francisco, and 119 were not found.

The taking over of relief work by the Associated Charities in June, 1907, one year after the disaster, when it became possible to place the remaining dependents on a more normal relief basis, was necessarily full of difficulty, but is shown to have been well carried out. While the burden of dependency is shown to have been greater after than before the disaster, judicious use of the relief funds and improvements in organization made better results possible.

An account of the care of the aged and infirm, and of the establishment of a permanent

relief home forms a particularly interesting section of the study.

Certain dangers to efficiency and success, due to interference from persons or organizations not closely in touch with the work, or from those who may be acting from ulterior motives, are well brought out. For about two months after the disaster the work of relief had made extraordinary progress, considering the magnitude of the problem. In June, a commission of three persons was created, to take complete charge. On June 22, to the dismay of the relief givers, the balance of power on this commission was placed in the hands of an untrained politician. The rehabilitation work was skilfully withheld from this commission and on August 1 the commission resigned. At a most critical period (August, 1906) certain eastern funds were withheld because of ill-informed, reckless, and most unfortunate stories circulated with regard to relief work. Moreover, those who controlled these funds never fully grasped the need of unification. The Relief Survey says: "It cannot be too plainly stated that there must be only one relief committee or corporation." Another lesson learned in the rehabilitation work was that the central committee should insist on its own standards of investigation and not accept as final the recommendations of clergymen and outside societies, however respectable.

Prior to June 1, 1909, the cash contributions sent to the central relief-giving body amounted to $9,116,944.11. In addition, large sums were sent to other agencies and to individuals. An appropriation of $2,500,000 was made by Congress. Notwithstanding the sensational stories spread in the East of the maladministration of the relief funds, both the local auditors and the auditor of the War Department found that the funds had been scrupulously and successfully guarded.

The relief of San Francisco was a monumental achievement. In spite of the suddenness of the almost overwhelming catastrophe, one problem after another was mastered. The plans devised and put into effect should serve as an object lesson, if and when other similar disasters occur.

JOHN F. MOORS.

ARTIFICIAL FLOWER MAKERS

By MARY VAN KLEECK. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Survey Associates, Inc. 280 pp. Price, postpaid of THE SURVEY, $1.50.

"It's the American way . . . we have to produce fast." Artificial Flower Makers, by Mary Van Kleeck, is not merely a local trade document. It is primarily a study of the "American way," which permits the transformation of a handicraft capable of the most artistic possibilities, into a process as mechanical as finishing buttonholes or punching eyelets in shoes. The Committee on Women's Work of the Russell Sage Foundation selected the artificial flower trade for intensive study, not only because three-quarters of all artificial flowers made in the United States are produced in New York City, but because this trade is "a concrete illustration of large industrial problems—seasonal work, child labor, lack of skill, the home work system—which are common to many occupations in many communities."

With a vision of the larger significance and constructive value of investigation, Miss Van Kleeck constantly emphasizes the fact that a study of the welfare of workers in flower shops is necessarily a study of the very life and future of the industry. On the one hand, she considers the personal histories and home surroundings both of women employed inside flower factories and of women engaged in making flowers at home. On the other hand, she presents evidence of irregular employment in the flower trade, of frequent overtime, of inadequate payment, of haphazard methods of training, of the demoralizing effects of home work. Her analysis of the interaction between the low standard of living of the workers and the low industrial standards in the trade leads to the conclusion that "The exploitation of the unskilled, whether they may be children or their mothers or their grandmothers, means bad workmanship, and bad workmanship will inevitably undermine the prosperity of the industry."

Facts about the artificial flower trade in Paris secured at first hand by an assistant worker, while not conclusive, are important and illuminating by way of comparison with conditions in New York.

The impression of photographic accuracy which this book leaves with the reader is proof of the thoroughness and precision with which the investigation was conducted. No sensational high-lights blur the report with unfairness and "muckraking," yet no detail is left undeveloped. Whereas Miss Van Kleeck has not presented as minute and technical a program of reconstruction as she has recently for the better organized trade of bookbinding, she submits a general outline for the more effective control of the artificial flower trade. Especially does she urge the prohibition of home work, the factor which she considers most responsible for the chaos in the trade. The chief value of Artificial Flower Makers is, however, its value as a "scientifically determined basis of fact" essential for establishing better conditions not only in the artificial flower industry but in every industry where the standards of American workmanship are being lowered to flood the market with cheap and shoddy products.

MARY L. CHAMBERLAIN.

TRADES FOR FACTORY WORKERS

TRADES FOR INDUSTRIAL ART WORKERS

Brief outlines of inquiries made by the Alliance Employment Bureau, 107 East 17th Street, New York city. Price, paper 25 cents and 15 cents respectively.

In these small pamphlets we find discussions of the following trades: Sample card mounting, perfumery making, paper box making, candy making, case making for jewelry and silverware, air brush work, novelty painting and costume illustration. The mental and physical requirements for the processes of each trade; the hours, the wages, the seasons, the factory conditions, the nationality of the workers and the future possibilities are briefly considered.

The trade offering the most remunerative future, as we should expect, also requires the great-

est natural ability and special training. This is costume illustrating. Workers may earn $35 a week and also may establish themselves in business with comparatively little outlay.

Candy and paper boxes offer the least promising outlooks. Eleven dollars is the maximum wage in each. Candy making as a permanent trade is condemned. The short seasons, the overtime and the poor pay often start girls on the road as "floaters." Regarding paper boxes, the summary on that subject may be quoted: "Girls starting at $4 to $4.50 can reach a maximum of $10 to $11 in one and one-half to two years. The normal hours are good, and in busy season the overtime is not as a rule excessive. There are many girls of good grade found in the trade."

The pamphlets will assist those who are interested in helping young people to select wisely a life work. The information does not claim to be scientific or complete, but enough facts are presented to act as sign posts indicating the direction for further investigation.

Only eight of the 200 or more trades open to women in New York city are considered. This is a mere beginning. It is gratifyng to have such an organization as the Alliance Employment Bureau give the public the advantage of the mass of information their work places at their command. ANNA M. RICHARDSON.

WOMAN'S SHARE IN SOCIAL CULTURE

By ANNA GARLIN SPENCER. Mitchell Kennerley. 342 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.09

A book that lives up to its title and is written by an author peculiarly well-fitted to discuss the subject is naturally full of promise. Mrs. Spencer does not disappoint us in Woman's Share in Social Culture. Her career as an ethical and social writer and worker has been supplemented by a rich personal experience which, coming to some rare women now, is prophetic of the democracy of the future. It seems as if her book ought to be almost the final word in the argument from analogy. She proves so overwhelmingly the absurdity of the obstacles that have been removed that it seems impossible for the open mind to yield to the same kind of obstacles in the future.

The incredible difficulty which women met in entering those branches of the medical profession which ought always to have been theirs Mrs. Spencer presents dramatically. The *New York Tribune* in an editorial printed in 1853 said: "Fifty years hence it will be difficult to gain credit for the assertion that American women acquiesced through the former half of the nineteenth century in the complete monopoly of the medical profession by men, even including midwifery and diseases of women."

In 1859, the Medical Society of the County of Philadelphia passed "resolutions of excommunication" against every physician who should "teach in a medical school for women" and every one who should "consult with a woman physician or with a man teaching a woman medical student."

Mrs. Spencer shows that the same difficulties have confronted women in the trades as in the professions. They have been robbed of their historic occupations and they have been excluded as long as possible from new avenues. They have always had marriage and housekeeping in competition with wage-earning occupations, and then have been criticised for their incompetency.

An admirable chapter, Social Use of the Post Graduate Mother, tells of the woman in "her second youth" in a much more hopeful and stimulating way than The Dangerous Age. Tending always to relate the activities of the two sexes, Mrs. Spencer is especially illuminating in the Problems of Marriage and Divorce. "There is no power that can make, through the law, a dead relationship live again. There is no possible miracle by which statutes can make love out of hatred, happiness out of misery, faith out of distrust, a home out of a prison from which a man and woman long only to escape. Nor can any law forbidding either separation or divorce make that a suitable place in which to bring up children which has become not a home, but such a prison. The state, however, when it assumes its rightful and needed control of marriage and family life, will make the children's welfare a chief consideration in settling vexed questions of giving or refusing divorce."

The place which woman has held in the face of difficulties that man has never had to surmount, naturally warrants Mrs. Spencer in claiming a function for her in the state. What woman has done from the historic period in voluntary organizations is now being gradually taken over by the state. What will happen if woman is discharged? Surely what has happened when man undertakes those things that are essentially not masculine.

The most conspicuous quality exhibited in Mrs. Spencer's book is sanity. When that employs the twentieth-century, synthetic method, what more can be desired? CHARLES ZUEBLIN.

THE OLD FASHIONED WOMAN

By ELSIE CLEWS PARSONS. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 373 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.66.

In The Old Fashioned Woman Mrs. Parsons has made an important ethnographic contribution to the literature on woman. She presents a survey of the quaint notions entertained by primitive as well as more advanced people in regard to sex customs, privileges and inhibitions which differentiated women and made them a distinct social class, "the very special object of society's interest."

The fact that these primitive fancies, through their modified survival, still affect women in the social, industrial and political world, is as interesting as it is significant. The characteristic segregation of woman at her critical periods still survives. The old maid, who was "unknown to savagery and not suffered in early civilization," is now a "fleeting phenomenon." Today it is the married woman who is set apart and "protected." "She is forced either into idleness or into fictitious jobs by the pride of her family or by the nature of our economic organization, there being no place in it, outside of depressed industries, for a half-time worker."

There is an interesting chapter on the changes in civilization in the ideas of marital unity. "Indeed, since the rise of our 'new woman,' marital representativeness has come to be so beset with dangers that some day husbands are likely to disown it in toto."

Very illuminating in view of the present agitation for health certificates as prerequisites to marriage, accompanied by our lack of penalization for communicating barrenness-causing disease, is the suggestion that the modern attitude may be a survival of "the insignificance of physical paternity in the proprietary family." "Is it asking too much to suggest that the rational regulation of child-bearing be no longer accounted a crime, and that society at large welcome the women engaged in 'doing their duty' by it—instead of ostracising them?"

Very persistent, too, is the notion that a girl works only because "she has to." "Even in organizations for the unemployed, insurance against worklessness is sometimes not open to women."

Both feminism and anti-feminism had their rise in primitive society. The fear of woman and her competition were early recognized in the church. She was excluded by the theologians from their cults, as today she is excluded from certain university courses, clubs and secret societies. To hold her interest and devotion, without making her independent, has always been for man a nice question.

Mrs. Parsons is well qualified, by reason of her experience and training as a college instructor and student in sociology, to interpret modern woman in terms of her primitive ancestor. Her extensive travels, social experience and authorship lend piquant illustration to the grace of her style. The extensive bibliography will be welcomed by the student and social worker.

The book is an effective plea for the modern recognition of women as individuals and not as members of a class, and is especially interesting by reason of the humor and broad sympathy of the author.

ELSA HERZFELD NAUMBURG.

SCHOOL FEEDING—ITS HISTORY AND PRACTICE AT HOME AND ABROAD

By LOUISE STEVENS BRYANT. J. B. Lippincott. 345 pp. Price, $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.62.

Although school feeding began in Europe over a century ago and has been growing fast in America in the last ten years, accurate information on the status of the subject has been difficult to obtain. Mrs. Bryant's comprehensive treatise comes as a welcome addition to our literature on the feeding of children. Up to the time of its publication, data regarding the history of the school feeding movement were buried in special reports of committees and commissions, some private and some public, or in desultory articles in many kinds of journals, educational, scientific and popular. Mrs. Bryant has thoroughly sifted this material, personally investigated conditions in this and foreign countries, and made a comprehensive survey of the origin, methods of administration, and practical results of school meals in England, Germany, France, and other European countries, as well as in the United States. The book is well illustrated by charts and photographs, and is supplemented by a chapter on meals in open-air schools in various places.

A review of the investigations of underfeeding among American school children is given, presenting the causes and results of malnutrition, the food requirements of children, and samples of suitable menus from both nutritional and economic aspects. This part, written by one not a specialist in nutrition, bears evidence of the discriminating methods which the author has used in all her work. On this particular problem she collected and had analyzed children's lunches and personally visited and talked to authorities. The daily food needs of the average child are stated in terms of various medical experts connected with the movement in different countries, and the consensus of opinion clearly stated. We should like to have seen protein included among the energy suppliers, and the ash constituents more clearly shown to be essential to "tissue" building; but protein requirement is rationally indicated and the standards for energy are such as one can approve. It would have been a satisfaction to know how to locate a little more definitely some of the authorities quoted, Dr. Airy, Dr. Erisman, Crowley, and others.

By no means the least valuable portions of this work are the annotated bibliography and appendices. The latter include the English Provision of Meals Act, Regulations for School Breakfasts in Stuttgart, menus for school dinners in Bradford, England, and dietaries for children in which the penny lunch is made a part of the ration. To any one entrusted with the planning of school lunches the book will be most suggestive and to all concerned with nutritive problems it will prove interesting reading.

MARY SWARTZ ROSE.

THE FARMER OF TOMORROW

By FREDERIC IRVING ANDERSON. The Macmillan Co. 308 pp. Price, $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.62.

NEW IDEALS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

By GEORGE HERBERT BETTS, Ph.D. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 127 pp. Price $.60; by mail of THE SURVEY, $.66.

MAKING THE FARM PAY

By C. C. BOWSFIELD. Forbes & Co. 300 pp. Price, $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.15.

Frederic Irving Anderson's The Farmer of Tomorrow might have been called An Empire in the Making. It should be read by every one who enjoys being carried along on a tide of big ideas, significant facts, and fascinating, scientific truths, without having to think! What it is all about is told below in paragraphs quoted from the author's preface; but the manner of the telling in the book itself cannot be described. Read it. Whether you are interested in the farmer or not; read it. At least you are interested in empires, and this book is a book about an empire—and the foundation upon which it is building.

The book performs the invaluable service of telling what the scientists in the Department of Agriculture are dong and have done; and, whether you accept their conclusions or those

of most all other doctors of the soil, the ideas are no less stimulating. To the student of rural problems one vital fact survives,—the fact that intensive and extensive agriculture are not two methods competing for supremacy the country over, but are, as far as ultimate methods are concerned, predetermined by the nature of the soil and climate in each locality. As the agencies for building the new rural civilization must forever differ for wide-living and closely settled communities, the pioneers in rural development must ever and always make sure whether intensive or extensive agriculture is the future of the locality under study before plotting its chart in the new civilization.

"The author has sought to bring together in one volume a popular consideration of the two fundamental factors affecting the business of farming; first, the floor space of the American farmer in terms of land, and, second, the resources of the land itself, in terms of soil fertility. The inter-relation of these two factors must determine eventually the type of farming of any community.

"Where shall I locate my plant? is the prime question the man who goes back to the land today must ask himself. Free land is gone; the rich homesteads of a decade or two ago, to be had for the asking, have forever passed into history. Yet there are opportunities for the business farmers of today undreamed of by their ancestors of a generation or two ago to whom land was nothing but a means of labor. Less than one-half of the nine hundred million acres in the hands of the farmers is improved; nearly two-thirds of this land nominally in farms has not yet been called on to produce food. There are swamps to be drained, cut-over forests to be cleared, deserts to be watered and dry lands to be made productive by specialized crops and methods. Without increasing the efficiency of its improved acres, the nation still possesses enough resources in terms of land alone to feed double the population that exists today. It has been the author's endeavor to chart this empire of opportunity that awaits the gleaner in the period of reclamation which is now setting toward flood tide."

* * *

The problem of the rural school is fairly simple to state, but Professor Betts in his New Ideals in Rural Schools, has stated it with unusual insight, clearness, and completeness. Education, he says "must relate itself immediately and concretely to the business of living," furnishing the student with the "particular knowledge required for the life he is to live," shaping his "attitude, so that he will confront his part of the world's work or its play in the right spirit," and giving him "training in technique or the skill required in his different activities." This is the general problem of all schools. The particular problem of the rural school Professor Betts declares to be understandable only as the rural community is understood. That the writer understands the rural community is fully shown in the subsequent pages in which he describes the conditions and problems in rural communities.

Improved educational facilities, better adapted to farm life, and greater opportunity, more time, and added means for *recreation*, he finds the points of attack most clearly indicated. In turning to the part that the rural school can play in this attack, the author shows the great possibilities for social and recreational ends in the use of the school as the social center of the community. In this connection, however, and in connection with better educational equipment and a richer curriculum, it is not in the "little red school house" that the author places his hopes, but in the consolidated school. Here better grading and organization can be realized, with well trained, well paid teachers; the curriculum can be extended to include civics, nature study, health and hygiene, agriculture, domestic science and normal training, music and art, physical training and athletics; and recreation for young and old can be provided for.

The chapter on curriculum will interest principals and teachers, and the chapter on teaching, teachers and trustees. To the consolidated school, again, Professor Betts looks for the real solution to efficient supervision, where the principal of the school can give the constant oversight necessary, and where the county superintendent can be to the principal what the superintendent of city schools is to the local principals.

New Ideals in Rural Schools is a valuable book for students of education, and of rural problems, and for principals, or superintendents of rural schools—local, county, or state. It is inspiring in its breadth, and scientific in its orderly presentation. It does not seem, however, quite to meet the intention of the editor, as far as being a book for parents and teachers is concerned. A better book for such, as for other rural laymen looking for inspiring guidance, is Mabel Carney's Country Life and the Country School.

* * *

Although Making the Farm Pay is a book written for farmers and is for the most part technical, it includes two chapters suggestive to the student of rural life: one on How to Go Back to the Land, in which it is suggested that the city man make his first experiment by living on a small suburban farm while still holding his city job; and the other, Profit Sharing with Fruit and Vegetables wherein the admirable suggestion is made to give the boys and girls as they grow up a share in the profits in the crops which they help to produce, as a means of obtaining their interest in the farm and farm life. The author tells of one instance where an old orchard of about twenty apple trees was extended until it occupied four acres, to which was added an acre of strawberries and raspberries. The head of the house gets his share for furnishing the land and the money required to buy the young trees; and the two sons, wife, and daughter, receive equal shares for the labor which they have put into it, —last year each of the five received $300.

John R. Howard, Jr.

TREND



LITTLE MOTHER

ELLA A. FANNING in *New York Times*

Hans and Liz said I told lies
  This mornin', while my baby slep',
An' I wuz tryin' to keep them still
  While we played jackstones on my step.

I said one year—'twas country week—
  A woman took some girls an' me
'Way, 'way off—to the grandest place,
  Where flowers an' berries all wuz free!

An' to a house with twenty rooms,
  Where just one man an' woman stayed.
I had a bedroom all myself,
  An' never wuz one bit afraid.

Hans said there wasn't no such thing,
  'Cause in a bedroom there must be
Your father, mother, an' the kids;
  An' then some boarders, two or three.

An' nights when it got orful hot
  You slept out on the roof, or walk,
Or fire-escape. But Hans don't know!
  I scorns them vulgar children's talk!

Oo-o! Don't I wish some country folks
  With twenty rooms had one to spare
For such a little girl like me,
  With ol' plaid dress, an' yaller hair!

LONDON'S Tea Shop Girls are the subject of a study by Barbara Drake in a recent issue of the *Women's Industrial News*. Though the study of the employes in these peculiar and unique eating houses of London which most nearly correspond to our "dairy lunches" does not give the number investigated and has no pretensions to being scientific, it brings out some interesting facts.

Wages appear never to rise above £1 a week, a high net average being 15 shillings, a commoner average 12 shillings. The word net is used on account of a deduction of one-sixth in all establishments for the midday meal as well as deductions in many cases for breakage, aprons, laundry, etc. In most cases a small fixed wage is paid, the balance being made up in commissions or tips or both, says Miss Drake:

> The length of the tea-shop day varies considerably in different establishments. With some of the smaller firms the number of hours worked during the week is eighty or more, while in other tea-rooms, notably those connected with shopping establishments or stores, the hours are not more than forty-five to fifty. With the big companies the regular hours are as a rule from fifty-five to sixty, and a ten hour shift tends to be the nominal length of the working day. In practice, however, this works out more nearly to ten and a half, eleven or even twelve hours, as the waitress seldom leaves her work within half an hour, or an hour, of the time when she is supposed to be free. A common plan is for the girls to arrive in the morning in two or more separate batches, and to depart accordingly at night. For instance, in one busy depot of a great firm, the girls arrive at eight a. m., nine a. m., ten a. m., eleven a. m., and depart at six p. m., seven p. m., eight p. m., nine p. m., and ten p. m. But over and above the normal day there is the constant overtime, which is seldom, if ever, paid for by the firm.

The tea shop week is five and a half days, the half day off being taken on different days in different weeks.

The London tea shop girl would appear to be less subject to temptation than the girls in our New York restaurants, though the report believes that temptation at no time is altogether absent. Three or four girls, out of every staff of twelve or fourteen, that is to say some 25 per cent, are said to be taken out or otherwise treated by customers. Says Miss Drake:

> "The taxi drive, the dinner at the restaurant, the excitement of the theatre, sweet flatteries and pretty things, after a long day in the tea-shop, the delights of the evening out, are almost irresistible. For many couples the proceeding is innocent enough. With the young man, the clerk or shop-assistant little or nothing removed from the class of the waitress herself, marriage is the not infrequent result. It is the older man, the married man, the so-called "gentleman" of another class, who is said to be responsible for the dark places of a waitress's career. Nevertheless, comparatively few girls come to grief altogether. The waitress is little known to the rescue worker. Her trade requires her to be a girl of *savoir faire*, and quick parts; and she is able as a rule to take care of herself. Perhaps also the variety of her life is in some ways a safety-valve, which renders her less prone to the grosser forms of vice than were her lot cast in the depressing monotony of the factory, or in loneliness and repression as a general servant. Nor is a waitress exposed in the same way as a young shop assistant to the persecutions of a vicious foreman or manager. She has the inestimable privilege to work under the immediate supervision of another woman.

COMMUNICATIONS

SING SING

To the Editor:

Fortunately, I live in New Jersey. How any one living in New York can read the reports on Sing Sing prison and sleep I cannot see. Is there not a State Prison Commission—a voluntary, semi-official body? Sing Sing is only an hour from New York. Mr. Connoughton is polite, willing, open-minded. Where are the clergy, the "good people?" And do they read Matthew xxv? J. D. Holmes.

New York.

"UNEARNED INCREMENT"

To the Editor:

I have read with much interest the moderate letter of Dr. A. L. Benedict in your issue of April 22 relative to the increase in value of city real estate. It seems to me unfortunate that the public should have gotten into its mind the idea that there is a vast "unearned increment" connected with the ownership of real estate. The word "unearned" suggests that those who profit by it receive what does not of right belong to them, to the detriment of others.

The fact is that anyone who has any money has the option of purchasing real estate and of profiting by the increase in value, if there is any. The hazards of the business are not materially different from the hazards of any other business, and the chances of extraordinary success are quite as small as they are in any other business.

To the inexperienced, the sight of large areas of land lying idle through a period of years suggests the thought that selfish speculators are holding the land out of use. As a matter of fact, it has not yet become available for suitable improvement. Again and again we have seen owners and builders on the verge of bankruptcy from over-building. The reason of the overcrowding has been such that the building of new houses in the vacant areas would not have relieved it. An area destined to be built up with $25 apartments, if prematurely built upon, would simply overstock the market for that grade of apartments without helping those who could only pay $15 a month.

It is surprising to those who have not figured it out that unoccupied land, when it is finally sold for building, does not represent much more in the final sale than the original cost with savings bank interest added during the intervening period. And yet, at intervals the assessed value of the land has been marked up and those unacquainted with real estate matters note the "unearned increment," conveniently forgetting the loss of interest on the investment and the taxes and assessments of many years which may easily represent substantially the whole of the increase. To them it is all unearned increment.

There is in fact no evil which needs remedying and the only equitable way of changing the manner of real estate holding is to enact such laws as shall have their effect spread gradually over a series of years, so that the public may adjust itself anew, without the practical confiscation of the profits which have been fairly earned in the real estate field.

Charles E. Manierre.

New York.

WEST VIRGINIA COAL STRIKE

To the Editor:

In reference to letters published on pages 225 and 226 of your issue of May 10 in regard to the West Virginia Coal Strike, I wish to say that if Mr. Shaw lived in West Virginia four years and still has the heart to say a word in defense of the Cabin Creek or Paint Creek employers in this present controversy with labor, it stamps him to my mind, at least, as being a sympathizer with the most heartless and brutal exploitation of labor to be found in America.

Harold E. West of the *Baltimore Sun* has in his report doubtless understated things rather than overstated them. I am particularly interested in this controversy because I have been through the territory myself.

I have investigated every coal field in America east of the Rocky Mountains, and the West Virginia camps are the only ones where I was prohibited by the company from having access to their men in times of peace. At Glen Jean it was necessary for me to have an escort of farmers to give me protection while I went into the segregated precincts of the coal company, and instead of the employes being treated like civilized white men, I found that they were treated like enslaved savages.

Whether or not you care to run this in The Survey, I will take occasion to make my language about as strong as I feel in regard to West Virginia. None of the constitutional rights are even considered so far as the miners are concerned, and those who speak in defense of the miner are compelled to take the same chance that Patrick Henry and Ethan Allen took in their day.

The coal exploitation companies have reduced the miners to desperate conditions and then they ask us to look at the class of people they employ. West Virginia coal lands have been surreptitiously acquired, it is reported, by those who claim to have been in the employ of the Standard Oil Company. To protect their interests they have completely debauched every institution in the state.

The former editor of the *Wheeling Register* told me when I met him in Kansas some time ago that he had in his official capacity learned of the intention of the managers of affairs in West Virginia to put me out of the way for daring to invade the state and that how I escaped with my life was a conundrum to him.

In the past the only person that could get to the miners to help to organize them was old Mother Jones, and she escaped death purely on account of her sex. Whatever the miners do now in reprisal will be simply the culmination of long years of tyranny.

Kentucky has been called the dark and bloody ground. That is a mistake, that appellation belongs to West Virginia since its coal mines have been opened to the world. F. P. O'HARE.

St. Louis.

THE BELGIAN STRIKE

TO THE EDITOR:

Having presented the Socialist side of the Belgian strike by giving space to W. E. Walling, "a member of the radical wing of the Socialist Party," you will, I suppose, in justice to your readers, readily accept the "other side" of the event. One might express his astonishment that a journal of constructive philanthropy, evidently sailing under Christian colors, should endorse[1] the utterances of one who stands for social revolution and the antithesis of its program as indicated in excellent social survey work.

Suffice it to point out a few main facts. The real object of the recent general strike in Belgium was not so much the reform of the franchise system as the *fettering* of the Catholic church through an overthrow of the party now in power. Says a Liberal sheet, the *Petit Bleu* "If the strike fails, it will mean the consecration the *mort main* or dead hand of the bishops on property; a fastening of religious teaching on the schools; and a clericalization of the magistracy and the army."

To all appearances the strike was in reality a fizzle. At the last election the main issues before the country were the final settlement of the education question and the reform of the franchise. With an increased majority the Catholic Party, which has made Belgium the most prosperous of countries, was returned to power. This angered the outvoted Socialists to such an extent that they determined to appeal to forces outside the constitution. If the workers of Belgium had been agreed in a wish to get rid of the government they elected a few months before, the general strike would certainly have given them the most effective weapon. But they were not agreed. In battalions the Christian union men had voted for the successful candidates. They had voted for educational equality and for the right of parents to chose what school their child should attend. They had settled that at the polls.

In this country as well as in England, there is a prejudice against plural voting. Belgium enjoys universal manhood suffrage. But in addition its franchise system grants additional votes to men with legitimate issue and some property and to those having a certain degree of education. While it may be objected that money and property are made qualifications, we ought in justice concede that men having an interest in the welfare of their country justly deserve more electoral privileges and power than does the tramp and loafer who has just as much to say in this country as a man of President Wilson's abilities. Moreover, we do not give a minority party its just representation in Congress. If the Progressives and Republicans enjoyed the same rights as do the Belgian Liberals and Socialists, they would control Congress. Their combined vote greatly exceeded that of the Democrats.

Nor can it be argued that the Catholic Party in Belgium remains in power in virtue of the plural system. The political divisions which cut Belgian society, says the London *Tablet* for April 19, are not horizontal, but vertical. "The Catholic party represents all classes, and all sorts and conditions of men, and would be nowhere but for the disciplined and enthusiastic support it has received at election after election from the toilers and the wage-earners, and the peasant owners of the fields."

Hence, the decision of the Belgian Socialist Congress, stampeded by Anseele and other radical leaders against the protests of Vandervelde, their greatest leader, to call a strike, although the party committee had feared to take this step, was merely a leap into the dark. Last year and again in March, 1913, the government had declared its willingness to consider the franchise reform problem at the proper time. According to even the Associated Press reports that, and nothing else, is what the Belgian Socialists were promised once more after the general strike of April. That American editors interpreted this as a victory unparallelled in history, does not change matters and only reveals their lack of information and judgment when it comes to European events of this kind and the amazing extent to which they are enslaved by the Judeo-Masonic cable service.

ANTHONY J. BECK.

Dubuque, Ia.

[1]Also in "justice to our readers" we shall continue to publish the writings of those who may or may not agree with the editors of THE SURVEY without necessarily either endorsing or condemning what they write. The Belgian strike was reviewed from two distinct angles. This communication adds a third view, certain phases of which we should certainly hesitate to endorse.—Ed.

"OUTSIDE ORGANIZERS"

TO THE EDITOR:

Mr. Fitch's recent article on the labor disturbance in Paterson quotes business and professional people as saying that "outside agitators" had no right to come to their town, meaning, of course, that if the silk workers had grievances, local leaders and committees were the proper persons to organize them and to treat with the employers.

A few months ago Rochester, largely a non-union city, awoke from its dreams to find that ten thousand garment workers had organized and gone on strike, the last straw in accumulating dissatisfaction being the discovery that they were working on goods from the New York factories where their fellow-workmen were striking for better conditions. Ladies in parlors, business men on the street, professional people in offices, all with one accord made a great moan, "if it weren't for these outside organizers of the A. F. of L., who come in and make the trouble, there would still be peace in our town."

A few weeks after the strike was over and settled advantageously for the workers, a great campaign was instituted in Rochester, to raise

$750,000, for a new Y. M. C. A. Firms which had just declared they could not pay better wages donated thousands of dollars. The campaign, lasting ten days, was highly dramatic. At luncheon in the ball-room of one of our largest hotels the workers met every noon (undisturbed by the police), the balcony always filled with ladies, all listening eagerly for the announcement of additional sums. About $12,000 more was raised than the mark set. At the end of the campaign, everyone smiling and congratulatory, ladies in parlors, business men on the street, and professional people in offices exclaimed approvingly to each other, "Weren't those organizers great! Without them we never could have gotten the money!"

The whole undertaking had been under the direction of out-of-town leaders imported for this especial purpose.

As Mr. Fitch quotes from a candid Paterson business man, "It makes a difference on which foot the shoe is."

FLORENCE CROSS KITCHELT.

Rochester.

A FEMINIST THEORY ATTACKED

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of May 10 there is an interesting letter advocating the employment of mothers as teachers, the wisdom of which is unquestionable. But toward the close of the letter a further interest develops because of the psychology revealed in one phrase the writer uses. In this phrase her speech betrayeth her. The few words to which I refer indicate certain facts about this lady: 1. She is still in single blessedness. 2. She is a feminist, though not a perfect follower of the ablest apostle of feminism. The words are these: "Mothers have become the parasites of society."

Now Worcester defines a parasite as "a plant which grows upon the living parts of other plants, from the juices of which it derives its nutriment," or "an animal which lives upon the bodies of other animals." Biologically considered, therefore, it would appear difficult to class mothers as parasites—the word would seem better to describe the babies, would it not? Indeed, mothers would seem to be the only people in the world who never could be parasites. The one job which cannot be let out in palace as well as hovel is the job which makes a woman into a mother—no one can bear our children for us! And no woman who has borne the pain and perils of childbirth, no woman who has taught her little children at her knee, no woman who has seen them go out into life in their manhood and their womanhood to make this earth a better place to live in, can in her most modest moments feel herself wholly a parasite.

The application of the term to those women who do not go out of their homes to earn their daily bread is characteristic of the loose thinking of the day, if indeed it can be called thinking at all. Is the one who bears the children, tends the baby, gets the older ones ready for school, cooks the dinner, washes the family clothing and finally, as the old conundrum puts it, resembles the devil by sewing (sowing) tears (tares) while the husbandman sleeps, is this person a parasite? "Mein Gott, wat a seestem" there must be in the work of these spinster ladies if mothers can by them be considered parasites! Heaven grant us freedom from the cares of spinsterhood!

MRS. WILLIAM LOWELL PUTNAM.

Boston.

NEW YORK LABEL SHOP MOVES

TO THE EDITOR:

The Label Shop, founded two years ago at 8 West 28th street, New York city, was an answer to an almost universal question, raised by the stories told by the Consumers' League, of underpay and sweatshop conditions in the manufacturing of even the most expensive clothing. Speakers were asked where to buy Consumers' League label underwear or Trade Union Label garments. It was practically impossible to find a store which would willingly sell label goods. Many attempts, more or less sporadic, were made to create a demand by inquiring at various stores for label goods. Then a show case was installed in the rooms of the Women's Trade Union League where orders were filled.

No really effective step could be taken, however, without capital, and two years ago Carola Woerishoefer made possible the formation of a stock company and the opening of the tiny shop in West 28th Street. Members of the Consumers' League, Women's Trade Union League, collegiate alumnae and others subscribed to the stock and from the start the shop has had a not unsuccessful career. At the end of the last fiscal year a small dividend was declared.

Recently, to keep pace with the upward trend of business along Fifth avenue, the shop has moved to 14 East 37th Street. Several departments have been added since the first small beginning. There are now, besides simple tub dresses, quite elaborate afternoon and evening gowns, all with the Trade Union Label, and a department of hand embroidered lingerie, bearing the French Consumers' League Label. These are made in a Parisian co-operative factory *L' Entr' Aide,* in large well-ventilated and well-lighted rooms. The prices of these articles are about the same as that of French lingerie in the department stores, and there is advantage in knowing that here one does not encourage underpay, unsanitary conditions, nor run the danger of getting disease germs with the garment!

Now that it is easy to purchase label goods, it remains for the public to show that there exists a real desire to buy only where good conditions are guaranteed. An opportunity is thus offered to the shoppers of New York to show their sympathy and interest in an eminently practical and effective way.

ALICE P. GANNETT.

New York.

JOTTINGS

BOYS TO EARN WAY AROUND WORLD

Early in May a company of boys sailed from Boston on the Arabic bound around the world. They will represent the picked all-round boys of a dozen American cities, every lad a musician, an athlete and a gentleman. They are planning to earn their own way by band concerts, athletic entertainments and dramatic portrayals of American boy life.

Major Sidney S. Peixotto is in charge of the expedition, and his Columbia Park Boys Club of San Francisco has furnished the nucleus of the tour. The average age of the boys is sixteen years. They will be gone for a year, traveling by way of England, France, Italy, Australia, China and Japan. The purposes of the trip are to afford the boys an opportunity for practical education, to demonstrate the possibilities of training in artistic lines for the average boy and to exhibit what American boyhood can be and do. In former years Major Peixotto has conducted elaborate tramping tours for his boys through California and a nine months' trip through Australia. But the venturesomeness of this present extended tour surpasses anything hitherto attempted by boys' clubs.

"A LIVING MUSEUM" FOR CHILDREN

A suggestion of the human service our government may render was put forth by Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the Federal Children's Bureau at a meeting of the Monday Evening Club in Washington recently. Her idea is that we should establish a "children's Smithsonian museum—some living museum," she explained, "some palace for the youth of our land, in which should be installed, not only in historical array the story of the life of the various types of children in the world, the Indian and the Eskimo, but where there should be set forth the best knowledge of the world about the care of children . . . about recreation for children, about employment for children."

EDUCATION OF THE IMMIGRANT

At the Conference on the Education of the Immigrant, called by the North American Civic League for Immigrants in New York May 16-17, domestic education proved to be a subject which brought together an interested audience. The fundamental idea was said to be to teach women how to make the most of their own resources. The attitude of the families visited by the domestic educator, it appeared, varies from that of the home in Buffalo where she is welcome because "she knows how to manage fits," to that of the one in New York where a mother not used to a definite plan wrote at the bottom of her budget "If I thought of everything, my health wouldn't stand it."

MINNEAPOLIS TO FLAG CONFERENCE SPECIAL

The Social Service Club of Minneapolis extends an invitation to eastern pilgrims on their way to the National Conference of Charities and Corrections in Seattle to tarry a while in Minneapolis. It is announced that:

"A committee on entertainment has been appointed. This committee promises to have sufficient automobiles to give the whole train a ride, including the firemen and engineer. We will give you a glimpse of our beautiful boulevards and lakes, a reception at one of our finest country clubs, Minnikada, and an opportunity to take a dip at the finest inland bathing beach in the world, Lake Calhoun."



TO REPRESENT AMERICAN BOY LIFE ON A TRIP AROUND THE WORLD.
Columbia Park Boys' Band, Major S. S. Peixotto, leader, San Francisco, the nucleus of the boy travelers.

OLD AGE PENSION BILL IN CONGRESS

An old-age pension bill has been introduced into the House by Representative Kelly of Pennsylvania as one of the program of measures proposed by the Progressive Party. The bill provides for pensioning persons above the age of sixty-five whose income for the twelve months preceding application for a pension shall not have exceeded an average of $6 a week. The amount of the proposed pension varies from one dollar to four dollars a week.

PROBATION CONFERENCE AT BUFFALO

Instead of meeting as usual with the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the National Probation Association this year will hold its annual conference at Buffalo, August 26-28, with the International Congress on School Hygiene.

A special symposium on probation and juvenile court work will also be held in Seattle during the week of the National Conference of Charities, which meets there July 5-12. The symposium will be presided over by Dr. Lilburn Merrill, director of diagnosis in the Seattle Juvenile Court.

Those attending the Buffalo and Seattle meetings can avail themselves of the reduced railroad rates granted to the Congress on School Hygiene and the National Conference of Charities respectively.

INTERNATIONAL HYGIENE EXPOSITION

Information comes from Consul General James A. Smith, Genoa, Italy, that pamphlets in English relating to the International Hygiene and Marine Exposition to be held in Genoa in March, 1914, and containing rules and regulations for exhibitors as well as programs of the exhibits, have been placed on file with the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., where they may be obtained on application.

PROBATION IN MASSACHUSETTS

Evidence of the increased use of probation in Massachusetts is contained in the Fourth Annual Report of the Commission on Probation of that state. The number of persons placed on parole in 1912 was 17,538 or 1,651 more than in 1911. Probation officers last year collected $136,511.85 which exceeds the figure for the preceeding twelve months by over $50,000. Of this increase $36,247.77 was in non-support cases. The total sum collected in the seventy-one courts exceeds the cost of the probation system by more than $20,000.

It would seem, however, that there is a lack of standardization in the issuance of probation orders. The number of cases put on probation in different courts varies in nine municipal courts from 3.6 per cent of the total cases tried to 20.9 per cent; in the thirteen police courts from 3.9 per cent to 36.4 per cent; and in the forty-seven District Courts from 1.9 per cent to 32.5 per cent.

'DON'TS" FOR ASSOCIATED CHARITIES

A page not often found in the report of an associated charities appears in a recent account of five years' work of the Portland, Ore., society, under the title What We are Not Organized to Do:

> **Keep families supplied with groceries, clothing, and rent indefinitely.**
>
> **Look for jobs for able-bodied men and women when they are able to do so for themselves.**
>
> **Collect wages for people who do not perform their work properly.**
>
> **Supply tools to shiftless men who sell or pawn them.**
>
> **Pay room rent and furnish provisions and clothing for women who will not do the only kind of work they are able to do.**
>
> **Provide support for children whose parents want to shift their responsibilities.**
>
> **Take children away from parents whose only fault is their poverty.**
>
> **Send people to other cities without knowing that they will be cared for when they get there—for this is not fair to the other city or kind to the person sent.**
>
> **Cultivate the spirit or practice of mendicancy.**

SOCIAL WORKERS' TRIP TO JAPAN

A trip to Japan, planned to start just after the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Seattle, is being arranged by Rev. Sydney Strong of Seattle, and his daughter, Anna Louise Strong. The party will leave Seattle July 15 on the Japan Mail Steamship Company's Steamer Tamba Maru and return on the Shidzuaka Maru. They expect to arrive in Seattle on September 11 having four weeks in Japan.

Any who desire to remain longer in Japan or to proceed to China or Korea will be able to make suitable arrangements. Details concerning the trip can be had from either Dr. Strong or Miss Strong at 508 Garfield Street, Seattle.

WAIST MAKERS FOR CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

While the white goods manufacturers are already experimenting, in co-operation with the New York Department of Education, with plans for establishing continuation classes for their foreign-born and often foreign-speaking workers, the Waist and Dress Manufacturers' Association is endeavoring to build upon the experience of other trades and other lands. With this object in view George M. Price, director of their joint sanitary board is this summer making a study of the continuation schools of Holland and France, and Samuel Floersheim, secretary of the association, is studying the schools of Munich.

BOOKKEEPING FOR PROBATION OFFICERS

The New York State Probation Commission has supplied probation officers in the state with a complete set of books for keeping account of instalment fines, restitution and family support collected from persons on probation. The amount collected in these forms during the past year probably exceeded $80,000. Inquiries by the commission have shown the need of better methods of book-keeping and of a state-wide system. The system prepared by the commission includes a parallel columned cash-book, loose leaf ledgers, and official receipt blanks.

Vigilance

DECENCY vs. INDECENCY
FACTS vs. GUESSWORK

The Social Evil, variously termed traffic in women, white slave traffic, commercialized vice, is a burning question.

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Experienced superintendent and matron desires position in Children's Home. Address M. E. Abercrombie, Criehaven, Maine.

SUPERINTENDENT of Boys' Club or correctional institution work desired by one with twelve years experience. At present superintendent of large Boys' Club. Highest references as to executive and disciplinary ability. Address 1127 Survey.

EXPERIENCED, executive and personal worker in children's aid, wants position in Pacific Coast State, in childrens' work. Address 1128 SURVEY

YOUNG WOMAN, over ten years' experience in every phase of social work, executive ability, desires position as head of settlement (preferably) or organized charity or welfare work in factory or department store. Can furnish highest reference. Address 1129, SURVEY.

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the importance of the family in society.

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VOLUME XXX, No. 14 WEEK OF JULY 5, 1913

THE SURVEY

LIBRARY
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UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS
Edward T. Devine

SOCIAL JUSTICE—A PROPHECY
Frank Tucker

REORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL WORK
Simon N. Patten

THE HOUSE COURTS OF LOS ANGELES
William H. Matthews

THE HOUSES THE RED CROSS BUILT
Winthrop D. Lane and Lewis E. Stein

THE MUSE AND THE "CAUSES"
Vida D. Scudder

SOCIAL INSURANCE CONFERENCE
I. M. Rubinow

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT, CHURCH AND RELIGION
Graham Taylor

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION NAMED
TAX RATE ON BUILDINGS HALVED IN TWO CITIES
PENSIONS TO WIDOWS IN SEVENTEEN STATES
TEACHING TEMPERANCE BY PROVOKING THOUGHT
TEAM WORK IN RAISING MONEY FOR CHARITY

DEATH OF CANON BARNETT
Robert A. Woods

No. IV

REAL BALLOT REFORM AT LAST

The Secret Mechanical Ballot Solves the Problem

Justice in Voting

Absolute honesty, accuracy and secrecy in public elections—the goal of the 30 years' war for ballot reform which spread from Australia to the four corners of the civilized world—can only be assured by eliminating the chance for human error.

The mechanical difficulties have at last been completely conquered by

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THE BOARD OF SUPERVISORS OF ELECTIONS
Baltimore.
December 13, 1912.

Triumph Voting Machine Company.

Gentlemen:—

I take pleasure in advising you that the Triumph Voting Machine used in the 9th Precinct of the 24th Ward, in the Presidential Election of 1912, was thoroughly satisfactory in every respect, both to our Board and the voters of that precinct.

Very truly,

(Signed) James McEvoy, Jr.,
President.

If you want to know the unique advantages of the Triumph Machine send for our booklet.

TRIUMPH VOTING MACHINE CO., 60 Wall Street, NEW YORK

THE COMMON WELFARE

PUT THE "CLEAVE" IN "CLEAVELAND"

They're busy, just now, putting the "cleave" in "Cleaveland"—to use the old spelling of the sixth city's name. Not the "cleave" that means to cut asunder but the intransitive "cleave" that means to stick together.

"The greatest step in the history of cities" is the term that has been applied, however deservedly, to the cleaving together of the social agencies of Cleveland for a united war on want. The details of the plan were described in THE SURVEY of February 10.

Briefly stated, the new Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy is an alliance of fifty-three of the city's social organizations to collect all funds for the current expenses of the fifty-three institutions by means of one central board rather than through individual organizations; to put into use each year the $30,000 to $60,000 which is now spent in making fifty-three collections where henceforth only one will be necessary; to enable officers of organizations to devote to actual work time now devoted to securing funds; to free benevolent donors, by one collection, the annoyance of incessant demands for small amounts; to double or triple, through educational campaigns, the number of the city's givers to charity; and to cause fifty-three little skirmishing bands of outfighters to bury their differences, unite their interests and sympathies, and present a solid front to the problems of the community.

This plan for "benevolence by co-operation in place of benevolence by competition" was set afoot when three hundred social workers carried on a brisk, week-long "giver-getting campaign" from June 2 to 9, going from house to house explaining the purposes of the federation and inspiring gifts.

As a result the number of gifts made to charity through the federation is 3,300. The number of people who ordinarily give to Cleveland's charities each year is six thousand. This means that in the brief four months of its existence the federation has already secured half as many donors as have before been contributing annually. In four months it has done a half year's job.

More than that, the donations that have so far been made to the federation total $250,000, and the annual amount that Cleveland people have been giving to charities in past years averages $500,000. Here, too, then, the federation has reached the halfway place in less than half a year.

The campaign was primarily to inform the public of the nature, aims and methods of the federation and to stimulate interest in it. The three hundred visitors were specifically instructed not to urge anyone to contribute. It was "good will week" and good will was to be sought rather than money. "The gift without the giver



CAMPAIGNING FOR CHARITY.

The Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthrophy sent out carefully drilled teams in a house-to-house canvass for funds and friendship.

SEVENTEEN STATES PENSION WIDOWS

Mothers' pension laws exist today in seventeen states. A year ago there were but three, and four years ago the plan was unknown. Two cities have made local provision and in eight states acts are pending. No other form of social legislation has had such a growth in this country. Its very rapidity delights the more radical and adds to their conviction that the system is sound. Conservatives, on the other hand, are disturbed by what seems to them to be a hurrah-boy rush into legislation.

"Commission" bills, calling for the preliminary study which many social workers believe is essential, failed of passage last winter in Pennsylvania, Ohio and Minnesota, pension bills being passed instead. In New York, however, a $5,000 investigation is to be made in order to find what legislation, if any, is necessary. The governor has appointed Mrs. William Einstein, William Hard, Sophie Irene Loeb, Dr. William Sirovich and John D. Lindsay of New York, Ansley Wilcox of Buffalo and E. Frank Brewster of Rochester to be members of the commission to conduct this investigation along with eight state senators and assemblymen. Mrs. Einstein and Mr. Hard have been active workers for a mothers' pension law. Mr. Wilcox is president of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society.

Massachusetts was the only state to take action this year on the basis of a study of the question by a commission. The bill which was thus passed, in the opinion of many charity organization workers, is in an entirely different class from those enacted in other states.

It was not the act recommended by the commission—in fact, some would contend that it is not properly called a mothers' pension act at all. On the side of public relief it does little more than add to the duties already required of overseers of the poor the specification that in relieving mothers with dependent children under fourteen, if they are "fit to bring up" these children, they shall give aid "sufficient to enable said mothers to bring up their children properly in their own homes." No amount per child per month is specified. The overseers are required to make a careful investigation of the family, and to take all lawful means to secure help from "relatives, individuals, societies or agencies who may be interested," and to try to secure work for the mother and children. The pensioned families must be visited every three months, a full record kept and once a year the whole case must be reconsidered. The State Board of Charity must supervise all this work.

In Wisconsin an attempt was made to pass a bill, into which its drafter, Charles McCarthy, chief of the Legislative Reference Library, had incorporated the results of much correspondence with those in touch with the problem in other states. Though the Wisconsin Legislature is still in session, this bill has apparently been set aside in favor of one which follows in the main the laws passed elsewhere.

The Pennsylvania law stands alone in creating an entirely new set of administrative officials —unsalaried boards of women, from five to seven in number—appointed by the governor— in all counties which elect to make use of the act.

Although the New Jersey law follows most other laws in leaving to the court the granting or refusing of pensions, it is unique in putting upon a state board of children's guardians the chief responsibility for investigation and family care. The law's explicit provisions on the latter point are rare in mothers' pension legislation. The family is to be visited at least six times a year by representatives of the state board, who shall see that the widow "is properly caring for her children, that they are sufficiently clothed and fed, that they attend school regularly and receive proper religious instruction."

ANALYSIS OF PENSION LAWS

The American Association for Labor Legislation has made the following analysis of the widows' pension laws of the country, which is up-to-date except for this year's amendment to the California act:

Since 1908, when the movement began, to date, June 16, 1913, mothers' pension laws have been passed in the United States in seventeen states (California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Utah, and Washington) and in two cities (Milwaukee and St. Louis). Only the state laws are here considered.

The law applies to any parent who, because of poverty, is unable properly to support a dependent or neglected child, but who is otherwise a proper guardian for it, in California, Colorado, Illinois and Nebraska. In Massachusetts, Michigan and Utah this provision is narrowed to apply to mothers only. In New Jersey only widows are included. In the remaining states not only widows but other classes of dependent mothers may receive allowances. Thus, in addition to widows, deserted wives are included in the benefits of the act in Michigan, Ohio (if deserted for three years), Pennsylvania, and Washington (if deserted for one year); mothers whose husbands are prisoners are included in Idaho, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, Oregon, South Dakota (unless the wife receives sufficient of the prisoner's wages to support her children), and in Washington; mothers whose husbands are confined in state insane asylums, are included in Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Oregon and Washington; mothers

whose husbands are incapacitated for labor are included in Minnesota, Ohio, Oregon, South Dakota, and Washington; in Michigan alone, divorced and unmarried mothers are included, while in California and Colorado, if neither parent is found fit, a guardian may be appointed to receive the stipend.

The maximum age of a child for whom a pension is payable is fourteen years in Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri and South Dakota; fifteen in Idaho, Utah and Washington; sixteen in Nebraska (if the child pleads guilty of, or is convicted of, a crime), New Jersey and Oregon; seventeen in Illinois (if a male child) and in Michigan; and 18 in Illinois (if a female child) and Nebraska (if the child is merely dependent and neglected). Legal working age is the limit set in Ohio and Pennsylvania, and in California and Colorado no limit is set.

The maximum amount of allowance for one child is $2 a week in Iowa and $3 a week in Michigan. It is $6.25 a month in California (for widows); $9 in New Jersey; $10 in Idaho, Minnesota, Missouri, Oregon and Utah; $11 in California (for abandoned children); $12 in Pennsylvania; and $15 in Ohio, South Dakota and Washington. In Colorado, Illinois, Massachusetts and Nebraska no maximum is established. The amount for additional children varies from $5 to $12 per month. In California, Ohio, and South Dakota the order is good only for six months unless renewed.

The law is administered by the juvenile court alone in California, Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, and Washington; by the juvenile court or some other county court, in Colorado and Oregon; and by the juvenile court or the county commissioners in Utah. Various other courts administer the law in Idaho, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey and South Dakota; the city or town overseers of the poor, in Massachusetts; and in Pennsylvania an unpaid board of five to seven women residents of the county appointed by the governor.

In every state except Massachusetts the funds come out of the county treasury; in Massachusetts they are provided by the city or town. In California, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania grants in part payments are made to the local authorities by the state.

PITTSBURGH HALVES TAX ON BUILDINGS

Pittsburgh and Scranton are the first cities in the United States to cut the tax rate on buildings radically lower than the rate on land, following the plan which has attracted so much attention in the cities of western Canada.

For a generation Pittsburgh had suffered from a tax system which put a premium on holding land for speculative purposes. The holdings of old estates were classed as agricultural land and paid only one-half the rate charged against office buildings and workingmen's homes. The Legislature of 1911 wiped out these old inequalities. The Legislature of 1913 has turned the situation inside out to give an advantage to the man who improves his real estate.

The act will fix the tax rate on all buildings at one-half the rate on land. This will work out as follows: To raise all present city revenues an average rate of 15 mills has been assessed in Pittsburgh. A tax of 18 mills on land and 9 mills on buildings would raise present revenues at the present assessed value of land, which is practically twice that of buildings. An increase of 3 mills on land would raise the same amount as has been raised by the 6 mills by which it is proposed to decrease the rate on buildings.

To permit adjustment of investments and prevent hardships this change in rate will be spread over twelve years. The first year the rate on buildings will be reduced to 90 per cent of that on land, the third year 80 per cent and so on by reductions of 10 per cent every third year until 50 per cent is reached in twelve years.

The movement gained impulse from the report of the British Board of Trade on the cost of living in America which showed that workmen in Pittsburgh pay higher rents than in competing cities: 19 per cent higher than in Philadelphia; 47 per cent higher than in Cleveland; 75 per cent higher than in Baltimore.

Inquiry disclosed that Pittsburgh manufacturers were paying 60 cents to one dollar per square foot per year for floor space while space in interior Pennsylvania cities competing with Pittsburgh can be had for 20 to 30 cents.

In his Economic Survey of Pittsburgh for 1912 Prof. J. T. Holdsworth figured that the average value of land per acre in Pittsburgh was $19,090, a trifle less than in New York, but higher than in any of the other ten largest cities of America.

So it was that the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, the Real Estate Dealers' Association and the Pittsburgh Board of Trade joined in this tax campaign as the means which, to their minds, would get them three things:

Better houses for working men at lower rents.
Relief of manufacturers and other enterprises from prohibitive prices for land needed for building and expansion.
Lower taxes as an inducement for developing the city and its business.

The thirteenth ward, which contains more homes than any other ward of Pittsburgh, was made the basis of a calculation to the effect that the taxation on 3982 homes would be reduced 15 to 25 per cent, 800 would be reduced 5 to 10 per cent, and 418 would pay the same as under the present system. 2380 vacant lots would pay an increase of 20 per cent.

As a precedent for their campaign, the Pittsburgh bodies cited the fact that Great Britain

had recently levied new land taxes to force vacant land into use. Hamburg, Frankfort and Cologne have adopted this line of tax reform as a method of securing better housing—in some German cities workingmen's homes are entirely exempt—and the cities of Australia and New Zealand generally tax buildings at less than full rate. The plan, of course, is the one which has been urged for several years by the New York Congestion Committee, and which they failed to get the Legislature to put before the people of Greater New York on a referendum. But it is interesting to recall that it was Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Congestion Committee, who first put the possibilities of this rate-change before Pittsburgh people at the civic exhibit at the Carnegie Institute in the fall of 1908.

From being one of the most backward cities in the country in the matter of taxation, Pittsburgh thus leaps to the rank of the first large city in the United States to experiment along the new lines. The beneficiaries of the plan, in the words of its advocates, will be:

All renters—for the reduction in taxes on buildings will decrease rents to the same extent.

Manufacturers—they can secure cheaper land, and after building, taxes will be far less than in other cities.

Every property owner—if he has built an improvement worth more than half the value of his land.

Every real estate broker—real estate transactions will be stimulated.

The laboring man—building and industry will be increased and work more plentiful.

The city—homes and factories will replace slums.

EDITORIAL GRIST

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION

President Wilson's nominations for the Industrial Relations Commission,[1] announced on June 26, have been awaited with great interest, sharpened by the dissatisfaction with which Mr. Taft's nominations last December were greeted by many of those who had suggested the creation of the commission and who put forth much effort to secure the necessary legislation by Congress.

President Wilson's nominees, whose names are now before the Senate for confirmation are:

REPRESENTING THE PUBLIC

Frank P. Walsh, chairman, prominent member of the Kansas City Bar; attorney for the Board of Public Welfare in which from the beginning he has shown great interest; president of the Pardon and Parole Board and of the Civil Service Commission of Kansas City; active in starting Legal Aid Bureau; vice-president, National Social Center Association; chairman of the Social Service Committee of the democratic national campaign last fall; has served, very acceptably to both sides, as arbitrator in labor disputes in Missouri.

John R. Commons, professor of Political Economy, University of Wisconsin, and member Wisconsin Industrial Commission. Was expert agent of United States Industrial Commission in 1901. Has been instructor and professor of economics in different universities, most of the time since 1890. Joint editor Documentary History of American Industrial Society. Author of books and magazine articles on economics and labor problems. Has lectured widely on labor problems and labor legislation.

Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, New York City, member of the New York Milk Committee, to whose work she has devoted much time and effort, particularly as chairman of a sub-committee on the reduction of infant mortality; vice-president, Tuberculosis Preventorium for Children, Farmingdale, N. Y.; was chairman of the women's committee of the democratic national campaign last fall.

REPRESENTING EMPLOYERS

Frederick A. Delano, Chicago. Receiver and former president of the Wabash Railroad; identified with various civic and reform movements in Illinois. As president of the Wabash Railroad, his relations with the labor unions have been cordial; a civic leader n Chicago, commenting on Mr. Delano's previous nomination, wrote: "The appointment of Mr. Delano is fine and fair and ought to be the type of appointment throughout".

Harris Weinstock, San Francisco, merchant, Vice-president Weinstock-Lubin Co. Interested also in other business enterprises. Founded Barbara Weinstock lectureship of Morals of Trade, University of California. Appointed 1908 by Governor Gillette of California to investigate and report on labor legislation of New Zealand. Appointed 1912 by Governor Johnson to investigate the disturbances over the I. W. W in San Diego. In his report he condemned the principles of the I. W. W. but criticized with great severity the methods employed by the so-called vigilants. Member executive committee National Civic Federation.

S. Thurston Ballard, Louisville, Kentucky. Owner of flour mills and identified with many other commercial and industrial enterprises. As member of the Louisville Manufacturers' Association, he secured the support of that body to child labor legislation. "A man", writes a Louisville social worker, "with broad views and a deep sense of the obligation that rests upon him as an employer. His appointment is altogether admirable".

REPRESENTING EMPLOYES

Austin B. Garretson, Iowa, president of the Order of Railroad Conductors, one of the great railway brotherhoods.

John B. Lennon, Bloomington, Illinois, treasurer of the American Federation of Labor. For many years an executive of the international union of journeymen tailors. He is a member of the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, and has been fearless in preventing the cause of temperance among labormen.

James O'Connell, District of Columbia, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, formerly president of the machinists' union.

The three chief criticisms of President Taft's nominations were that they included no economist, no woman and no representative of the industrial unionists either within or without the ranks of the American Federation of Labor. President Wilson's nominations make good on the first two of these points. He did not, on the other hand, name a woman standing for the 6,000,000 women workers of the country whose labor problems lie not merely in their relations with employes but in their relations with men's unions; nor any one of a dozen women, not wage-earners themselves, who in thought and act have shown deep understanding of their problems. Nor did he name anyone avowedly

[1] See THE SURVEY for Dec. 30, 1911; Feb. 3, Feb. 10, Mar. 9, and Dec. 28, 1912.

sympathetic to the insurgent elements in the labor situation. He renominated the three labor men named by Taft, who are representative of the dominant majority of the oldest and most conservative labor bodies in the country. On the other hand, President Wilson's list does not include any employer who has been notably active in the militant anti-union organizations of employers. It includes neither extreme—but seems to have been chosen from the industrial groups which have found ways in the past to work out things together. On them is thus placed the heavy responsibility of laying a ground work for industrial relations to meet the stress of the next decade.

But the hope of those who from the beginning had been most concerned with the movement for the commission was for recognition of these various elements not through partisan representation but through a strong personnel which would bring intelligent understanding to all the points of view—a group of the sort which could do more than adjudicate between conflicting interests, which could work out constructive steps in the improvement of industrial relations. The first impression of many social workers is that the commission as nominated by President Wilson comes much nearer being this sort of a group than that nominated by Mr. Taft. An especial reason for this impression they find in the appointment of Professor Commons, the one man in America who, as economist and investigator, has thought out industrial reforms, as statesman has drafted them into laws which would give them effect and as administrator has practically enforced those laws with the unexampled co-operation of employer and employe.

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT, THE CHURCH AND RELIGION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

A categorical answer to the question Is religion an element in the social settlement? cannot truthfully be given. Too much depends upon what is meant by a settlement and by religion.

True to the university, as the source of its ideal and method, the settlement originally emphasized universality in its constituency and scope, in distinction from adherence to sect, party, class or race. It also laid stress upon freedom for individual initiative and co-operative effort and upon freedom from restrictions of social and political conventionalities. It recognized and respected ecclesiastical and other distinctions, yet aimed to offer a common ground where, without compromise of principle or preference, all could meet, mingle and exchange values in co-operation for the common good. Respectful toward the distinct prerogative and function of the church, the settlement never claimed to substitute anything for either.

Is it not to the credit of the settlement that, even where the churches are conspicuous for their absence or their feebleness, it disavows being in any sense a substitute for or a rival of the church or mission? And surely it is no discredit to mission or church that it is not, and cannot be, a settlement, in strict accordance with its original purpose. Each would abandon its distinctive function if it became the other. If a church cease to press the propaganda of its faith it would cease to be a church of that faith. If a settlement assumed such a propaganda, it would cease to be the common ground, the clearing house, the co-operative center, for the fellowship and work for those of all faiths and no faith, for those of all parties or none.

The settlement stops short of where the church begins its distinctive effort. The settlement starts on common human ground with the whole community, and goes as far as all will proceed together, halting short of what is fundamentally divisive. The church leads those who will go further as far as it can get them to advance in the direction of its distinctive ideals. The church necessarily divides the community into groups of people who will and can be thus specialized. The settlement comprehends and unites all these groups, and others besides, on common ground, and with an all-embracing framework of neighborship and fellow-citizenship.

There is no more reason why a settlement's right to be should be challenged because it is not a church or mission than that a public school should be denied its function because it is not a parochial school; or that a parish should be discounted because it is not a ward of the city; or that the church communion should be minimized because it is not the community; or that an ecclesiastical denomination should suffer from invidious comparison because it is not the body polity.

While the functions of a settlement and a church or mission are so distinct that neither can take the place of the other, yet each contributes to the other's fulfillment of its own function. The churches necessarily divide a community by the very depth of the religious conviction which their denominational differences emphasize. Therefore, no one of them, nor all together, can become the center at which a whole heterogeneous population will enter into fellowship or co-operation. But the loyalty to ideals, to truth, and to standard, which the church begets in each true member is susceptible of being developed into those neighborhood, social and civic loyalties which the settlement weaves into community spirit and action.

If the settlement attempts to teach distinctive,

and therefore divisive, religious tenets, it is sure to fail in fulfilling its function to the community as a whole, and to those very persons and classes needing its fellowship the most. But it does invite churches and adherents of all religious faiths to use it buildings, and it co-operates with them by encouraging all its neighbors to live up to their faith. Thus at Chicago Commons, under the same roof, on common ground, and at the same time, there are statedly gathered in separate groups and rooms a Congregational church and a Roman Catholic order; Armenians who are converts of the foreign missions in Turkey and others who adhere to the old Armenian church; Greeks, some of whom are still sons of the orthodox Greek church, others who are Roman Catholics, having bearded and married priests under their own bishops and the pope of Rome, and still others who came from their Fatherland as Protestant converts and perpetuate their fellowship and worship in America.

That there is both need and room for such an inclusive and unifying or interpretative function as a settlement may thus fulfill can scarcely be seriously questioned by the most exclusive churchmen, facing the stern fact of a divided Christendom and that other fact of the racial and class cleavage in our unprecedentedly mixed population.

In distinction from religious propaganda or its ecclesiastical expression, religion is a prime element in settlement life and work in these ways:

1. The religious convictions and preferences of each resident worker in a settlement household are respected and encouraged, whether Protestant, Jewish or Catholic.

2. A common, though always voluntary, expression of religious fellowship is offered by silent or oral "grace" at table, and in household prayer or "vespers."

3. The same respect and encouragement for every neighbor's faith and church are expressed by the residents and are inculcated among the neighbors.

4. As active co-operation with all the churches and ministers, priests and rabbis of the neighborhood and community is offered as any or all of them welcome or do not reject.

Thus the religion of relationship to God as Father and to fellow-men as brothers is interpreted, exemplified and incarnated by the settlement as best it can. It stands for nothing higher and nothing else than to realize those divine ideals of relationship to father God and fellowmen which both Judaism and all forms of Christianity seek to realize and obtain. It aims to realize those ideals in reverential ministries to the commonest human needs; in simplifying, sweetening, strengthening and fulfilling the common relationships of family, work-a-day and community life; in applying the common faith to social conditions of the common life; and in "letting the spiritual, unbidden and unconscious, grow up through the common."

The church which adopts settlement methods does not thereby become a settlement, and should not, in justice either to itself or the settlement, call itself such. Recognizing the "diversities of operations" of "the same Spirit," the church may wisely and well acknowledge that its organization, membership and resources are seldom such as to make it the best executive of its own social and civic ideals. Relying upon other agencies to carry on many things it initiates, the church may religiously reserve itself for its supreme prerogative and function of revealing the divine ideal of life, individual and collective; inspiring individuals and groups to aspire to it; and generating spiritual power to attain the ideal in personal experience and character, in public service and progress.

CANON BARNETT, FOUNDER OF TOYNBEE HALL

ROBERT A. WOODS
South End House, Boston

THE death on June 17 of Samuel A. Barnett (born 1844) will pass unnoticed by great numbers of those whose attitude towards the problems of today has been affected by him.

Even of those who were familiar with this simple-hearted saint of the secular life, not many have been moved to suspect that he has probably accomplished more than any other in laying foundations of constructive social service.

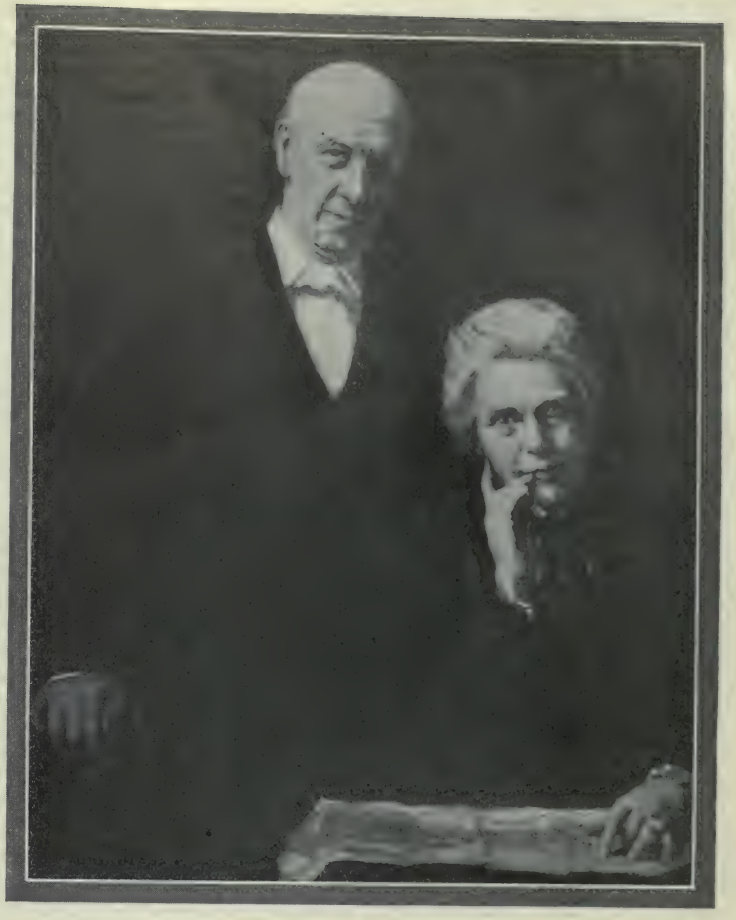
His working career reached back into the sixties, and was directly and deeply influenced by Maurice, Kingsley and Ruskin. Much more fully than any of his contemporaries was he able to shape the facts of common life after the cardinal teachings of these three men. He was the real creator of the university settlement, and in the establishment of Toynbee Hall framed a spiritualized invention in terms of human relations which history may find to be at least comparable in importance with the great mechanical devices of modern civilization.

During five years' service as curate in the central part of London, he was associated with Octavia Hill in the care of a housing experiment for which Ruskin supplied the capital. In one of Miss Hill's lieutenants, he met his future wife.

In 1873, Mr. Barnett was appointed vicar of St. Jude's, Whitechapel, a parish which the bishop, in offering it to him, described as the worst in his diocese. Only some of the most terrible pages in Dickens can suggest the con-

dition of the people. Even the church buildings were in a serious state of neglect. This bit of territory thus began to be a classic land of poverty. A man and a woman became its interpreters, and it was their spiritual statesmanship which caused its life to express so many of the hopes of the modern movement for a higher type and order of humanity.

It is important to note that the Barnetts went to Whitechapel through the efforts of Edmund Holland, who had lived and worked with Edward Denison, the first settlement pioneer, in the adjoining parish of Stepney; so that they themselves came to the East End under the germinating impulse which a decade later they were to bring into active and infectious life. The new social spirit among the young men at the universities met with their most eager appreciation. Almost from the first they made the vicarage a center of attraction for ardent young Oxford men; and Mr. and Mrs. Barnett made frequent visits to the university. Dr. Jowett of Balliol became deeply interested in their work, and brought some of his best students in touch with them. It was in this way that Arnold Toynbee came to be a visitor in Whitechapel in 1875, and brought back to his rare circle deep and challenging impressions of East London life.



CANON AND MRS. BARNETT
From the painting presented to Toynbee Hall by the residents on the settlement's tweny-fifth anniversary.

Mr. Barnett early began to secure capital for building model tenements; and, after the Peabody buildings, what he accomplished in this direction was for years the chief object-lesson in East London. This undertaking was accompanied by the disintegration of some of the worst nests of vice; for Mr. Barnett has always maintained the view to which everyone is now being forced, that there is a substantial gain in preventing moral abominations from having the advantage of combination and publicity. Some of the old houses thus emptied were renovated and placed in the charge of lady rent collectors. Special organizations for the protection of girls and young women were introduced. Municipal baths and wash-houses were promoted. A temperance café was opened. A beginning was made of sending children out of town in summer, which later led to the great children's Country Holiday Fund; excursions were arranged for groups of entire families who became guests for a day at some beautiful country estate; and, what perhaps aroused more discussion than any of these, the first Whitechapel Free Art Exhibition was opened in 1881.

During all this time, the distinctively religious life of the church was being developed from the point of view of a rarely spiritual and devoted nature to which Christianity was too great to be dependent upon what scientific criticism might eliminate. Mr. Barnett was one of the first to prove conclusively that the extreme broad church position would establish itself in action. One of the most beautiful instances of the way in which he made religion of the same stuff as life was found in the "Worship Hour" coming after the regular evening service each Sunday. There was a short reading from the Bible or some great English author, anthems by

a special choir, organ and violin solos, hymns in which the congregation joined, and a few simple prayers. The effect of this service, considering the strange mixture of humanity which made up the audience, was peculiarly moving.

The early eighties were a period of exceptional distress in London, which was brought to public attention by Walter Besant's All Sorts and Conditions of Men and various other publications. Mr. Barnett was associated with others in creating a "Palace of Delight" on the model described in the story. He was much more attracted, however, by the organized interest in the situation which was beginning to appear among the students at Oxford and Cambridge. It was not long before he had made addresses at both universities proposing that there should be a "settlement of university men" in East London, different from a mission in being open to men of all religious views, serving every human need of the district through neighborly acquaintance. "Many have been the schemes of reform I have known, but, out of eleven years' experience, I would say that none touches the root of the evil which does not bring helper and helped into friendly relations."

Under a committee, two of whose members were James Bryce and Alfred (later Lord) Milner, an estate next to St. Jude's was purchased; and after making a temporary base in a disused public house, the first residents early in 1885 entered the new building, suggestive of the university in its architecture and its "quad", and enshrining the inspiration of Arnold Toynbee in its name.

The nearly thirty years' work of the archetype of all the settlements has shown marked achievement in all the directions which Mr. Barnett laid out before it. Every branch of its service had his personal, loving care for more than twenty years of that period. The educational program has been continuously followed up. Toynbee Hall, for many years has been one of the most important university extension centers in England. Indeed it has always been one of the deepest convictions of Mr. Barnett that the higher education can be the very means of life to working people as to other human beings. Very valuable help has been given continuously in connection with the administration of the board schools; and in the graduates' clubs held at different schoolhouses appeared perhaps the first suggestion of the school recreation center. The administration of charity, public and private, amid the results of centuries of neglect, has been brought to a stage of excellence of which the fine Whitechapel Infirmary is a symbol. The vigilance corps which patrolled the streets nightly for several years at the time of the Whitechapel murders, was only the expression of the same civic spirit which later took form in successive canvasses leading up to a popular vote establishing a district public library.

The Co-operative Wholesale Society once appropriated a substantial sum to Toynbee Hall in recognition of services to its interests. Two or three friendly societies, or workingmen's co-operative insurance organizations, have always made the settlement their regular meeting place. Women's trade unions have been continuously re-enforced. The great missionary effort of the skilled workmen to organize the dock laborers, under the lead of John Burns, had a sympathetic outpost at Toynbee.

All that Toynbee Hall has achieved and suggested was the clear result of the ever-pervasive influence of a character placid, almost artless; far-sighted, clearly convinced, soundly discriminating; forgetful of self to the extent of forgetting that he had forgotten, but seeing the dignity of all his work in the largest bearing upon the nation and, almost from moment to moment, in its meaning to men as sons of God.

The community of interest and action between Mr. and Mrs. Barnett will stand forth as one of the most signal instances of the characteristically modern possibilities of the marriage relation. It would be impossible to mention any single stroke of Mr. Barnett's work in which his wife was not a complete and effective participant. Their collected essays in the two books Practicable Socialism and Towards Social Reform are very largely the rare expression of their common thought. It is therefore of especial importance to note that during recent years when Mr. Barnett's health has been somewhat impaired, Mrs. Barnett, taking the lead, has worked out the logic of the settlement in the creation of the Hampstead Garden Suburb.

Mr. Barnett received proper recognition in the Church at the hands of the recent liberal ministries. In 1893 he was appointed canon of Bristol, his native city; and a few years ago he was made canon of Westminster, with a residence within the Abbey precincts. His great reward, however, has come in the direct results of his prophetic humanism; and in the growing influence of Toynbee men in School Board, County Council, National Board of Trade, Parliament, and colonial administration.

In so far as our American settlements keep the spirit sound and true, they are indebted to him not only as founder but as guide and counsellor. He did not withhold the gentle rebuke for what at times he feared were our "vain works and deadly doing"; nor the injunction to follow the larger things of essential faith and fellowship. A few of those now becoming the elders in our settlement service will always count it one of the supreme privileges of their calling to have been included in the circle of his disciples.

PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS[1]

EDWARD T. DEVINE

TWENTY of the states have now, I believe, pensions for mothers in one form or another, and there are at least eight others in which legislative measures are under discussion. My understanding with the committee of which I have the honor to be chairman and under whose auspices this conference is held is that in the time assigned to me I will concentrate attention upon the central and common features of the current legislation rather than discuss the merits of this or that detail of procedure. I speak strictly as an individual and not on behalf of the Charity Organization Society, or the School of Philanthropy, or THE SURVEY, or Columbia University, or the American Association for Labor Legislation. If any of these institutions find my views obnoxious they have their remedy. The currents of public opinion are too complicated and perplexing, too swift and shifting, to make it easy to discover, even if one wished, in what particular channel his bark is moving. Setting a course by the compass of individual judgment, we may hope that both the old landmarks and the new beacons, if they are trustworthy, will appear in their appointed place.

Speaking as an individual I am still not unmindful that I am a member of a committee on social insurance. This committee, although appointed primarily to study the subject, has unanimously formulated certain definite views, which are indeed virtually implied in the very existence of the committee. We believe in the principle of social insurance. We think that society as a whole, working through the state, should assume the responsibility for distributing certain financial burdens which have been falling with crushing weight upon individuals and individual families. Death, industrial injuries, sickness, involuntary unemployment, and unprovided old age are the principal risks of this kind.

Social insurance is essentially the distribution of risks among all those who are naturally subjected to them, over a period sufficiently long to enable the risks to be carried safely and without unreasonable hardship. So defined, the insurance would be strictly mutual and its costs would be borne by the workingmen and their families subjected to such risks. The idea, however, has been extended, and rightly extended, in such a way as to associate employers on the one hand and consumers on the other with the risks involved, on the ground that industry as a whole should bear the burdens of its deaths, diseases, and injuries, its orphanage and widowhood, its periods of unemployment, and even the infirmity which attends the old age of its workers; and on the ground that industry, thus assuming the full cost of its product, the cost in human lives and in physical vigor, will eventually recoup itself either by economies of production or, when necessary, by higher prices for its commodities.

Social insurance thus organizes the natural and legitimate provision for death, sickness, and other similar individual misfortunes, diffuses such losses in time and throughout the whole number of individuals concerned, places responsibility on industry where it properly belongs, and anticipates that industry and commerce, under their natural laws, in accordance with the well known principles of competition, will adjust the prices of commodities and of labor in such a way as fairly to distribute the burden.

There is, of course, much room for difference of opinion as to the order in which the various branches of the subject should be taken up, or whether some of them should be taken up at all as a part of a state system. Personally I have long been convinced of the soundness of the general policy of social insurance; and that neither ordinary commercial insurance nor voluntary fraternal insurance have adequately provided, or can adequately provide, for such risks as I have enumerated. I therefore accepted eagerly the opportunity offered by the American Association for Labor Legislation to serve on a committee to investigate the whole policy as applied to American conditions, to hold conferences to promote public interest in the subject, and, when the time comes, to join with others in advocating well considered measures for securing national and state legislation.

As an advocate then of social insurance, I sharply challenge the proposal for weekly or monthly payments to mothers from public funds raised by taxation, as not in harmony with the principles of social insurance; as not being insurance at all, but merely a revamped and in the long run unworkable form of public out-door relief; as having no claim to the name of pension and no place in a rational scheme of social

[1]Substance of a paper read at the conference on social insurance held under the auspices of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Chicago, June 7, 1913. Mr. Devine is chairman of the association's newly created committee on social insurance.

legislation; as embodying no element of prevention or radical cure for any recognized social evil; as an insidious attack upon the family, inimical to the welfare of children and injurious to the character of parents; as imposing in the form in which it is usually embodied an unjustifiable burden upon the courts at a time when the courts are having rather more than they can do to discharge their time-honored functions to the general satisfaction; as illustrating all that is most objectionable in state Socialism, and failing to represent that ideal of social justice which the Socialist movement, whatever its faults, is constantly bringing nearer.

If I were a Socialist I would certainly oppose state pensions to mothers. Even if I were a citizen of Wisconsin I would decline to associate the system with the so-called Wisconsin idea, which some of us in other states have much difficulty in distinguishing from the original American idea of efficiency, opportunity and democracy. My lines happen to have fallen in the city of New York, in the Charities Building and on Morningside Heights, two places where thinking on social subjects does also take place, where the passion for social justice is not unfelt and the courage of conviction is not unknown.

We aim in this discussion, naturally, to disregard all that is provincial, partisan, and momentary and to look at the experiments and proposals before us in the broad light of common experience and common sense, with human sympathy and a sober desire to see things as they are.

Whatever they are called, money payments to mothers from public funds are relief—public charity. No hysterical denunciation or passionate protest will change the bald fact that the transaction is a gift for which the persons at whose expense it is made have received no direct equivalent. Sympathy and not the payment of a financial obligation explains it. Need and not exchange is its basis. The distinction between the new mothers' pensions and the old county relief, in so far as it is not purely one of administration, is purely a subjective difference, a change in the point of view of the observer. This subjective change could just as well have been made, and in fact often is made, without any corresponding change in the procedure to which it refers. The discovery that the mother by bringing children into the world thereby establishes a claim to an allowance from the state could just as well have been applied to the old poor relief as to the new pensions. Whether the man who carries the money is called a county visitor or a probation officer, whether the man who decides on the amount is called a county commissioner or a judge, are surely of no real consequence, either to the mother or to the discriminating student. This being so, the sound policy of reform and progress would seem to lie in the improvement of the administration of public relief where that system prevails rather than in a process of self delusion and of solemn pretense that changing the names of things alters their essential character.

The advocacy of mothers' pensions rests in part upon opposition to, dislike of, and prejudice against private charity, and especially what is known as organized charity, distinguished by investigation, the keeping of records, discrimination in relief, and the insistence upon the full utilization of personal resources rather than impersonal relief funds. It is true that differences of opinion about the relative merits of private organized charity and public relief funds rest less upon evidence than upon the social philosophy and general point of view of those who differ. It is not too much to hope, however, that the numerous inquiries, official and unofficial, instigated by the present interest in this subject may bring reasonable people to an open-minded examination of the evidence and a willingness at least to take it into account. Such an examination will, I believe, disclose the fact that there is a legitimate place for

First: Social insurance,

Second: Public institutional relief (and probably in some places public out-door relief),

Third: Organized charitable relief of families,

Fourth: Voluntary neighborly help.

Any one of these four means of supplementing self-help and family responsibility, or all of them together, do not compare in importance with what must always be the main reliance, namely the personal responsibility of the individual for his own welfare and for that of those who, in infancy, in sickness, in misfortune or in old age are naturally dependent upon him. The time has not come—I see no reason why it should ever come—when it is necessary or expedient to seek a substitute for this principle of individual responsibility and of family solidarity. The family for whom provision needs to be made by any kind of public or private relief is and should remain the exceptional family. The ordinary expectation should be that one will provide for himself in sickness and in old age, and upon his death for his widow and orphan children. This is no utopian or antiquated ideal. It is in fact the ordinary and all but universal ideal of American citizens. We who are engaged in relief work or in advocating social schemes of various kinds are apt to get very distorted impressions about the importance, in the social economy, of the funds which we are distributing or of the social schemes which we are promoting.

I am engaged at the present moment in distributing a relief fund of three-quarters of a

million dollars in a city of one hundred and twenty-five thousand inhabitants. This fund will be distributed within a period of less than three months. And yet this comparatively large relief fund, expended with absolutely open-handed liberality within such a very brief period, is showing itself to be only a very small factor in the economic life of that community. It is preventing, we know, some hardship; hastening, we hope, the restoration in some instances of normal family life; but it is not in any fundamental way determining the conditions of family life or even greatly influencing the course of events in the lives of the individuals of the city of Dayton. Fortunately the spirit of personal independence and individual initiative is vigorous there, as it is in most American communities; and practically from the very beginning, notwithstanding the large available relief fund, people have gone their way, earning their living, making their plans, and carving out their own careers.

If this is true in a community disrupted by a great disaster, how much more is it true, under normal conditions, of the great body of the self-supporting, self-respecting, self-directing population of the country. If there were no social insurance, no public institutional relief, and no private organized charity—in other words, if there were no resources in times of exceptional distress except the provision which people would voluntarily make on their own account and the informal neighborly help which people would give to one another, I firmly believe, as Chalmers believed in Glasgow three-quarters of a century ago, that most of the misfortunes would still be provided for, and that very probably the death rate, the sickness rate, the orphan rate, and the rate of physical and nervous exhaustion might be very little higher, if any higher, than at the present time.

In this very rough calculation, I recognize that the disappearance of an enormous amount of harmful relief giving—some of it done by so-called organized charities—would be accompanied by the disappearance of a large amount of excellent and beneficial relief work—much of it done by public officials. There is need of relief. As compared with some congested quarters of our cities or some of our degenerate rural communities, I suppose that even San Francisco after the earthquake, or Dayton after the flood, might be considered normal communities. We are not likely to return to the comparatively primitive conditions in which Chalmers worked. If for no other reason than to offset the injurious things done in the name of charity, it will be necessary that organized and adequate relief, public and private, should be given. Those who are of weak physique and those who are thriftless will continue to rely upon external assistance. It is a clear duty to bring order out of chaos—and I appreciate that this is of course the underlying motive of many of the advocates of mothers' pensions. It is a duty to co-ordinate relief resources, and to direct them to the development of the strength of the people rather than to feed the pathological parasitism which is the destruction, in the end, alike of the weak asker and of the giver from whom he asks.

I have named four means of providing for misfortune other than unqualified self-help. It is obvious, however, that the first of these, social insurance, stands on an entirely different plane from the other three. It is in fact only a co-operative form of self-help, for the reason that even if the burden is partly borne by employers and purchasers this shifting will take place only to the extent to which the insured workers through the strength of their economic position and the economic value of their services can withstand a corresponding reduction of wages. In the long run insurance cannot become a subsidy to the workers either from employers or from consumers, and no self-respecting worker will desire that it should. It is simply a means of getting back that of which they are now unjustly and uneconomically deprived, and a means of meeting their own share of the risk in manageable installments. Public institutional relief, organized charitable assistance, and voluntary neighborly help are on a different basis, all fully justified on historical grounds, and by universal custom, but sharply to be differentiated from the payment of recognized obligations or self-earned insurance.

The fundamental objection to so-called mothers' pensions is that they are proposed, advocated and defended on the one ground, while they actually rest exclusively upon the other. They are called pensions, but pensions in the legitimate meaning of the term are a deferred payment for service already rendered, and have no reference to the resources or needs of the individual. Mothers' pensions are described as an act of simple justice, but I venture to say that no one has really ever voted for them or paid his share of taxes to provide for them, as an act of justice, in any other sense than that the bringing up of the foundling, the care of the indigent sick, or the rescue of a victim of drink from his own appetites, are justice. We may use the word justice, if we like, as the ancient Jews did, for deeds prompted by compassion and the altruistic or neighborly spirit, but this does not in the least alter their essential character.

Children should be protected, as the advocates of mothers' pensions insist, but the giving of a pension by the state to the mother does not constitute such protection, and, in a large majority of instances is not even a substantial contribution to this end. Children need protection

very often because of improper guardianship, or because of ignorance and neglect of parents, or because of their own physical defects or mental peculiarities, or because they are hard to manage and discipline and their parents even if perfectly respectable people are not good managers and disciplinarians; because of a hundred other reasons which have no earthly relation to income.

Children need protection sometimes because of poverty alone, but far less frequently than most advocates of mothers' pensions seem to imagine. If the poverty which does lead to a need for protection is due to any insurable risk such as death, sickness, or old age, or even the involuntary unemployment of the breadwinner, then that need should be met by insurance, in the expense of which industry must bear its due burden, the state and the insured also doing their part according to the principles of social insurance as they are being successfully worked out in foreign countries and in some of our states. With what unholy joy will the anti-social type of employer, who now throws his maimed and mangled workers, his exhausted, worn-out workers, and the widows and orphans of those whom he has slain, indiscriminately upon the scrap heap of public relief, welcome a movement which by changing the name of this relief to widows' pensions, makes it more palatable to the widows and to sentimental reformers, and thus gives the exploiters a new strangle-hold on the exemption privileges of which they are about to be deprived.

An income for widows, from a state administered fund, raised by the joint contributions of the insured and their employers, the burden lightly felt because widely distributed and borne in part by all of us who purchase the commodities in the manufacture of which the insured was engaged—that is the honorable income which I covet for every mother who is widowed by the death of an industrial worker. In the professions and in agriculture there are obvious analogous means of making similar provision. In the comparatively few instances in which, for any exceptional reason, insurance funds would not be applicable, we would have recourse to public relief, to organized charity, and to voluntary individual neighborly help. If there were time I would like nothing better than to enter upon a detailed defense of each of these three means of dealing with human distress. Each one may be inadequate in amount; often in individual instances most inadequate. If this were a charities conference instead of a social insurance conference I would be ready to discuss the remedy for that. Each, however—public relief, private charity, and neighborly help—has a long and honorable history, disfigured certainly, as all things human are disfigured, by abuses and failures; but redeemed again and again in every generation by great successes, by the reform of abuses, and by the patient, modest, unheroic performance of their daily functions.

Who are these sudden heroes of a brand new program of state subsidies to mothers that they have grown so scornful of poor relief administration, of religious alms, of a thousand forms of organized benevolence, of the charity which in all ages, organized and unorganized, has comforted the afflicted, fed the hungry, succored the widow and the fatherless, visited them that were sick and in prison, put out a hand to steady the steps of the inebriate, received the outcast, restored broken families, bound together in sacred bonds of human brotherhood the unfortunate of every description and those who could help them?

Who are these brash reformers who so cheerfully impugn the motives of old-fashioned givers, of the conscientious directors of charitable institutions, of pious founders of hospitals and all manner of benefactions?

I have no more right than any other to represent philanthropy as it has been understood by our fathers, no mandate to defend its representatives; but I cannot forbear to warn my friends who would lightly discard voluntary charity utterly from human society, that they are building upon the sand; that when they put their reliance entirely upon a self-contained, coercive system in which all the relief funds are raised by taxation and all are distributed arbitrarily on a per capita plan without reference to individual circumstances, without reference to the thrift or efforts of the individual, without reference to the co-operation of relatives, of trade unions, of churches, or neighbors, without reference to any charitable agencies or social resources, they are making a violent break with the historical evolution of human society, they are following a will-o-the-wisp.

They are just now having a heyday of popularity. Many laws they have secured, and others are on the way.

As a student of social economy I am much interested in these experiments. As a progressive and radical social reformer I deeply regret the painful steps which we shall certainly have to retrace.



ONE AND TWO ROOM DWELLINGS

High land values reflected in high rents, crowd thousands of the children of Los Angeles into dilapidated shacks in the courts.

THE HOUSE COURTS OF LOS ANGELES

WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS

FORMERLY HEAD RESIDENT, KINGSLEY HOUSE, PITTSBURGH

EVERY city has a housing problem which is in some respect peculiar and characteristic. In Los Angeles this is to be found in a prevalent type of "house courts." The city ordinance, providing for their regulation, defines such a court as follows:

"A parcel or area of land on which are grouped three or more habitations used or designed to be used for occupancy by families and upon which parcel or area the vacant or unoccupied portion thereof surrounding or abutting on said habitations is used or intended to be used in common by the inhabitants thereof. By habitation is meant a room or combination of rooms used or designed to be used for the occupancy of human beings."

In places thus described, a considerable part of the labor population of Los Angeles lives. There are recorded in the office of the city's housing commission today some 630 such courts. Within them are roughly 3,700 habitations, housing 10,000 or more people—Mexicans, Russians, Italians, Slavonians, Austrians, Chinese, Japanese and a scattering of some twenty other nationalities.

The dwellings in these courts present a great variety in general style and method of building. There are the old adobe houses, sometimes remodelled and in fair condition, though more often with ceilings, walls and floors in crumbling, dilapidated state, yet still yielding goodly rent to their owners. Some courts are cluttered with wooden shacks of every size and kind, big shed-like structures that house many people, and again mere boxes and shanties in which one family is crowded. The cheaply constructed shack of the desert homesteader is a substantial, durable building when compared with many of the tumbling, propped-up, grotesquely patched habitations in the courts of Los Angeles.

These unsightly places are not so numerous as they were a few years back. Some seven years ago Jacob Riis jarred the complacency of the community by stating that the district possessed congested and unwholesome housing conditions quite as bad, though not so extensive, as any city in the land. Through the efforts of the Municipal League and the College Settlement Association, a Housing Commission was appointed to better housing conditions. Somewhat ineffective in its early days, because it had no real authority and received no financial support from the city council, it has gradually dem-



OLD BUILDINGS AT 723 NORTH BROADWAY

Typical of the older buildings in many of the courts, these houses are not only dilapidated but have to be propped up. A good whiff of public sentiment would blow them away.



HOUSE COURT AT 742 NEW HIGH STREET

Twenty-two one-family dwellings on a lot 44 by 172 feet. These houses comply with a law that "aimed at reducing congestion of buildings and people on a given area." Practically one room to a family.



SUBURB DEVELOPED FOR MEXICAN LABORERS

An enterprising real estate firm very easily and profitably disproved the contention that the low-paid Mexican families did not care for better homes and gardens. Each family has a lot 50 by 150 feet. In the house courts this would hold 22 families.



A REAL HOME FOR $600

House and lot from $600 up, payable $25 down and $10 a month for both principal and interest. Reached by a five-cent car ride of less than half an hour from the courts shown on the opposite page where a two-room shack rents for $6.



THE OLD RED LIGHT DISTRICT

A prostitute formerly occupied each of the one-story pigeon-holes at the right. Their names are still on some of the doors. After the district was closed, the rooms were occupied by families. The Housing Commission has forced the vacating of many of them. Tumbling ceilings, crumbling walls, broken floors, sickening closets are the chief characteristics of the place.

onstrated its usefulness until now it has on its staff a paid secretary (whose duties are practically those of a chief inspector), four other inspectors and a clerk, all paid by the city.

The commission has had jurisdiction only over house courts, so that with such a working staff, it has been able to accomplish much. Considering the over-crowding in many of the courts, the inedaquate and ofttimes poorly constructed sanitary appliances, the yards and out-places are in fair condition. There is evidence, too, of much educational and social work on the part of the inspectors. The two women inspectors, especially, are "friendly visitors," quite as much as they are sanitary officers, and are undoubtedly of much service to the mothers and children of the courts. With such work but poorly developed on the part of the main charity organization of the city, it is fortunate that the inspectors have time as well as ability for this social side of their work.

Yet in spite of the fact that the Housing Commission has succeeded in having demolished many of the more unsightly of these courts, one may still walk many blocks in some parts of the city and see little else. And this, not on the outskirts but within a short distance of the city's public buildings. There, too, may be found newly constructed courts, conforming to the new housing laws, more esthetic in appearance than were the old ones, yet with the same congestion of people and even less of privacy of family life.

The ordinance which first gave definition to a house court, an ordinance designed to do away with the more glaring evils of the courts—also decreed that all such courts must leave unoccupied at least 30 per cent of the total ground area of the court. The ordinance was aimed at congestion of buildings. Yet its lack of specification as to how such vacant area should be distributed, has allowed the building of houses back to back, side by side, leaving rooms as dark, as sunless, as cheerless as in the worst type of cheap tenement. Shine as it may 365 days of the year in southern California, the sun will find no chink through which to enter here.

At 742 New High Street is a court recently constructed in strict accordance with the letter of the law. It runs through from street to alley. It has a frontage of 44 feet and a depth of 171 feet. Twenty-two one-story habitations, eleven on each side, open on the 30 per cent vacant space required by the law. Jammed against the rear are other buildings on adjoining lots, there being nothing to prevent either party building to the lot lines. The houses are in solid row, the rough battened board wall being the only separation of one family from another; light and air come only from the front. Two-room dwellings they are called—15 feet wide, 12 feet deep—such is the total floor space in each house. A rough board partition, extending but part way to the roof, with a hole for a door, separates five of these feet from the remaining ten. This is called the kitchen, and hence the two rooms. The ceiling is the shingled roof, almost flat. Sweat-boxes are they within, as the sun beats down upon them. Water closet accommodation conforms with the law. "There shall be," it says, "in every court, one men's closet for every ten men, and one women's closet for every ten women." They are here, three on one side of the court for women, three on the other for men. The framers of the ordinance evidently overlooked the children, yet many are here, of all ages. There shall be, again says the



ONE PROVISION FOR THE KIDDIES

A housing inspector, who concerns herself with the dwellers no less than with conditions of the buildings, has persuaded a friend to build this sand box in the center of one of the courts.

ordinance, one hydrant with hopper, for each three habitations. No size of hopper is specified. And so they are of a size that requires much practice and wonderful skill if one would dump a pail of water into them without spilling a good part of it on the ground. The court being of dirt, such "carelessness" on the part of the tenants means a yard soaked with sink slops and an atmosphere permeated with foul odors.

The entire building cost of these twenty-two "two-room habitations" was, as I was told by one in a position to know, $1,000. The rent is six dollars a month each, $132 a month in all. Only one was vacant at the time I visited them. There are other courts nearby, some better, some worse. There is an overcrowding of habitations on a given area of land and an overcrowding of people in the habitations.

Families of four or more live in these one- and two-room dwellings. The last report of the Housing Commission gives the maximum number of persons found in a one-room house as nine, and in a two-room house as ten. Let us hope that these were exceptional cases. Yet there is ample evidence of shocking overcrowding in many court dwellings. I have seen congested living conditions in many cities, yet never anything worse than I found in some of these courts. From one who for years has moved and worked among the people who live here, I heard gruesome stories of conditions under which children were born, yet not more unfavorable than those under which they live.

A tenement, even at its best, we often say, is a dubious place for childhood, a poor place for family and home life. Yet even worse in some respects are the housing conditions found in many of these courts. Their chief advantages over the tenement are that they represent less invested capital and so may more readily be replaced by better dwellings, that they give ready access to the ground, and that the fire hazards are greatly lessened. Privacy of home and family life in them is practically nil. Physical and moral degeneracy for the children is inevitable. Hospitals, juvenile courts, reformatories, jails, homes for the dependent and semi-dependent, orphan asylums and other like institutions will increasingly draw their inmates from them. Here will infectious and contagious disease find place to propagate, breed and spread. Such has been the plainly writ record of rotten and evil housing conditions in other cities—so will it be in Los Angeles.

Many of the courts are inhabited almost entirely by "Cholos". "They're used to it"—"they don't want anything different"—"the courts are good enough for them"—this was the point of view of some with whom I talked. I was not surprised. I had heard like arguments before—heard them in defense of miserable mill-owned tenements in New England; of unkempt, unsanitary courts and alleys in some of Pennsylvania's steel towns; of the squalid shacks and tenements in South Chicago; of the cellar dwellings and one-time privy-littered courts of Pittsburgh. And from long years of acquaintance and association with many people forced to live in such places, I know that statements which would impute to them lack of desire for more wholesome, more decent housing conditions are false. Fortunately, there is not wanting in Los Angeles some evidence of the response the Mexican will



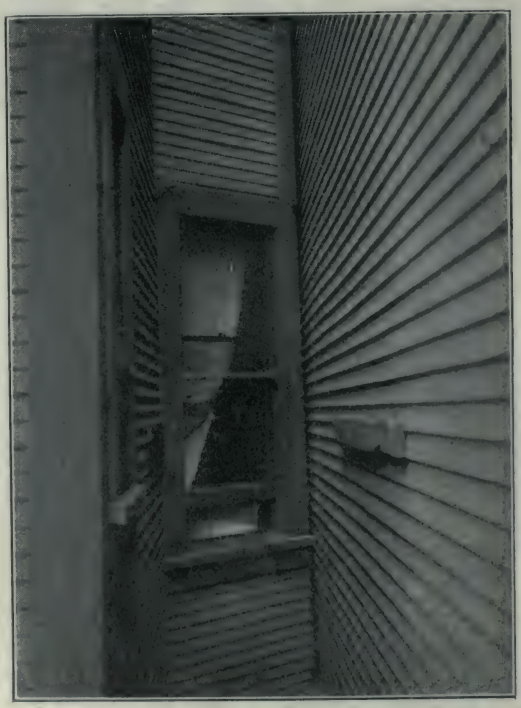
DECORATIONS

The unsightly and often unsafe wooden balconies of many tenements, rooming houses and store buildings are a great contrast to the rose-covered bungalow for which Los Angeles is known to the East.

make when given an opportunity to live and rear his family under decent conditions.

Some four years ago, one of the largest real estate companies of Los Angeles, which develops residential subdivisions, conceived the idea of subdividing a tract of land and selling the lots to Mexicans. The tract lies just outside the city limits and is reached for a five-cent car fare. Compared with many other tracts opened up in Los Angeles during the past few years for home building, the land is cheap, much of it being hillside. Undoubtedly this influenced the company in their experiment, if such it might be called. The lots were made large, the average being 50 by 105 feet. They were sold on the installment plan, twenty-five dollars down and ten a month including interest. The buyers might build their own dwellings or make arrangements with the company to build for them. The latter plan was adopted in several cases, house and lot being then sold for $600 up, according to size and character of building. Payments were arranged on the same basis as for the empty lots. The entire tract was sold in a comparatively short time. I asked the man who had managed the operation as to the results, how much trouble, if any, had been experienced in collecting payments; if any of the property had been turned back to the company. "Practically no trouble at all," he replied, "far less than in handling many other of our tracts." There are in the tract 300 or more families.

I spent a day going over the settlement. Many of the homes are garden spots, a wealth of flowers and vegetables providing an inspiring contrast to the hideous, jammed, foul-smelling courts of New High, Alameda, Olivera, North Broadway, and other streets near the heart of the city. From the hilltops in this part of the city, as in many other sections, one may see vast stretches of land that might be utilized for like purposes; he can but wonder why Los Angeles complacently allows evil and congested housing conditions to become established and to spread. It is not a new story, I know. In Los Angeles as in other American cities one may find the same reasons, the same explanation of such conditions—a tremendous increase in its immigrant population in a few years; excessive rents that make it necessary for many of the wage-earners to live in crowded places if they would live at all; land held at fictitious values, making it impossible for the poorer people to acquire it; greedy landlords whose profits are made large by the jamming of buildings and people on a lot; disinclination to make repairs on buildings occupying land held for speculative purposes; a willingness to exploit the weak, the ignorant and the helpless, and to consider the



BUILT TO THE LOT LINE

Many of the tenements and rooming houses in Los Angeles are jammed close together, containing inside rooms that have practically no direct access to light and air. The work of inspecting some 3,000 of such buildings falls upon one man.

immigrant only as so much flesh and muscle to be used in the rougher, unskilled lines of industry, in the digging of ditches and the building of railroads, with little or no thought for his social well being, his possibilities as a citizen or his value as a permanent worker.

Let it not be thought that all of the problems, all of the unfavorable conditions of housing in Los Angeles are to be found in these house courts. Tenements she has, more than 3,000 of them, and the number constantly increasing; rooming and lodging houses possessed of many inside rooms with little or no direct access to light or air. And in these again may be found a congestion and crowding like that in the courts. Over them the Housing Commission has had no jurisdiction. The work of inspecting all of the tenements, lodging and rooming houses, and hotels in the city is the duty of one man, working under the city's health department. A man thoroughly versed in laws of sanitation, a stickler for their observance, one may see excellent results of his work in the places he has been able to cover. Yet not in a year's time could he properly go once over his prescribed field. The greater part of his time today must be spent making the inspections required by new applications constantly filed for the conducting of rooming and lodging houses. By a new arrangement which went into effect July 1, the whole work of the Housing Commission is brought under the Health Department. The entire work of inspecting all courts containing two or more families, all tenements, apartments, lodging and rooming houses will be put into the hands of the commission, and there is much promise of more thorough, systematized work, more equal distribution of effort.

Yet, after all, the effort Los Angeles needs to make is toward scattering her work population, so as to wipe out and prevent such congestion as is found in the house courts. There are not wanting people in Los Angeles who see this need. Almost every week the papers report meetings of groups of people who dream of making their city "the city beautiful of the world," of making it a place not only where people of comfortable income may live under ideal conditions, but where every workingman may have opportunity to live and rear his family under fair conditions and wholesome surroundings, instead of in squalid shut-in alleys and courts or crowded tenements. "Let us have," they say, "a city without tenements, a city without slums." Yet Los Angeles already has both, as bad, I am inclined to believe, though not as extensive, as many older and larger cities.

With eager hope the city is looking forward to the opening of the Panama Canal, which will place her "some thousands of miles nearer to those sections of Europe most prolific of manual laborers," whose labor will be necessary to "the augmentation and diversification of industries which are certain to be established and conducted in their midst." If such is to be the case, then may Los Angeles well make haste to transform her dreams and hopes into action, if she would be saved the experience of many other cities, where increase of population has meant increase of slum conditions, of crowded, unsanitary courts, of dark rooms and halls, of overcrowded tenements, of evil and disease-producing lodging-houses. Let her beware of that false civic pride which would believe that everything is best in one's own city; "of a *laissez faire* housing policy which ever brings forth fruits of unrighteousness."



THE ONLY ONE OF ITS KIND

A house court of eight three-room cement houses which rent at an average of $15 a month—too expensive to cope with the laboring man's housing problem

THE REORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL WORK

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IT is stating merely what every one knows to affirm that social work at present lacks a plan to make it effective. Nor is it a matter of surprise that this state of confusion exists. Each new movement in the social field has represented the earnest but narrow views of a few individuals brought into harmony by some local evil. Naturally the suffering and poverty of the dependent and underpaid classes received first attention. Pity prompted charity, and its appeal was strongest where visible relief could be wrought. With the progress in medical science, a like appeal was made for hospitals that cured or relieved the sick and the injured. A third call was in favor of orphans, widows and the aged. Last, but not least, arose the demand that the insane, the pauper and the defective classes be humanely cared for. In these ways the philanthropy of our fathers showed itself, generously, but shortsightedly. The relief given resulted not in reduction, but in apparent increase in the number of its recipients.

The change from the old view to a consideration of constructive aspects of philanthropy has of late made progress. The constructive movement has not, however, been carried far enough, nor have its principles been thoroughly enough enunciated to bring either unity of program or harmony of effort. Each group in the philanthropic field still retains its own philosophy. It seeks its end without due consideration of, and often in opposition to, the views of others. To this confusion in the aims and plans of philanthrophy are now to be added the perplexities which arise from proposed social legislation. The recent upheaval of political thought is due to a demand for effective action on the part of the state to attain the ends which philanthropy has vainly endeavored to reach. The reduction of unemployment, the care for the aged, the prevention of disease, the protection of children, a living wage, and other related social solutions, will be essential parts of the program through which political parties appeal for popular support. The ends to be attained are so clearly before the public that effective remedies for long-standing evils must speedily be found. Every failure only serves to create a demand for more comprehensive measures. No evolution is too radical, nor the cost involved too great, if it is the only road from misery to prosperity.

The evils of disorganized work no longer arise from an inadequate perception of the work to be done nor of the field to be covered. We all see what is wanted only too clearly. The shortcoming is in the lack of co-ordination of the various agencies through which results are to be secured. Each agency is trying to do too much, and thus spreads its endeavors over fields where some other agency could be more effective if it had the field to itself and commanded the resources needed for the realization of its ends. Relief from these evils can come only from a comprehensive social philosophy giving a common philosophy to the various workers and to the public that supports them. It may be too early to effect so great an end, but some effort must be made to co-ordinate and limit social agencies which in isolation will only serve to alleviate suffering which might have been prevented. Surely some crude demarcation of the field of work is better than the waste, confusion and failure now apparent.

Let us divide then the work to be done, and then redistribute the workers so that each shall be in the field where his energy and enthusiasm will be aroused. At present, believers in state activity find themselves in charge of private philanthropies; settlement workers wake up to the fact that what they want can be secured only by state intervention; men are educated for the clergy only to find that their interests lie in social work; while others who thought their plans could be best promoted by prohibition and coercion, become conscious that the evolution of character has more interest to them than the mechanical aids to progress utilized by state action. A new alignment of fields and a new assignment of persons to them would give a vigor to movements and an enthusiasm to workers which in the present disorganized state of social work is out of the reach of those who have given their lives to the service of the common good.

The basis of any redistribution of work and workers must be sought by contrasting the ends of social endeavor. The first objective is income. We need support, and this must come from personal effort. As income is secured by contact with some environment, the improvement of environments is the second important social end to be attained. In contrast to these

external means is the process of self-development, called character. Improvement in income, in environment, and in character thus constitute the visible social ultimates. If they are not definite goals, they are at least pathways so important that consideration of them and an analysis of their mutual relations must precede a study of those social aims not yet clearly defined. Each of these ends has a particular agency for its advancement. Income is secured through industry; the environment is modified through state action; and character is improved through voluntary effort.

I do not affirm that these statements are self-evident, or mutually exclusive, or that they should be accepted as final distinctions. It is better to begin by showing the relation between each end and its dominant agency, leaving the interrelations for subsequent discussion. No one would deny that income comes from industry, and grows as industry is improved. A few generations ago it would also have been said that industry was the main agency for environmental improvement. Today, the emphasis has been changed; not only do we think of environmental changes as needing governmental action, but it is a widely prevalent doctrine that governmental regulation is needed to make industry effective. This is equally true in problems involving the distribution of wealth. Stepping beyond this disputed field, it can at least be said that governmental action is the accepted medium for extensive alteration in the environment. If a Panama Canal is to be dug, or the spread of disease is to be prevented, no agency in carrying forward the work is effective except the state. It has an undisputed field where harmful agencies are to be eliminated, or new elements are to be injected into the local environments in which men live and work. Income and environment can thus be contrasted as ends, the agencies for the improvement of which are industry and the state.

So much is clear even if industry at times improves the environment and the state on other occasions interferes with industry. It is more difficult to contrast environment with character, and thus seperate state from voluntary action. A clue to the difference is obtained by recognizing that environmental changes act on the principle of exclusion and inclusion. We get rid of disease by removing it from any contact with us. We likewise incorporate a new feature into our environment by bringing it in contact with all people. An environmental change thus reaches all within its realm, and acts on all at the same time. For such alterations the state is an effective agent, and often the sole agent. Character changes come, not in this wholesale way but by personal contact. Each individual alters favorably the characters of the few persons with whom he comes in touch. He must rely on them to extend his influence. If in the end the whole society is altered, it is through a series of personal contacts that move, wavelike, from person to person, from locality to locality, from group to group, and from nation to nation. When a canal is dug or the mosquito excluded, the environment is altered for all time. But a character change spreads slowly from person to person, and must, to remain effective, be incorporated into the social tradition and handed on to each generation.

The extent of the group through which character waves move varies with the type of the contact, but it is always small when compared with the arena of environmental modification. Sometimes the contact is made personally, as when a Mark Hopkins sits at one end of a log and a Garfield at the other; sometimes it is brought in a lecture room or an art gallery; sometimes the high aim is accomplished through a hymn, a drama, or oration; it may even come from an athletic contest or a religious revival. But it is always a contact growing in intensity with proximity and the magnetism of the giving. The work of character-building is never completed; it is renewable and renewed, but not constructed or inherited. Voluntary effort is effective in personal contact and in group action. It loses its efficacy when great objective alterations are demanded. Efficacy in social evolution demands that the state action required for great environmental changes be complemented by voluntary action when waves of personal influence are needed to advance civilization.

To make this analysis effective demands a study of the factors on which industry, government and character depend. The first two have so often been explained that further work in this direction is not needed. The factors in character-making are, however, obscure. Perhaps it would be more correct to say that the word itself has no definite meaning. I shall therefore start at its elements, so that each factor may receive distinct enunciation and take a definite place in a scheme of character-building. I shall divide, therefore, the factors making for character into groups, each of which has its own background and a distinct mode of expression. This division does not, however, deny that ends may be attained in different ways. The degree of completeness with which each end is reached varies with the effectiveness of each factor in that direction. Certainty of results is secured when they co-operate. This happens only in the highest types of character.

The earliest recognized factor in character-building is *emotional negation*. What men should not do is sooner recognized than what is demanded of them in action. Crude restraints may always be given an emotional setting which

adds to their effectiveness. No one can be said to have character unless there is something he will not do. Every harmful impulse in environment or in human nature can be checked in this way. Protection of life and property and cordial social relations can also be attained by a restrictive code. Out of these negations grow up the tenets of primitive morality, and from them much of the religious dogma takes its rise. The Ten Commandments are negations. The virtues of sacrifice, meekness, sobriety and thrift thus get their repeated emphasis and power. The painful is avoided; the lure of unsocial pleasure is curbed; and the future is given an emphasis which otherwise belongs to the present. All asceticism is emotional and negative. So powerful are these negations that they are often regarded all of morality, but they are really only its beginning.

The next advance may be termed *budgetary pressure.* Every person or family, with an income above the minimum of subsistence has a budget through which income and outgo are equalized. Items of expenditure are thus entered on a scale upon which they are measured. The intenser wants are first satisfied; when they are indulged, other wants rise in the scale and are in turn gratified. Upon each income level there are new wants to be satisfied, and in the process definite restraints on other expenditures are set which force character-building.

Budgetary restraints are, however, only relative; they are not prohibitions like those imposed by emotional negations. An increase of income, the rise of new wants, or a change of situation may transform the relatively bad into the good, and thus make its consumption advantageous. The increased freedom is, however, only temporary. With the emergence of higher wants a new group of restraints is imposed, through which what was formerly consumed in freedom is now limited in amount or entirely discarded. In the early economic societies work is endured only to secure food or strong drink. Those who toil are always better than the idle, even if riotous living is the result. Saving for productive ends checks these crude excesses, and creates an uplift by its increased productivity and the limits set to indulgence. The desire for a home sets new limits on consumption and adds additional motives for work. With the growth of the textile industries a greater variety in clothing becomes possible, and its possession is an attractive force. Restraints are thus set to eating and drinking, and character undergoes alteration and extension. The change from superabundant food to a plain diet with no stimulants is due to the relatively increasing power of new wants. Vocational education likewise creates a shift in human wants, and upbuilds character by the restraints its expense imposes on wants which would otherwise be dominant.

To this process there is no end. Each increase of productive power, each increase in the variety of daily consumption, each new hope of a social uplift through co-operative enterprise, arouses new motives for action, and creates additional restraints. Budgetary pressure thus grows intense with the advance of civilization, and is a growing factor in the moral regeneration of society. There is, however, a region beyond where its action must be supplemented and strengthened to make morality effective.

This field which interest and emotion fail to control is made obscure by a useless contrast of the material and the immaterial. Where antecedent and consequence are not visibly connected it seems to add to the force of character to assert a freedom from control. This denial leaves men without recognized means of improving character except for those crude emotional appeals which fail more often than they succeed. The problem of psychic life is not whether it is persistent—for this conceded—but whether or not it is mechanical. A machine is something that repeats its movements. There is a persistency in the repetition of established sequence. What is once done is done again until the machine wears out. The persistent manifestation of a simple phenomenon, and the persistent repetition of established sequences are so different that they would not have been confused but for the narrow views of matter formerly held. Character gains by the persistence of its elementary phenomena. It loses only when psychic action becomes mechanical.

Heredity has established a multitude of sequences which have the precision of external events. Prominent among these are the instincts which, when aroused, repeat the movements established for them by heredity. When we turn from them to the *motor impulses,* a field is reached in which the sequences have not been established, or at least they are not so apparent. A motor impulse may be called a mechanism in the formation. This statement implies that all mental mechanisms are established in the process of bodily growth. If so, there was a time when they were not yet mechanical. The sequence of growth is from plasticity to mechanical action, and then to a senile condition where the mechanism is defective because too mechanical. The plastic has too many impulses to activity, the mechanical creates regular movements in useful directions, while the senile falls short of effective action. Plastic brain cells thus have motor impulses that are not mechanical.

To follow one's impulses means to try to do something for the execution of which heredity has no mechanism. The end of the impulses must be secured by indirect action that uses es-

tablished mechanisms in new ways. Shall I strive to do what I cannot do mechanically, or shall I confine my endeavors to fulfill the established ends of my heredity? This is one way to state the problem of character-building. Another way is to ask: "What have I to gain by following inchoate impulses instead of instincts and habits which have proved their usefulness?" Is the ant with its mechanical behavior better adjusted than a man with vague desires to do something for which he is not bodily fitted? These are not problems of matter versus spirit, but of the completeness of human heredity and of the desirability of rigid place adjustment as contrasted with a driving impulse to enter some larger, less definite environment. What part of our energies should we use to secure effective present adjustment, and what part for future ends not secured by our mechanical activities? This is the problem of personal evolution stripped of the controversies that philosophy has imposed.

If motor impulse is recognized as a factor in character-building, its relation to surplus energy is important. The amount of energy shown by an individual varies with the state of his health, his age and the presence or absence of toxins in his system. The variations in amount are so sudden and seemingly disconnected with bodily states that it is difficult to get men to recognize them as due to physical conditions. Periods of elation and depression follow each other in such unaccountable ways that their connection with surplus energy is obscured. It is nevertheless true that variations in energy lie back of bodily states, and that the impulse to act does not come except as it reflects rising states of energy. Each healthy part accumulates a store of energy, which impells such action as will lead to the discharge of this energy.

The body is a group of mechanisms, each of which has in its evolution acquired some useful function. Were these completed mechanisms all the mechanisms in the bodies and brains of men, automatic action would dominate. But in addition to these complete and useful mechanisms there are many imperfect or degenerate parts. An organ useful to our ancestors may in its present action be disjustive, yet vestiges of it are existent, which may be aroused by a superabundant supply of energy. So also other partially formed organs which may be useful to our descendents, at present merely waste surplus energy, with no return in utility or advantage. With a normal flow of energy the complete organs are vitalized; when diseased the degenerate organs are active; while in states creating more than the normal amount of energy, the plastic parts are stimulated into activity.

Motor impulse is thus the activity of parts, which have not as yet become mechanical enough to play a useful role in the survival of their possessor. Mechanical action preserves organisms; all the normal flow of energy is needed to carry on the necessary acts of daily life. Economic activities are especially effective in forcing the flow of energy into mechanical channels. Fewer organs are used as work becomes specialized, and more of the available energy is forced into these narrow groves. The contrast between vocational training and athletic exercise shows the principles that control the flow of energy. Training in any specific direction narrows by causing fewer parts to become active. On the other hand, exercise resting the overtaxed organs arouses vigor in the neglected parts. If such exercise is beneficial, a like activity of all parts of the brain has a similar advantage. Motor impulse is the index of broader mental activity. Checking the action of the overwrought mechanical parts it gives a chance for growth to the plastic centers. The problem of evolution is to decentralize activity, and so make real each of the mind's potentialities. Over-centralization destroys plasticity, every broadening of activity checks that organic growth which brings on senility.

If motor impulse did nothing but delay the oncoming of old age, its encouragement would be advisable. It has, however, another important end. Man by heredity is a timid animal; he lacks the natural aggressiveness characteristic of the wolf and the lion. Fear is predominant in states of depression, while aggression is a natural outcome of a condition of surplus energy. Motor impulse is obviously aggressive. It leads to the trying of new ways and gives a new tone to personal aspirations. It thus has a function in the mechanical struggle upon which success depends.

Organic evolution in each person goes through three stages—youthful plasticity, mechanical completeness, and senile degeneration. Surplus energy furnishes the material; motor impulse gives the direction; environmental pressure transforms plastic beginnings into definite mechanisms. Motor impulse thus has not only an organic, but also a social significance; it develops mechanisms assuring social progress, as well as those aiding individual survival. Impulse may be directed toward ideals of social survival and improvement in the attainment of which the individual does not participate. The future thus becomes incorporated in the present, and the energy of men goes out as readily in one direction as in the other.

These impersonal ends may be termed *social enthusiasms*. To those with surplus energy they become a means of improving character and reshaping its aims. Each generation sees more distant goals and brings its ideals nearer the realm of reality. When literature is socialized; when

poetry vitalizes social ends,—this final element in character-building will be a definite realization of the larger self. Personal needs shape character in its early stages of formation; they lose their force as thought is broadened and the imagination becomes more vivid. Each new stage narrows the scope of its predecessors, and sets bounds to their activity. The personal must yield to the social as the pleasure of use is displaced by the joy of action.

Above the material is the mechanical; above the mechanical is the process of socialization and standardization; and above society is the completed personality that dominates them all. It is the apex of character growth, and the one thing without which it cannot exist. Each mechanism and each social force receive additional limitations as character forms new apexes to the pyramid made by its endeavors. Nothing is free but the will made by the evolution of personality. The more character grows, the more definite are its elements, the clearer is their working seen, and the plainer are the deductions that we can make of their action.

Industry supports, and the state environs, what the builder of character evokes. The first two act on general conditions and effect their results by the changes that are wrought in the whole society. They are exclusive and compelling. They bring benefit to all, or they exclude widespread evils by new restrictions. In contrast to these character is propagated by contact; the groups in which it is active are small; the means of its extension are uncertain; yet if the obstacles are faced with enthusiasm they yield enough to permit character impulses to pass to other groups. The makers of character are thus workers in restricted fields. They cannot strike down evils with one blow, nor bring in a Utopia by striking revolutions. Teachers and social workers can, however, in time hope to acquire the influence of state officials, and as a group surpass them in the uplift they cerate.

I can now return to my main thesis. There are three phases of social endeavor—industry, government and voluntary effort,—each of which has a field where it is effective, and into which those workers should go whose interests take them in this direction. To see clearly the fields open and to pick an appropriate one adds much to each worker's efficiency. Every good cause would gain by such insight. It can also be conceded that the century ahead will be a century of state activity without detracting from what has been said of the importance of voluntary effort and character-building. The urgent reforms are those that alter the environment, which imposes so many maladjustments.

I shall, therefore, outline two programs in one of which the state is the leading agent, in the other voluntary effort is demanded. The first is a program of conservation. Its end is to remove obstacles to a social uplift that the environment or the lack of environment creates. The abolition of poverty, the removal of disease, the upbuilding of health, the redistribution of population and the increase of vocational efficiency are its leading features. In social legislation it is expressed in the measures for,

1. Industrial stability.
2. Regularity of employment.
3. A minimum wage.
4. Segregation of the physically defective.
5. The exclusion of disease germs.
6. Prohibition of child labor.
7. Efficient schools.
8. Prolongation of the working period.

Such measures conserve more than they uplift. Disease, poverty, inefficiency and degeneracy make men miserable, but their absence does not insure evolution. Social progress as contrasted with conservation includes problems of

Prosperity.	Culture.
Conservation.	Efficiency.
Health.	Association.
Eugenics.	Philogenetics.

In the first group are problems of industry and state regulation. The second depends for its effectiveness not on wealth and environmental improvements, but on personal contacts. Here voluntary action has its place, and those to whom it appeals can find a wide field of effort and enterprise.

In the above table I have used a new word. Many readers doubtless expected philanthropy to have the final place, as about it have clustered the voluntary efforts for the upbuilding of society. Philanthropy, however, does not fit into any related scheme of progress. It represents the crude beginnings of unorganized effort before the ends of social progress were seen. Lovers of mankind were to be found in every age, but effective improvers of men are of a newer generation. Emphasis must therefore be changed from sympathy, pity, and relief to constructive measures of character improvement. Philogenetics brings to the fore the dominating motive for social advance. Evolution, reaching out in every direction, defies definition. It is, however, more growth than conservation, and should be contrasted with the policies of relief and conservation made emphatic by philanthropy.



SOCIAL JUSTICE

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS
AT THE FORTIETH MEETING OF THE
NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND
CORRECTION
SEATTLE, JULY 5-12

FRANK TUCKER
NEW YORK

HISTORY records no more vivid, startling and dramatic period in the life of a nation than the four decades marked by this fortieth meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, because of the greatness of the industrial changes that have taken place. The men and women who year after year have gathered here have been vital forces in bringing the nation face to face with its greatest problems.

The conference as a forum has been a national conscience. Year after year the experience and knowledge gained in daily contact with poverty, crime, physical and mental disability have been poured out. Year after year has seen a growing revolt against the dogmas that the poor would always be with us and that man was inherently depraved. Year after year the word prevention has been heard louder and louder, the demand for the cause has become more insistent. Year after year new experiments in constructive social effort have been reported here. The message has been taken back to hundreds of other communities and stimulated them to effort. A national organ of social work has grown to a circulation of thousands, indicative of the growing interest in social and economic conditions. What other nation can point to a magazine like THE SURVEY?

But has all this constructive work, this research into the causes of poverty and crime caused lack of interest in the care of the prisoner, the insane, the drunkard, the prostitute? On the contrary, hand in hand with the desire and effort to prevent poverty and crime has gone the insistence that all that relates to institutional and home care shall be put on an efficiency basis. The change that has taken place in the national conference is not that it has laid aside its first interest but rather that it has added to its first interest another so large that it must inevitably result in a third and still more difficult task.

The first interest of this conference was the care of the dependent and the defective, primarily as a state function. To help the poor and punish the wicked, this was the prevalent conception of the function of the state. That it should be done humanely was the work of the philanthropist. The problem was comparatively simple because then our civilization was simple. A change began almost imperceptibly. The population—notably in the cities—grew rapidly. Industrial expansion gathered headway. Labor began to agitate. Greater public works to meet increasing public needs were undertaken. The economic results of seasonal occupation became apparent. The American genius for organization realized the enormous financial possibilities in organizing the sources of supply for the daily needs of life and began exploiting them. The same genius recognized the enormous value of natural resources to a growing population which had treated them with the prodigality of a spendthrift, and began acquiring them. Land values rose and rents with them. Educational and cultural forces created new necessities of life even among those of least earning capacity. Under the pressure to spend, old habits of thrift were swept away. Standards of compensation were slow to respond—they had been fixed under simpler conditions of life and custom held them fast. The equilibrium of thousands of families became so sensitive that an economic disturbance was immediately reflected in the status of the family. The problems of public

and private agencies dealing with dependency became acute. More efficient methods were demanded to deal with vice and crime.

It was at this point in our national development that the men and women whose interest in philanthropic work brought them into control of social agencies as trustees, managers and directors, realized the necessity for a different type of executive to make their organizations efficient in handling their problems. This realization brought into the field of social work men and women of training both by education and world contact. The cry for the trained worker became country-wide. Training schools were started. The trained worker meant the trained thinker and the trained thinker wants to know why? New groups came into the field of philanthropic endeavor, the settlement workers, the doctors and trained nurses, the lawyers, representatives of capital and labor. New activities grew out of new knowledge and new groups of trained men and women executives contributed their expert knowledge on housing, health, factory work, labor of women and children, recreation, vocational training, labor conditions, occupational diseases, dangerous occupations, the living wage, the essentials of a normal standard of life, insurance, the right to rest one day in seven. More and more pronounced became the conviction that the individual dependent and the individual violator of the law were not an unhappy necessity, but an expression of unsound social and economic conditions.

The national conference had reached the stage when preventive philanthropy became its dominant note. It had reached the stage when its formulation of the causes of poverty and crime became much more definite—crystallized as inefficient and dishonest government, inefficient education, exploitation of labor, exploitation of the physical and economic necessities of every-day life, exploitation of weaknesses of character. For which causes some of the best and some of the worst of our countrymen, from captains of industry to the ward boss controlling organized vice, were equally guilty.

The men and women of this conference began to search for remedies. Their first demand was for a standard of living which should recognize certain essentials for a normal family and community life. From essentials to their cost; from the cost of essentials to a living wage; from the setting up of standards to the demand for minima—these were the inevitable steps in this evolution of our attitude towards poverty and crime.

It had taken many years to get as far as this and the steps had been irregular and halting. The next step came quickly and it was rather a giant's leap.

It needed but the grouping of economic propositions deduced from the discovery of new social facts to make the social workers group of the country realize that preventive philanthropy privately expressed was but as a straw beating against Gibraltar to break down the forces of greed, selfishness, ignorance, unsound tradition, and unsocial interpretation of law. The state had a new function to perform—it must prevent poverty and crime, not alone care for the one and punish the other. It must prevent by law, by constructive action, and by encouraging the co-operation of private social effort. Then the murmurings which had been faintly heard for several years, "Not charity but justice," swelled into a mighty cry for "social justice" that roared through the nation.

Within sixty days from the adjournment of the National Conference in Cleveland a year ago the problems of life which it had been investigating, formulating and discussing were the issues in the most significant presidential campaign in half a century. Many of those identified with leadership in the conference went into political action to make effective their social beliefs. Some assisted at the birth of a new party brought into life with a fervor that was religious; some aided to give a new objective to a party whose course had long been erratic; and some clung to the wreck of the once dominant political power believing its machinery could be made effective to bring about social and economic reforms.

When the national conference closed its sessions in Cleveland one year ago I believe it closed the second era of thought and discussion in its history. When that great cry for social justice went up from the nation in the campaign of 1912 it meant that poverty, crime, disease, misery and unhappiness existed in a land of abundance, that government had in part failed in its functions, in part failed to realize its opportunities and responsibilities and that the people themselves had failed to adjust themselves and their organized mechanisms for supplying their needs to the complexities of modern life.

But to cry for social justice is easy, to attain it a long and wearisome journey. It seems definite, but it is reached only by the individual doing the thousand and one commonplace things that make up the daily routine of life according to ideals of unselfish fairness, by the family conducting its relations with its neighbors according to ideals of unselfish co-operation, and by the community demanding that its common needs, its common acts, and its common property shall be met, controlled and administered with efficiency and ideals of service.

I believe the third era in the life of the national conference has begun. I believe that the new era will concern itself with constructive

discussion for a program to bring about the health, efficiency, happiness and welfare of individual, family and community. A discussion that will lead to the standardizing of hazy, formless ideals into definite action by individuals, families and communities in their daily routine of life which will mean health, material welfare, happiness in reasonable recreation, intelligent knowledge of this world and its natural and human forces, and intellectual freedom to search for new knowledge.

This state of existence, brought about by individual, family and community acts, based on ideals of honesty, efficiency and service we may well call social justice. To obtain it means coordinating and standardizing all social effort. That can most effectively come about through a common meeting place for discussion. That meeting place will continue to be the National Conference of Charities and Correction. We must expect to be the melting pot from which our knowledge and ideals will flow into new programs of constructive action.

If we have been largely responsible for compelling the cry for social justice, we are responsible for defining it and helping to bring it about.

Social justice, it seems to me, is a state of community life which is in equilibrium maintained by rules of conduct called law. The law and its enforcement are the results of community knowledge, ideals and efficiency, brought about by education. This state of social equilibrium does not exclude cultural and economic contrasts in families and individuals. It does exclude cultural and economic extremes and it is part of the law, a community act, to prevent these extremes of knowledge and ignorance, of wealth and poverty, in individuals. It does exclude the university and the college for the few while there is half time in the primary schools for thousands. It does exclude the possibility of a single individual accumulating five hundred millions of dollars through the ordinary processes of industry or finance; it does demand that a family shall not be hopelessly doomed to progressive deterioration by an inadequate wage. It does not exclude the possibility of variations in income or capital provided they are brought about by effort, energy, knowledge legitimately exercised or risk fairly taken.

Social justice demands minima below which no individual or family, fit to be a member of a community, shall be expected to exist. It puts no limit on knowledge, wealth or power, provided they are not acquired at the expense of the weaker or used for their exploitation. Social justice on the contrary, demands that knowledge, wealth and power be used for raising the minima of life in their every-day physical and intellectual expression. A world-old struggle! Yes, but never so nearly attained before, because never has a nation so young, so free from traditions and prejudices, realized and crystallized the issue so clearly. Never before have the minima of life been so definitely formulated by the toilers of all kinds and never before have wealth, power and knowledge so freely acknowledged their responsibility for the welfare of the weaker.

What are these minima that social justice demands? Let us list them in terms of every-day needs:

1. A Living Wage

Social justice says the very least among us shall be paid enough to have for himself and his family education, adequate housing, sufficient food, simple clothes, fuel, light and transportation, reasonable recreation, health, care and protection, insurance against death and disability. It says that enough shall be paid him to maintain a standard of living which shall have all these essentials to the degree that each individual of the family may exist as a healthy human being, morally, mentally and physically. Social justice says that the living wage must be fixed by intelligent co-operation in the full knowledge that the community ultimately pays the price if the wage is inadequate to maintain a normal standard of life.

2. Reasonable Working Hours and Conditions of Work

Social justice demands that the worker in office, factory, shop or mine, shall not be destroyed or disabled, or his working years shortened. It demands that the number of hours of continuous work shall be reasonably limited; that there shall be one day's rest in seven; that occupational diseases shall be studied and preventative mechanisms and processes arbitrarily provided and their use enforced; that the home shall not be turned into a sweatshop, bakeshop, food factory, candy factory or cannery; that there shall be light, air, sanitary conveniences as well as safety appliances for machinery in every factory, foundry and workshop. It demands that industry shall be the means through which we realize the joy of living, not the agency for physical, mental and moral degradation and destruction. Social justice demands that community ideals of a normal life set the standards for industry and not an employer who is selfish and ignorant or a workman who is reckless and ignorant.

3. Education

Social justice demands that every one shall be trained to be efficient as a producer and a consumer and effective and intelligent as a community member. It encourages scientific and cultural education and utilizes and rewards

its products. Social justice encourages, needs, can only exist by contrasts in knowledge, but it demands a definite minimum of knowledge for all.

4. Housing

Social justice demands that the housing of the lowliest shall have sanitary and housekeeping necessities, shall not be over-crowded and shall be procurable at a reasonable price. It does not prohibit the congregate house, but it forbids a city of congregate houses without playgrounds for the children. Social justice does note exclude the mansion of the millionaire, but demands that it shall be an appreciation of the value of the fine arts. It likewise demands that the mansion shall be taxed with due regard to its cost when the tenement is taxed on the basis of its earning capacity.

5. Food

Social justice demands that the lowliest shall have sufficient food. It demands that neither the raiser nor the consumer of food shall be exploited. It demands that food shall be pure and unadulterated; that it shall be sold by honest weight and measure; that it shall not be wasted. It demands that its production, storage, distribution and consumption shall be under the direction of the most efficient and scientific men that the community can enlist. Social justice demands that this great elemental necessity of life shall be treated with respect and dignity by all and that all the community power and resourses shall be used in its production, transportation, storage and sale. Social justice does not exclude indigestion in the millionaire even though it sometimes suffers in consequence, but it demands a minimum of it in the toiler because it destroys his efficiency.

6. Clothes

Social justice demands that clothes shall be honest, simple and appropriate. It frowns upon extravagance, exaggeration and constant change. It forbids the wanton destruction of birds and animals to gratify a senseless vanity. It encourages the effort to make the necessaries of clothes beautiful in appearance, substantial in quality and reasonable in cost. It commands the intelligent to set an example of simplicity and dignity. It does not exclude the fur coat for the millionaire, but it does demand an honest suit of wool for the worker.

7. Health

Social justice demands that the individual be taught from the time of first understanding the elements of health preservation; to know the danger signals of disease; that he shall be taught the value of sound expert advice and that he shall have the means to employ it; that he shall be taught to spot a quack and shun him; to look askance upon patent medicine curealls; that he shall know the problems of sex and have a holy horror of venereal disease.

Social justice demands that the family place right up near the top of its budget the item for the preservation of health and realize how large it must be; it likewise demands that standards of compensation must be based on knowledge of the size of this item. It prescribes the worship of health as a part of the family religion. It says that to the illuminated prayer "God Bless Our Home" there shall be added in equally vivid letters: "He will if you keep clean and healthy because then ye shall have power to wrestle with all things human."

Social justice demands that chiefest among community effort shall be the preservation of health, the prevention of disease, the care of the sick and injured, the custodial care of the insane and feeble-minded, the education and training of doctors and nurses, research into the causes of disease. It demands that through community action we know the cause of scarlet fever, measles, mumps, whooping cough, appendicitis, cancer, tuberculosis, and rheumatism. Social justice demands research as well as care by the state. Social justice applauds the magnificent gifts of private wealth to the cause of medical research and appreciates that expression of social responsibility, but it warns the community that it must not rely on private effort alone.

8. Recreation

Centuries of experience have taught us that man must and will play; it has taught us that to be efficient in work there must be the hours of interested idleness. Experience has further taught us that this impelling desire for recreation in its widest meaning is one of man's elemental needs most easily exploited for gain by the vicious and brutal. Social justice demands that the child have due opportunity to learn to play; that the family must provide for the cost of recreation in its budget; that standards of compensation must recognize the cost of recreation; that the community must exercise its power to provide opportunities and facilities for play and recreation through the whole gamut of recreation possibilities from tag to opera. Social justice does not exclude the yacht, the automobile, the polo pony, the picture gallery or the private engagement of the operatic star from the millionaire's scheme of recreation, but it demands that all shall have a playground, a park, a bathing beach, a dance hall, an art collection, and music and the drama in all their forms of expression. Social justice demands that recreation shall be a part of the scheme of life in every individual, family and community. Its minima are easily formulated; its limits are set by idleness and viciousness.

9. Security of Life and Economic Status through Social Insurance

Experience has taught us that society always pays the bill for its injustice, its inefficiency, its neglect to face equally the problems of life and to organize to deal with them. If we don't pay to prevent we do pay to care for the results of our neglect. The cost of custodial care in prisons, asylums, hospitals and almshouses, as well as of relief outside the institution, is vastly greater in the long run than the cost of organized prevention. Provision against industrial disaster which may mean a worker killed, maimed, disabled or out of work is one of the demands of social justice. That there shall be insurance against loss of earning power shall be a budget item with every family, that its cost shall be recognized in fixing standards of compensation, that it shall be provided at the lowest possible cost by either state action or private enterprise or both looms large among the demands of social justice. It does not exclude the million dollar policy for the rich man any more than it excludes him in the scheme of life, but says that not he alone but all workingmen shall have insurance protection against accident, sickness, old age and death.

10. Transportation, Heat and Light

Here are three necessities that bulk large in the daily life of the city dweller. It is pitiful to find what a proportion of the family budget it takes to provide these necessities even in a most limited way. Social justice demands that these daily necessities of life shall not be exploited. It does not deny to the millionaire his automobile or horses, his open hearth and wood fire, or his beautifully softened electric light, but it does demand that the trolley cars shall be clean, frequent and run at a three-cent fare instead of five if the lower fare is financially possible; it does require that heat and light shall be furnished to the humblest home by efficient methods, and at prices that represent a reasonable return on an actual investment of capital. If private enterprise will not furnish these needs on these terms, social justice demands that efficient men inspired by the spirit of service shall devote themselves to heading the community's own organization for providing them.

11. Government

To reach that state of social equilibrium which we cry for as social justice, we must broaden and make more definite our conception of the mechanism we create to manage our common affairs and which we call government. Government consists of three things: the law we enact to regulate our common acts and provide for our common needs; the physical property required for our common acts and needs; and the personnel, the men and women hired to work for the community. To the extent that we attain wisdom in making laws; to the extent that we purchase, use and preserve honestly and efficiently the real and personal property of the community; and to the extent that the community employes from president to street sweeper are efficient and inspired by ideals of service, just so far and no farther shall we go on our road to social justice.

What progress are we making toward social justice through government? Never before in our history has such a mass of legislation, most of it ill thought out and badly drafted, been offered for the benefit of the people. It is the inevitable response to the cry for social justice offered by the fake reformer and the incompetent legislator, and with our national tendency to search for panaceas that will stop the pain and cure the disease at once, we are storing up for ourselves economic and social diseases that will become painfully apparent when the legislative narcotic has failed to work. Let me beg of the social workers of the country never to suggest or support a legislative bill until its language has been made exact and its effects have been studied to their minutest ramifications. We are insane for the act of legislation; we are feeble-minded in failing to realize that only the broadest legislation on human relations and conduct can be enforced and to demand that the multifarious details of human relations and conduct shall be adjusted and carried on according to individual and community character and standards.

We cannot have social justice if the billions of money we are spending for community property is wasted or stolen. The burden of community waste and dishonesty falls heaviest upon the man of minimum earning capacity who, social justice demands, shall have items in his budget for recreation, health preservation, insurance and savings.

We cannot have social justice if the personnel of government, the men and women whom we hire to do the community work, are wasteful, dishonest and inefficient; if they conduct our work for their personal gain and are not inspired with the spirit of professional and community service. Community employes will be just what community character and standards demand they shall be. If we think of the mayor as the community business manager, of the superintendent of schools as the guardian of educational efficiency, of the city engineer as the promoter of a pure water supply, adequate sewage and garbage disposal, substantial paving, economical lighting; of the health officer as the guardian of community health; of the comptroller as the watchdog of the treasury and the

producer of the fiscal facts of government; and demand that they be technically efficient and inspired with ideals of service we shall get them. And until we get them we cannot have social justice.

Men are not born free and equal. They never have been and they never will be. No one is free. In community life we are all interdependent. It is easy for that interdependence to sink into economic slavery if the powerful, the rich and the unscrupulous are permitted to manipulate government, to exploit labor, physical and economic necessities, weaknesses of character, and ignorance. Men are not equal one with the other either in physical or mental strength, training or knowledge. Education will prevent the extremes but it will never produce equality in physique or knowledge. Community standards embodied in wise law will help to give equality of opportunity.

Social justice demands a sense of social stewardship on the part of those of larger knowledge and power and calls upon them to lead the fight against the selfish financial purposes of those economically powerful and those socially destructive.

Social justice demands that workers, of every class, grade and occupation shall be honest, sincere and faithful; efficient as workers and as community members.

Can we hope for a social equilibrium here in America which embodies and is built on social justice? Yes, if we deal with the problems of industry and finance with wisdom; yes, if we have an enlightened attitude towards government; yes, if community character is the resultant of individual and family character and ideals; yes, if there is a sense or social stewardship on the part of those of larger knowledge and power for those of restricted life.

FIRST AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL INSURANCE

I. M. RUBINOW

[*Dr. Rubinow, statistician of the Ocean Accident and Guarantee Corporation and one of the leading students and advocates of social insurance in this country, believes that this first conference, held in Chicago on June 6 and 7, although elementary in many ways, is the precursor of a great awakening in the United States to the importance of the subject.*

The International Congress of Social Insurance, which has been in existence for twenty-four years and has been the source of much of the social legislation of Europe, is to meet for the first time in the United States in 1915.

The Chicago conference was called together by the Committee on Social Insurance of the American Association for Labor Legislation. The members of the committee are: Edward T. Devine, chairman, Miles M. Dawson, Carroll W. Doten, Henry J. Harris, Charles R. Henderson, Frederick L. Hoffman, I. M. Rubinow, Henry R. Seager and John B. Andrews, secretary.—Ed.]

A GATHERING of one hundred men and women, no matter how enthusiastic, does not of itself constitute an "event," yet to one who has followed the social insurance movement in Europe there was large significance in the first American Conference on Social Insurance at Chicago in June. Less than five years ago the first rumblings of the compensation movement were just as weak, yet within three years nearly twenty-five states were led into legislative action. Twenty-four years ago, during the Paris International Exhibition of 1889, an equally small gathering inaugurated the International Congress of Industrial Accidents, which has subsequently developed into the International Congress of Social Insurance. The proceedings of that first congress of 1889 make a modest volume of some 300 or 400 pages. Now an International Congress of Social Insurance is an event of international importance, with a decisive influence on the course of social legislation throughout the world, and its proceedings run into many volumes. This first American Conference was a preparatory step to make a success of the international Congress, which will meet in this country in about two years. But it is also a precursor of a wide local movement. Perhaps not the least significant symptom of its existence is the multiplicity of plans for creating official state and federal commissions to study the problem.

The division of material at Chicago in the tremendous field to be covered was topical: Accident insurance; sickness and unemployment insurance; old age insurance and various pension movements. Because the most important results had been accomplished in regard to industrial accidents, an entire session was devoted to this topic, though perhaps such prominence was scarcely deserved by the comparative intrinsic importance of the problem. A more thorough

discussion was therefore possible at this session than the other two.

In the recent discussions of the compensation problem undue emphasis has been placed upon a feature of secondary importance—the method of insurance, rather than its scope. This emphasis reflected itself in the discussions at the conference. The three groups of insurance institutions—private commercial insurance (casualty companies), mutual insurance (employers' associations) and state insurance (funds managed by administrative departments or special commissions) found their equally eloquent defenders in P. Tecumseh Sherman, a New York attorney representing the casualty companies and one time New York commissioner of labor; Miles M. Dawson, a well known actuary whose investigations in Germany have converted him to the advantages of the German compulsory mutual insurance plan, and T. J. Duffy, chairman of the Ohio Industrial Accident Board, which administrates a voluntary state insurance fund to be made compulsory on October 1.

Mr. Duffy opened the discussion with a very emphatic argument for state insurance as opposed to private commercial insurance, based primarily upon considerations of economic administration through the elimination of the middleman—the insurance agent. He described so eloquently the waste of compensation that one could not help feeling how much wider the application of the argument might be than to the simple problem of accident compensation.

On the other hand, Mr. Sherman argued that compensation insurance is a highly technical business requiring special experience and skill. He directed his criticism mainly against mutual insurance, which forces the duties of this specialized business upon busy employers. He dismissed the arguments for state insurance by insisting that all European experience is against it, at least in this branch of social insurance, and declared that it must prove especially inefficient and costly in this country. Mr. Sherman thought that in any case it would be foolish to destroy the existing organizations of the casualty companies, and that free competition between the various insurance methods may be left to decide their comparative movements.

Finally Mr. Dawson argued that in the struggle between employers for lower cost and employes for large benefits, the casualty companies introduced a force working towards higher cost on one side and lower benefits on the other. He put the main emphasis upon the high efficiency of the German type of compulsory employers' associations in regulating industry with a view to the prevention of accidents.

In the discussion which followed the casualty companies were defended by Mr. DeLeon, president of the Casualty Company of America, and rather severely criticized by C. H. Crownhart, chairman of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

All this was interesting and instructive, but a matter of much greater importance to the injured wage worker is how much he is to get rather than the exact method of payment. The prime fault in almost all the compensation acts yet passed in this country is the extremely low level of benefits provided. This was pointed out by Mr. Dawson, and during the discussions by Dr. Rubinow, who was rather skeptical of the statements repeatedly made concerning the complete satisfaction of the American workingman and the spirit of harmony within the industry resulting from the compensation acts, especially in New Jersey and Massachusetts. Prof. Whitney of the University of California, gave an interesting account of the new compulsory compensation law of that state, adopted after a constitutional amendment, with a scale of benefits that at present is far in the lead of all American acts.

Prof. W. F. Willoughby of Princeton opened the second session with a paper on the general principles of social insurance, which was of utmost importance for an American audience. He outlined the many branches of the social policy and emphasized its essential quality—that not only should all the working class be given protection against the economic consequence of the various emergencies threatening normal standards but that a material part of the burden of the cost should be shared by other social groups.

In his paper on sickness insurance, Dr. Rubinow sketched briefly the evolution from mutual aid to co-operative insurance, the growth of state subsidies to such voluntary insurance, finally culminating in the German system, now prevailing in seven European political units—Germany, Austria, Hungary, Luxemburg, Norway, Great Britain and Russia. It is a system of compulsory insurance with material participation of the employer in five of these countries, and of both the employer and the state in two. He tried to draw a parallel between the problems of industrial accidents and disease, insisting that the difference in the responsibility of the industry for sickness is one of degree and not of kind, and advocated a compulsory sickness insurance system with equal contributions from employe, employer, and state as the next necessary step in social legislation.

Prof. Charles R. Henderson dealt with unemployment insurance, that branch of social insurance which as yet offers the greatest difficulties both of theory and practice. Until very recently the so-called Ghent system—that is, the subsidizing of workmen's out-of-work benefit funds by public authorities, in operation in Denmark and Norway and several European cities, was considered by students of the problem as the most that could be accomplished. The introduction of a national compulsory unemployment insurance system in Great Britain, extending to some two and one-half million workmen, represents the first important deviation from the accepted theories. Professor Henderson pointed out eloquently the limitations of the Ghent system and took a decisive stand in favor of the British plan.

Notwithstanding the far-reaching character of the measures advocated, discussion in regard to these two branches of social insurance was very scant, for as yet little thought has been given in this country to the insurance method of meet-

ing these problems. Some hard work will have to be done within the next two years by the Committee on Social Insurance, which was responsible for the calling of the first conference, if we are to avoid a pitiful display of ignorance regarding these gravest problems before the European experts of the next international congress.

Problems more familiar to an American audience were discussed during the last session. In characteristically brilliant and emphatic manner, Edward T. Devine arraigned the modern American mothers' pension movement[1] which he stigmatized as a method of public outdoor relief rather than of social insurance. That his powerful presentation of arguments against this movement left a deep impression upon the audience was evident enough. And yet it was equally clear that the mothers' pension idea had its numerous friends. The existence of a separate field of *prévoyance sociale* (*soziale fürsorge*) which, though technically not insurance, is nevertheless equally remote from poor relief, is a conception as yet entirely foreign to most Americans. Mr. Devine's criticism may be characterized as the philosophy of individualism instigated by charity, and it is this very social philosophy which had to be overcome in Europe in order to yield the way to the social insurance policy. For the entire movement for social insurance was a frank admission that self help was often impotent and inefficient, and private charitable relief at best degrading.

The comparative advantages of straight governmental pensions and compulsory insurance in providing for old age—one of the burning problems of social insurance in Europe—was discussed by Professor Spencer Baldwin of Boston University, formerly secretary of the Massachusetts Old Age Commission. Professor Baldwin expressed a preference for the compulsory insurance method as it exists in Germany and France, while Mr. Dawson reiterated his well-known faith in the British system of non-contributory pensions. The trend of events in Europe is undoubtedly in favor of the contributory method. But it was unfortunate that in order to make his point Professor Baldwin enumerated the long list of formidable "objections to old age pensions" with which the readers of the famous Massachusetts report are familiar. It was argued that old-age pensions would undermine the family by destroying filial love, would lower wages by making voluntary provision for old age unnecessary, would destroy the habit of thrift, all of which if true, would be equally true of compulsory insurance—as a matter of fact all this is pure economic hypothesis without a scintilla of economic and sociological evidence.

It is quite evident that whatever compulsory insurance against old age may promise to the younger generation, it is quite impotent to solve the immediate problem of old-age distress. As the example of France with its pension law of 1905 and its compulsory insurance act of 1910 convincingly demonstrates, these two policies are mutually complementary rather than exclusive.

[1]See p. 457 for Mr. Devine's address.

It struck the writer of these lines as very odd that Professor Baldwin defended his choice of compulsory insurance as the "lesser of two evils." In view of the tremendous world-wide movement for some social solution of the problems of old-age dependency and superannuation, it seems rather misanthropic to consider the inevitable next step in social evolution as a "necessary evil." What sort of a *Weltanschauung* creates a peculiar attitude like this?

Frederick L. Hoffman, of the Prudential Insurance Company, in the last formal paper of the conference dealt with various systems of wage earners' insurance, including commercial insurance by the so-called industrial companies, voluntary insurance of workingmen's co-operative organizations, and pension and relief funds of railroads and industrial establishments. His central thought seemed to be that a sufficient development of voluntary insurance would make compulsory insurance unnecessary. Of course, this simply leaves us where Europe was some decades ago; for in so far as voluntary insurance still has its adherents among students of social insurance, it is voluntary *social* insurance, not only with the cost reduced to a minimum, but with its burden at least partly taken off the workingmen's shoulders.

Altogether, the conference was extremely interesting and instructive. Its proceedings will scarcely represent an important contribution to scientific literature. The nature of the treatment of most problems was rather hasty and glittering generalities predominated. Solid statistical contributions and profound discussions of minutiae—characteristic aspects of the International Congress—were sadly lacking. But in the absence of large assemblies of specialized experts, the current need seems to be for wide propaganda rather than deep investigation.

The Committee on Social Insurance has a large and fruitful field for work. The general principles of social insurance must be announced. Many utopian concepts of older social philosophies that oppose such extension of constructive social effort must be eliminated. The results of the vast European experience must be carefully studied, popular interest must be stimulated, and some legislation must eventually be proposed, and some opposed. For, after all, things once started do move rapidly in this country, and sometimes, one is inclined to think, even too rapidly. Most of our compensation legislation, for instance, will have to be rewritten, because it was hasty and ill-digested notwithstanding its long delay in coming. Our mothers' pension laws, though by far not as objectionable in the light of all social insurance legislation as they may appear to some students, have nevertheless serious faults. Perhaps the future conferences, with papers and discussions of a more advanced character, will help to prevent further errors and correct those of the past. But one might wish that the American wage-working class could be induced to take a more active part in these discussions and in the social insurance movement in general, that it may become a movement not only for them but also of them.

THE HOUSES THE RED CROSS BUILT



TYPICAL TWO-ROOM COTTAGE, 16 BY 24 FEET

THE STORY OF A PEOPLE'S FORTITUDE IN THE SLOW SET STRUGGLE TO BEGIN LIFE ALL OVER AGAIN AFTER THE OHIO FLOOD

WINTHROP D. LANE
OF THE STAFF OF THE SURVEY

AND

LEWIS E. STEIN
OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

"PRETTY bad, isn't it?"

For a moment there was no answer. For hours the man had been leaning against a fence, back to the street, eyes cast on the ground. Three days before the waters of the great flood had receded in Piqua, Ohio, leaving behind a shapeless community and the remnants of families. A stranger, seeing dejection in the drooping shoulders and bowed head of the man against the fence almost involuntarily put into words the sympathy which had welled up within him.

"Yes, pretty bad," finally came the response in dull tones.

"Did you lose much?" persisted the stranger.

"See that spot of ground there?" he asked. Each word came as if a load were tied to it. "I had a tin shop there. We lived up above it. The night when the water came up around the shop my wife got nervous and wanted to go away. But I laughed at her. 'Why,' I said, 'there ain't any danger. The water never touched this shop before.' She kept asking me to take her away, but I just laughed at her and told her to go to bed. I guess I was kind of pig-headed, but I didn't want her to think I was scared."

His next remark came even more slowly than the others.

"Pretty soon she quieted down and we went to bed. The next thing I knew I was floundering around in the water. I haven't seen her nor the three children since."

To him who undertakes to tell the story of the merciless flood which ravaged half a dozen states throughout three black nights and days last March, the temptation is strong to prolong this sort of tragic recital.

But there is another and a greater story to be told. It is the tale of a people's fortitude. The manifestations of that fortitude are not to be looked for in spectacular heroism; they will not be found recorded in newspaper headlines. They must be searched for in the slow, set struggle to begin life all over again. If bleak despair was the sure follower of devastation, its reign was short-lived. The resources of a nation were placed at the disposal of the victims. For the loss of husbands, children and friends, mankind could offer no recompense. But as much of the despair as came from being left naked in the world it was possible to remove.

Contrast the picture of the discouraged tin shop keeper with that of Clarence Boetcher, young, finely built, industrious, who had put the finishing touches on his new house in Gaysport, Ohio, only three days before the flood. As Boetcher and his wife sat down to their first



LIKE HOUSES BUILT ON THE SAND

Copyright by H. L. Jones, Greenfield, O.

When the Scioto raged through Chillicothe, Ohio, it took the fronts off these substantial brick houses, exposing the interiors so that they have much the look of houses on the stage or doll's houses. The water ate its way through the turf at the sides, finally burrowed under the pavement and plowed a furrow ten to fifteen feet deep down the middle of the street. Pieces of asphalt pavement are seen in the foreground of the picture.

meal in their new home he remarked: "Well, Mamie, at last we're ready to live. The drudgery of getting started is all over."

Seventy-two hours later the two had nothing but each other.

But the Red Cross came to their assistance and when we saw Boetcher a few weeks ago his courage asserted its triumph in the cheery greeting: "Gee, bo, those two rooms look mighty good to me."

The whole story of that triumph can never be told. Seldom before has flood devastated so wide a territory. Never before has the problem of helping the sufferers to resume normal living presented such difficulties to the forces of organization. Over two complete states and into four others the American National Red Cross, which had chief charge of rehabilitation, spread its arms. The relief societies of the country were combed for experienced workers to go into the stricken districts and bring order out of chaos. By the quick processes of sympathy and emergent organization and by the slower processes of diplomacy, the winning of confidence and merging into the very hearts and thoughts of the suffering people, this supple force, strengthened by the experience of San Francisco, the Mississippi and a score of lesser disasters, began the long pull upward to a newer and a wiser living. Then were the modern miracles performed—the miracles of family faith and community resurrection.

A picture of the victory can be given by telling the story of one valley. If you will look at the accompanying map you will see that the towns in Ohio which suffered from the flood group themselves about five streams. Two of these start in the north-central part of the state and empty into Lake Erie, while three rise farther south and flow into the Ohio River.

The eastern one of these rivers, the Muskingum, winds alternately between graceful slopes and stretches of flatlands. Dams, with short canals around them, have made it navigable for a distance of sixty miles up stream to Zanesville. The flatlands or bottoms range from four to ten feet above the level of the river. Flanking these low stretches are green hills, some rising a thousand feet. The scenery abounds in beautiful vistas and inviting retreats, attracting many tourists. Down this valley a sea of waters surged, killing, maiming, wrecking. In places the water rose sixty feet above its normal level. But enough of the old charm still remains to give whatever hope and inspiration there may be in the loveliness of nature.

Humming at either end with the busy towns of Zanesville and Marietta, this sixty-mile stretch of river is dotted with small villages, many of them but a few houses with one or two stores, which supply the farmers of the vicinity. Farming and coal-mining go on side by side in the valley. There are several saw and flour mills, a number of canning factories and one or two tanneries. The people are predominantly American born, a sturdy stock, independent, thrifty, ignorant of the name of charity.

The total population of the Muskingum valley is perhaps 50,000. Over 21,000 of these people were fed in the bread lines during the first days after the flood. Zanesville and Marietta combined account for 40,000 of the total and furnished nearly 20,000 of those in the bread lines. Thus one-half the people in these two thriving towns and three-eighths of all in the valley were rendered temporarily foodless and shelterless.

Over 4,000 houses were either destroyed or badly damaged. Two thousand six hundred fifty families were pitched into such heavy loss that they could not regain their footing without assistance.

Into this valley of destruction the American National Red Cross has poured or will pour $171,000. This, of course, is no gauge of the amount of reconstruction which has been found necessary there, for large amounts were raised locally and other sums reached the stricken towns from sources independent of the Red Cross. The two million dollars which came directly into the coffers of the Red Cross is half the total amount which the whole country, through one channel or another, contributed to the cause. Yet such was the confidence in the Red Cross that many towns turned over to it sums which had been sent in the first instance to them. The treasury of the Ohio Flood Relief Commission appointed by Governor Cox, containing one million dollars, was turned over bodily to the Red Cross. So that in actual fact this organization, after the first days of emergency expenditure were over, directed the distribution and use of nearly the whole of the vast amounts contributed for the rehabilitation of the six flooded states.

He who traverses the Muskingum valley today sees it in the process of remaking itself. Let him remember that every flood brings three stages into the lives of those it menaces.

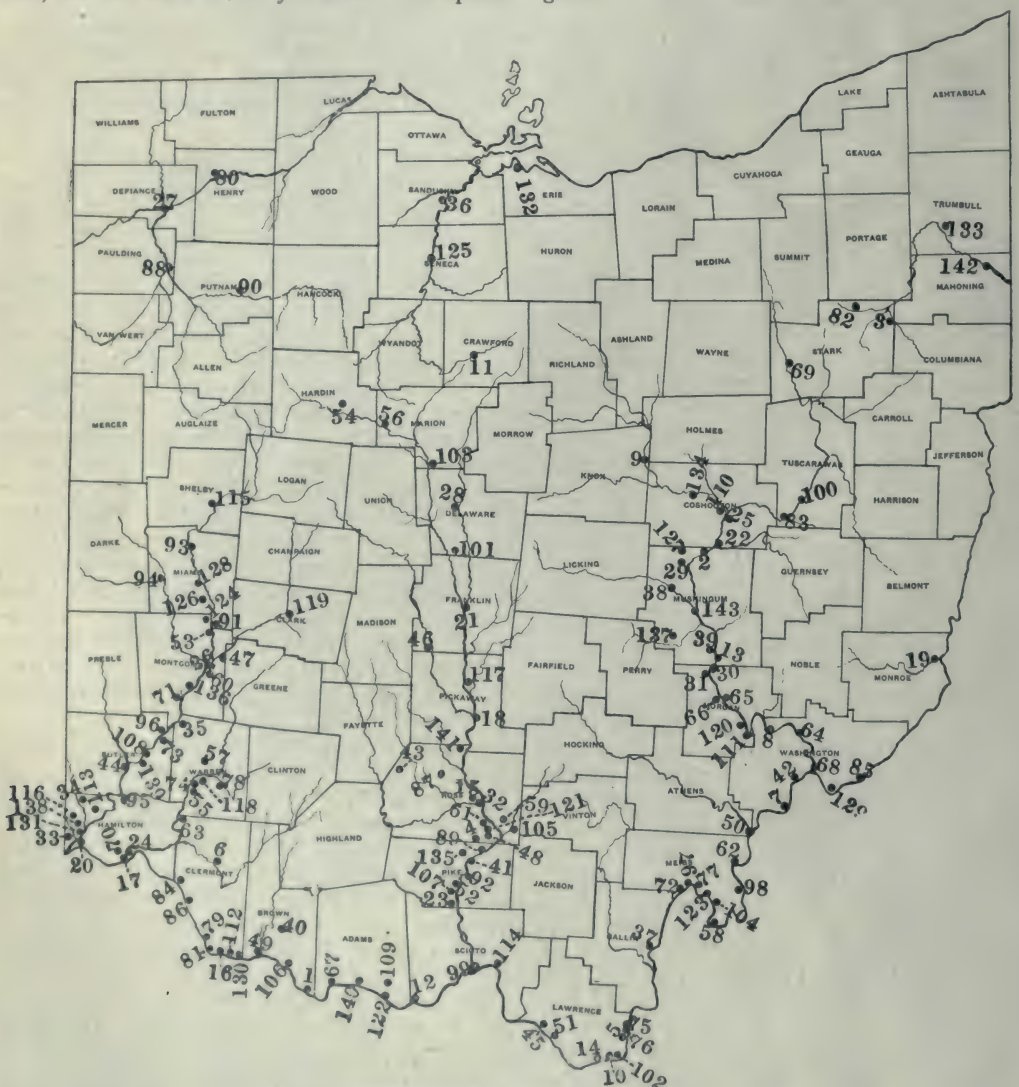
First there is the fierce combat with the waters, the desperate attempt to save life and that which sustains life or makes it enjoyable. This is the period of delirium and battle.

Then comes the feeding of the hungry and sheltering of the unhoused. Help from a distance cannot be waited for. The flooded must live for a time upon the non-flooded. The whole people are thrown into one great family. There can be no counting of losses and little planning for the future. The pressing problem is how to keep on existing for the next hour or day.

Following this stage of emergency relief comes

the period when thought for the morrow begins to take shape. Individual cases stand out. It becomes apparent who are the heaviest sufferers. The statesmanship of reconstruction must now assert itself. How can losses be restored, houses rebuilt, the necessaries of life replaced, ruined business built up? These are the questions for whoever would help in the great task of rehabilitation. Answers must be found before wise expenditure can be made of the money which has poured into the flooded region to swell the sums raised by the neighbors of those who have suffered.

For three months the Muskingum valley has busied itself in this third period of reconstruction, but the work is not yet done. The special agents of the Red Cross, three of whom were snatched from charity organization work in eastern cities and found themselves on the scene co-operating with local citizens before the flood was a fortnight old, have long since departed. The work begun by them was left in the hands of local persons in whom the population, through long acquaintance, had thorough confidence. To these people, designated in turn as the special representatives of the Red Cross, was intrusted the spending of Red Cross money, so much to this family, so much to that. The ring of hammers and the slap of trowels bear witness to their success. But it is the success of those who have received even more than of those who have given.



RED CROSS RELIEF MAP OF OHIO

The river valleys are clearly defined by the numbers, each of which indicates a flood-stricken town. The Red Cross made a survey of the conditions requiring relief in all of the 143 communities and in 112 of them carried on relief operations in co-operation with local committees.



ROOSTING WITH THE CHICKENS

Charles Kennison and his family of five lived snugly in a well-built chicken coop until their new house was built on a hilltop.



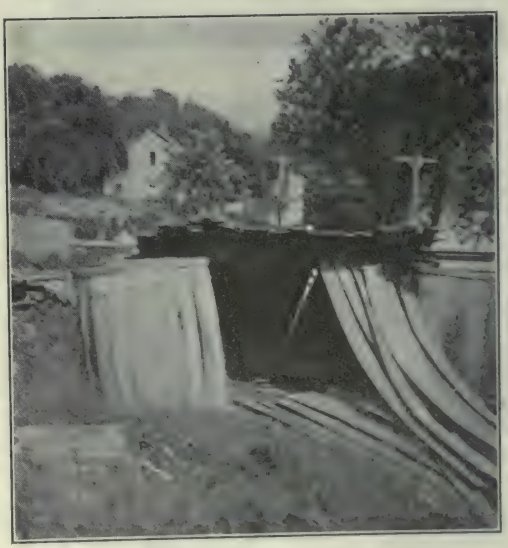
SEVEN IN A SHACK

A family of seven lost everything except enough wreckage to build a shack. In this and a borrowed tent they lived until their new home was finished.

If we start at the head of the valley at Zanesville we shall learn how the raging current, rising 51 feet above its normal level, completely divided the town into three parts, between which there was no communication for tnree days. We shall learn that 15,000 of the 30,000 inhabitants were at one time or another dependent on the bread line for food. We shall learn that in this town of 7,000 families, 3,441 houses were flooded. Of these, 157 were totally destroyed. 1,700 families needed further and constructive help.

How have the people of Zanesville, with the funds in hand, set about to rehouse the shelterless? In addition to extensive repairs to dwellings only partially damaged, two styles of cottages are being built. One has two rooms, the other three. Clare Benz, for example, an elderly unmarried woman who lives alone, has been given a two-room house, measuring 16 by 24 feet. Rose Hoffman, a widow, has been given a three-room house. Mrs. Hoffman will occupy one room and support herself by renting the other two. The contract price for this dwelling, which measures 16 by 36 feet, is $660.

A few miles south of Zanesville we come to Gaysport, a cluster of only 100 people, yet thirty houses were wrecked or damaged. Here will be pointed out to us the largest remains of any bridge throughout the whole sixty miles of valley from Zanesville to Marietta —a single span reaching a few feet into the river.



BACHELOR HALL

Boards thrown across hogsheads left from his destroyed warehouse made a shelter for a despairing old bachelor in the Muskingum valley until his neighbors dragged him off to a hotel and later gave him a new house.

Community spirit is showing itself at Gaysport in the work of the "building bees." By the rules of this game, invented by Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the Red Cross, and first played in the forest fire region of Minnesota, a group of those receiving new houses join hands and erect, one by one, all the houses for the group. Thus at Gaysport G. W. Leasure, Henry and Clarence Boetcher, Bert Trout, Charles Miller, Bert Wilson and James Pyle are putting up the seven houses which they will themselves occupy. These are two-room cottages 14 by 26 feet, with peaked metal roofs and ceilings eight feet four inches high. The pattern for each house, delivered on the site, consists of all necessary lumber, bricks for chimney, metal roofing, laths, two glass-pannelled doors, four windows, locks, hinges, nails. The location of doors and windows is optional with the occupant. Someone has to be in general charge to see that those who need are supplied and that materials are delivered as ordered. To superintend the housing from Gaysport south to Beverly, a stretch of thirty-five miles the Red Cross asked Dr. Lee Humphrey and Frank Beckwith to act as its representatives. These men are long residents of the locality, the former a physician, part



HOME BUILT FOR A WIDOW

This three-room cottage 16 by 36 feet in size and costing $660 was given to a widow. She will occupy one room and rent the other two.



"THE HILLSIDE FOR ME"

Many people are rebuilding in the old locations, but the general movement is to climb as far as possible above water level.



"BUILDING BEES"

Ernest P. Bicknell has introduced in Ohio the "building bees" which he first used after the forest fires in Minnesota. Modeled on the old pioneer barn-raising bees, they make a neighborhood lark of house-building. The pattern for each house, delivered on the site, consists of all necessary lumber, bricks, etc. The neighbors take hold with a will and put a cottage up in no time.

owner of a lumber mill and director in a dime savings bank, the latter a builder of roads, a contractor in coal in the winter and wheat in the summer. By common consent Mr. Beckwith does the traveling which their joint job entails. Everyone knows Beckwith and calls him by his first name. The farmers' wives greet him as he passes, the trainmen signal to him as they roll by.

As we go down the valley we shall see everywhere the age-old struggle between faith in the future and the teaching of experience. "It will never happen again", is uttered simultaneously with "the hillside for me this time". One man whose house was only slightly damaged wouldn't think of building anew until he can get a lot 100 feet higher than the old one; another, who lost everything, is content to start again in the same place, or only ten feet higher. The general tendency, of course, is to build on higher ground. A woman of Gaysport who owns the greater part of one hill has divided her ground up into lots 70 by 150 feet and in spite of the demand for them is selling them for $50 each on long payments. At another point the father of five children has followed a different plan to defy future floods. He has anchored short cables the thickness of elevator cables into his foundation. When the framework is put on the cables will be laced up through it, so that the next rush of water will have to take the foundation if it gets the house.

In one of the small towns the story is told of a man who having suffered in a previous flood had constructed a waterproof house. By a process all his own he declared that he had "fixed it so no water could ever get into his shack." On the night when the flood drove him to a nearby hill he strutted around with his thumbs in his arm holes chuckling at the trick he had played on the river.

"It can't hurt my house, I tell ye," he boasted, "unless it goes down the chimney. I forgot to cement a piece of slate over the chimney."

Whether his process worked will never be known, for that night the water went down his chimney in torrents and in the morning no house was left.

At Eaglesport, a few miles below Gaysport, we will be introduced to the chicken house which for some time sheltered the five members of Charles Kennison's family. They have since moved out and secured a new home up on a hill. This chicken house is a palace in comparison with the kennel which a despairing bachelor of sixty reared over his head down in Malta, five miles lower. This man owned a home and a large warehouse in which he stored tobacco. Both went with the water. He recovered some hogsheads from the warehouse and arranged them in the form of the letter U with some boards across the tops. In this hole he stayed day and night until a committee of local citizens found him and forcibly took him off to the hotel. The relief funds have since supplied him with a new house and a small start in business.

Let it not be supposed that community resurrection extends only to making wise use of that which comes by way of gift. Many of those who are receiving new houses bear a part of the expense themselves. Take, for example, the complicated but typical case of George Cleves, father of two children, whose wife is in delicate health. Cleves owned a home in McConnelsville, across the river from Malta, on which a bank held a mortgage of $800. The bank offered to meet, dollar for dollar, whatever amount the Red Cross would give, taking their sum off the mortgage. Cleves had his eye on a house on the Malta side which he could get for $600. So he put his case before the Red Cross, declaring that if he could secure enough money to make a first payment on the new house he would sign a new mortgage covering the balance of the old mortgage and the remainder of the price of the house. The arrangement was made and thus, by the combined effort of the man himself, the bank and the Red Cross one more family was rescued from poverty.

The generosity of the bank in this case is only typical of the helpfulness of neighbors. Those who had saved a little money in forms which water could not reach are loaning it lavishly to their less fortunate fellows. The remark of Frank Beckwith's cousin is only one instance: "Frank, if you know anybody that wants a little money, just you send him around to Jim Beckwith. My house went, but I've got two farms yet, and I guess I can fix 'em up."

At Malta the washing away of the bridge inspired the people of the town to rig up two impromptu ferries. Each consists of an ordinary flatboat slung on a cable which the people themselves stretched across the river. The cable passes through pulleys fastened at each end of the railing on the up-stream side of the boat. Wooden handles with notches in the end are supplied to the passengers. They go to the front of the boat, slip the notch over the cable and draw the handle in close to the cable so as to get a grip. They then walk back toward the shore which they are leaving, the handle remains firm on the cable and the boat is propelled its own length by the time the head of the procession reaches the rear of the boat. The whole thing is then done over again. It is possible for one man to propel the boat across the river in this fashion, but such is the spirit of helpfulness in the valley that he rarely has to do it. One day's count showed that these ferries had carried 4,600 persons, 420 teams, 22 automobiles and three carloads of sheep.

Such is the demand for lots away from the river that it would be easy for property-owners to boost prices. But one doesn't try to get the

better of one's own family in a business deal, and the people of this valley have been welded into one great family. A curious kind of competition has asserted itself, however, at Roxbury, a tiny center of 100 people which was completely wiped off the map. When the signboard of the railroad station was finally found, there was no place to put it. So it was propped up on a large boulder which the waters had placed conveniently near. There it stands today, inviting some grim humorist to inscribe across the top 'Here lies", thus completing the suggestion of a single sepulchre for a whole village. But the people of Roxbury, all of whom escaped, showed a disposition to scatter to safer regions. The storekeeper who, though owning most of the higher ground near Roxbury, was practically land poor, saw all his customers about to drift away. In order to keep them and their trade, he promptly opened sale on all his land, disposing of it at small prices on long payments.

At Beverly lives the luckiest man in the flood, the "barefoot poet" of the Muskingum. Political conventions, cosmic upheavals and elemental ravages are his favorite themes. Like a true laureate, he was putting the flood into rhyme before the waters had receded. If you are curious to know why so forlorn a piece of human driftwood considers himself the luckiest man in the flood, he will tell you, standing on tip-toe to do it. "I lost nothing", he will say in a shout plainly meant to be confidential. And then, raising himself still higher, "I had nothing to lose."

This, then, is the story of how one valley is raising itself from the dead. But it is also, in its essentials, the story of how every other valley in the flooded district is going about the same task. For this flood, which killed 625 people in two states alone, was no respecter of localities. Dayton and Hamilton on the Great Miami, Columbus and Chillicothe on the Scioto, Zanesville and Marietta on the Muskingum, Logansport, Peru and Terre Haute on the Wabash, and a score of places on the Ohio can testify that here was a rampage of the elements which seemed to leap from watershed to watershed, desolating a dozen valleys and laying waste a hundred towns. Other rainfalls may have totaled a larger volume or may have lasted longer or may have covered a wider territory, but none to which the memory of man returneth, says one student of the subject, established so unique a record in all three of these departments. Throughout the water-wrecked region, therefore, there have been the same problems of reconstruction as in the Muskingum, the same statesmanship of relief, the same community heroism.

However much others may look upon this work of reconstruction as a victory of the community and by the community, the stricken people themselves are not unmindful of the channels through which aid has reached them. To many of them the name of the American National Red Cross was never before known. To some of the more ignorant ones it is still but a hazy reality, moving mysteriously as some unseen power. Nevertheless, scores of letters have poured into the headquarters at Columbus, expressing the gratitude of those who feel that in some way their very lives have been returned to them by utter strangers. One of these will show the painful efforts which many of those helped made to record their simple thankfulness.

"Dear Charitable Friends
of the Red Cross Society:—

"I received the check for $500 and also the tools and household goods which I lost in the high water. I thank you a thousand times for your great Charity wich you shoed on me and my Family and should it be in my Power. ever to help the Red Cross Socity along in there Charitable Work I will sertainly do so, in short I can not thank you enough for what you have done for me and my family may God bless you one and all and may you prosper in all your undertakings. Thanking you once more I will remain your thankful Friend."

THE MOTHER SPEAKS

DELLE HOUGHTON OGLESBEE

Ah, weara me, she's fallen—she, the daughter o' my heart,
(Tis weara now, and weara all the day.)
'Twas in the joy o' livin', and from that how could she part?
(Ah weara me, 'twill nevermore be May!)

She worked so hard, my daughter, just to buy our bit o' bread—
('Tis weara now, what's bread to lassies' play?)
The hours were long and leaden, but her youth, should it be dead?
(Ah weara me, the never ending day!)

'Tis beasts that prey on younglings, and that prey on daughters dear,
('Tis weara now, and nevermore's the May.)
Who'll save the daughters for us, and who'll see why mothers fear?
(Ah weara me, though girls work, they must play!)

THE MUSE AND THE "CAUSES"

VIDA D. SCUDDER

TAKING Max Eastman's slim volume of verse[1] in the light of his work as a radical and reformer, one finds a special suggestiveness in the breadth and sanity of its inspiration.

Mr. Eastman's Child of the Amazon and Other Poems will help its readers to understand that a radical is a very normal person after all. It is too commonly assumed that a person absorbed, let us say, in revolutionary Socialism and the suffrage movement, must be mysteriously set apart from the ordinary tastes and pursuits of the community, even if he be not a fanatic or a crank. But here is such a person, and he writes of the thrush and the autumn landscape, the summer Sunday in the country, the man who gets up early to steal the fun of working in his garden, the art of St. Gaudens and the memory of Leif Ericson. Just the same things that everybody delights in among the most decorous circles of cultured respectability. Perhaps we are not so far apart from one another after all!

It is indeed rather a surprise to find so little social stress in these poems, and in one way it is a relief, for social poetry can not be made to order, and too often the excellent people who are trying to produce it wax either hysterical or deadly sentimental. Mr. Eastman, on the other hand, is nothing if not restrained and wholesome. Also, he is frankly expressing life as he lives it, not preaching life as he wants it. Poetry will probably always be inspired more by personal than by socialized emotion. Nevertheless, the social note is clear enough in two or three of these poems, and on these THE SURVEY may well linger a little.

First, there is, of course, the title poem, in which "mere man" has sympathetically interpreted the endless struggle of womankind from Amazonian days to our own. An Amazon maid has rebelled against the harsh law that condemns her never to know love, and to invite motherhood only for the perpetuation of her kind. For the Amazons, according to the fable, annually "joined the men of a fighting nation upon Mount Caucasus; but of the offspring of these unions they saved only the girls." Before the captains

> who are women old and wild,
> Homeless, unchaste, worn with the battle anger,

appears Thyone, the Sea-wild maid, singer and maker of their battle hymns, to plead her cause, the ancient cause of youth and love. She cries:

> My blood doth burn against the sacrifice
> To momentary deeds, of passionate
> Lifelong desire and the deep hopes of love!
> Is this that famous freedom that thy law
> Doth vaunt? O is this liberty, to lose
> For liberty all that the heart desires?

The queen sternly presents the alternative—departure from the Amazons or renunciation of her lover—and dismisses Thyone to her reflections. "In the mild-mannered beauty of the morn" she returns to the council armed. Her decision is made. The heroic joys of soldiership shall be hers at whatever cost of love, hope and fruitful years.

Yet though she yields, it is with high protest against the law of Artemis, and with prescient forecast of a time to come when sharp severance between two normal forms of self-expression shall no longer be the woman's lot.

> Henceforth, my sovereign, perfect is my will
> To do thy deeds and be thy Amazon
> Though I postpone unto the end my hope.
> For if it is an excellence to bear
> Then is it a thing prior, more divine
> To be: I join the counsellors of war.

Thyone has not yet worked out her reconciliation; but it is a hopeful sign of the times that poets begin to understand the stress of the conflict that rends her.

In a Dungeon of Russia takes us from the land of myth and type into the quite possible present. "A noble lady who is an assassin" and "a common murderer" await together the hour of death. She cries to him for a word of human fellowship in the brief moment left:

> Give me your hand
> In comradeship. We die together—and
> The while we breathe we are each other's world.

But he retorts, still conscious of the gulf between them,

> No not your world, my lady.

The servile term stings her and she cries out in anguish and protest that the curse of rank whips her even at the grave. But now his next response gives her the strength to die: for he, who has killed from want and rage, tells her that her deed, crime though it be, shall help to put an end to need for all such crimes as his. So in

> High union of their fainting hearts, they faced
> The hour that brought them to their level graves.

That is finely conceived. So is the following poem, Conventional Life:

> Midnight is come,
> And thinly in the deepness of the gloom
> Truth rises startle-eyed out of a tomb
> And we are dumb.
> A death-bell tolls,
> And we still shudder round the too-smooth bed,
> For Truth makes pallid watch above the dead,
> Freezing our souls!
> But day returns,

[1] Child of the Amazon and Other Poems. By Max Eastman. Mitchell Kennerley. 69 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid.

Light and the garish life, and we are brave,
For Truth sinks wanly down into her grave.
Yet the heart yearns.

A sad grim note, yet the general spirit of these poems is buoyant.

COMING SPRING

Ice is marching down the river,
Gaily out to sea!
Sunbeams o'er the snow-hills quiver,
Setting torrents free!

Yellow are the water-willows,
Yellow clouds are they,
Rising where the laden billows
Swell along their way!

Arrows of the sun are flying!
Winter flees the light,
And his chilly horn is sighing
All the moisty night!

Lovers of the balmy weather,
Lovers of the sun!
Drifts and duty melt together—
Get your labors done!

Ice is marching down the river,
Gaily out to sea!
Sing the healthy hearted ever,
Spring is liberty!

There is a good "healthy hearted," modern strain, from a staunch champion of liberty. And the tone of the volume as a whole is equally inspiring, a refreshment to the lover of letters as well as to the lover of freedom. For this lover of freedom has an honest respect for law, the subtle and severe law of harmony, very taxing to the aspirant, which governs the fine tradition of English verse. His meters are as a rule delicately sure of stress: *mirabile dictu*, they scan. And in the contemporary wilderness of rank *vers libres* whose authors mistake nebulous emotion for the end instead of the beginning of poetry, and take the name of Whitman in vain as an excuse for indolent evasion of necessary rhythmic duties, these clearly and carefully wrought poems with their precision of phrasing bring pleasure and relief.

Not that Mr. Eastman is always master of his instrument. Especially in the blank verse, there are annoying lapses, jolts and breaks that pull one up short.

Yet perhaps it is not labor that is lacking, for one finds in Mr. Eastman's stimulating volume of criticism[1] discussed below a curious defense of such irregularities: that the modern ear demands them and that therefore amateur poets must beware of "shouting to the tom-tom," and the natural utterance of verse must be "swung out of the channel of rhythm" and in again, "so that the pulses of that rhythm, while they are not exaggerated are yet abundantly sustained." THE SURVEY is no place for such discussion, but one can not resist suggesting to Mr. Eastman that his beloved Keats never beat the tom-tom, yet never perpetrated lines like those alluded to above.

For Mr. Eastman has the gift of the singing line, and there are charming lyrics in his book. The lilt is at times ecstatic in simplicity, as in Daisies or Summer Song. Other poets might have written these, however. In his more individual efforts Mr. Eastman gives us a touch of sly humour or a caustic hint:

AT THE AQUARIUM.

Serene the silver fishes glide,
Stern-lipped and pale, and wonder-eyed!
As through the aged deeps of ocean
They glide with wan and wavy motion!
They have no pathway where they go,
They flow like water to and fro.
They watch with never winking eyes,
They watch with staring cold surprise,
The level people in the air,
The people peering, peering there,
Who wander also to and fro,
And know not why or where they go,
Yet have a wonder in their eyes,
Sometimes a pale and cold surprise.

Those lines might stand beside the singing satire of Arthur Hugh Clough. Considering the range and quality of the verse as a whole, one certainly begs Mr. Eastman to work harder and not to abandon the Muse for Causes, however sacred!

* * *

In his interesting and sound volume, The Enjoyment of Poetry, which is a real contribution to aesthetic thinking, he distinguishes the poetic from the prosaic type of people by saying that the latter are absorbed in realizing ends, the former in receiving experiences. By this sign he himself is surely of the poets. Escaping from the prison of "conventional life" into the open, he finds there endless delights: the fine delights of language and the rhythmic surge in which it renders the experience the poet receives; delight in the exulting freedom of nature, rather than in her aspects of severer law; delight in the great heritage of the past; and delight in the greater hope of the future. All these are here recorded for us, in these vital and eager poems, in this criticism, keen, independent, penetrating, firm. We rise from reading, emancipate and adventurous. The poet entices us to set sail with Leif Ericson:

O sun-tanned king with thy blue eyes over the sea—
Who hath the living strength to worship thee?
Not they that act with a sanction, and move by a rule,
And lean on a theory—theory saveth the fool!
He asks for no map of the universe, pointer and plan
Who hears the rough ocean challenge the roughness of man
To the deeps! Who feeleth existence his spirit defy
For brief or eternal, standeth not pondering by!

* * *

Wine of the distance ever the reddest seems
And sweet is the world to the dreamer and doer of dreams!
Weigh them, ye pale-headed merchants. Little ye know!
Compute, ye desk-dwellers, ye will not measure him so.
For ye know only knowledge, ye know not the drive of the will
That brought it with passion to birth. It driveth still
Through the hearts of the kindred of earth the forward fleeing,
The kin of the stormy soul at the helm of all-being!
Sailors, unreefed, and high-masted, and wet, and free,
Who sail in the love of the billows, whose port is the sea,
They sing thee, O Leif the Lucky, they sing thee sublime,
And launch with thee, glad as with God, on the ocean of time!

[1] The Enjoyment of Poetry. By Max Eastman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 224 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

THE SURVEY

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THE VOICE FROM THE FIELD

MADELINE SWEENY MILLER

Dedicated to the National Burying Ground at Gettysburg on the occasion of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the battle

ACROSS the field in silent files they sleep,
With none to rout their ranks while death doth keep
His watch relentless o'er the nameless heap
Of unknown men beneath the numbered stones.
More orderly are they than when they marched
In broken regiments the sun had parched
And powder-torn, across the fields, fire-arched,
And from their silence now rise up loud tones
Which speak to all that breathe, a new command
Whose voice shall ring through all the peaceful land:
"Be strong! keep brave thy heart and clean thy hand
To right with promptness all the wrongs that rise
To hide the Godhead's face from brother's eyes.
Rear up in love the Nation's life we bore!
Be strong, be strong till wrong shall be no more!"

This Issue Ten Cents Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

THE PITH OF IT

THE sanitarians won this time at Gettysburg. Only nine old soldiers in all died in camp against an estimate of ten each day. Pure water, pure food, cleanliness, prompt medical service reduce veteran, as they do infant, mortality. P. 491.

HOME RULE for cities is the cry of social and civic bodies rallying against Governor Dunne's failure to keep the hands of Illinois legislators off Chicago's affairs. A million and a half brand new votes for women brings a big and interesting factor into the next municipal election. The Pennsylvania Railroad scorched its fingers in trying to build a terminal out of focus with the Chicago City Plan—these are some of the points in Professor Taylor's review of a tense legislative year. P. 499.

EVEN the orphans of Georgia will be protected some day by child labor laws. Big progress has been made all over the South, notably in Florida. There Dr. McKelway, most persuasive of benevolent lobbyists, was spokesman for the growing southern sentiment against a twelve-year-old's right to work at night whether his mother will let him or no. Pp. 493, 497.

SCORE one for the Progressive Party in Congress. It has gone a-pioneering in introducing a bill calling for a general federal inquiry into social insurance.

UP TO the night of July 5, reports showed that 25 had been killed and 1,032 injured on the Fourth of July—figures almost identical with those of last year which were 25 and 1,043. Five years ago they were thrice as high. This year Springfield, Mass., Indianapolis, Ind., Kansas City, Mo., and Washington, D. C., as well as Cleveland, can boast that no one was either killed or injured. Cities without restrictive ordinances, like Bridgeport, Conn., and Detroit, Mich., continue to report casualties up to their best tetanus records.

RALLYING round the white slave. P. 507.

VARIOUS kind critics (we're embarrassed to tell how many) remind us that the city, not the state of New York, will have to legislate to provide for payment of wages to the families of deserters, for the bill mentioned in the June 28 issue of THE SURVEY was vetoed by Governor Sulzer on the ground that it was a matter for home action. An ordinance to similar effect is now before the Board of Aldermen. Its sponsor, Alderman Ralph Folks, does not expect it to pass during the summer. Calculated on the average number of deserters sent to "the island," the city's bill for wages at 50 cents a day would be $15,000 a month.

EVEN the referendum cuts both ways. The California women who lobbied the abatement and injunction act through the Legislature must fight it out at the polls. A petition for a referendum secured enough signatures to put it to a vote of the people—and the San Francisco "red light" district stays open until after the Panama Fair.

VERY likely Poor Richard would have said of Canton, Mass: "For lack of a milk inspector nineteen lives were lost." P. 493.

THE SURVEY

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Copies of The Survey for May 3, with the reproduction of Miss Eberle's "White Slave" on the cover and various articles on related subjects within, will be sent postpaid at these prices:

1	copy	25c
10	copies	20c each
25	"	18c each
50	"	15c each
100	"	12c each

THE COMMON WELFARE

TAPS FOR NINE AT GETTYSBURG

Quite as significant as the preaching of peace through bringing together under both flags the veterans on each side of a bitter war between brothers was the progress in military sanitation and nursing which the Gettysburg reunion showed.

Over 50,000 men whose ages were said to run from 61 to as high as 112, their frail old lives ready to be snuffed out like a candle—a number are rumored to have died on the way—spent from one to seven days under a blazing July sun, sleeping, most of them, in tents. As high as a thousand fatalities were provided for by the authorities who undertook this daring second Gettysburg. A thousand coffins were on hand. But even in this atmosphere of expected death, added to heat and a long journey, sanitation was so perfect and such constant care was taken of the old men's every need that only nine deaths were recorded up to July 5, when the main body had left, and a thousand illnesses, many of them slight.

On the side of attendance the Boy Scouts and the four companies of regulars in whose care the camp was put vied with each other in tendering the veterans personal services that were both willing and intelligent. The four hundred Boy Scouts detailed to Gettysburg have, says the correspondent of the New York *Evening Post,* writing from the field, "made good with a bang" so good that even their scout masters speak of it in superlatives. Says this correspondent:

"The boys are everywhere, all over the camp, meeting every train, carrying valises of the veterans, fetching them blankets and mess kits, showing them how to get from point to point."

No veteran had to lift his hand; his wants were anticipated and the danger of illness from over exhaustion and discomfort was reduced to a minimum.

On the health side, the chief quartermaster, Major J. E. Normoyle, had his organization so minutely perfected that neither a sudden influx of guests beyond expectation, not a thousand heat prostrations in a day, were beyond his power to meet. Says the *Post* correspondent:

"The whole organization of this camp is a scientific achievement that is a better recommendation of the army of to-day than any marble monument. It represents the last word in military engineering and sanitary precaution. A city big enough to house 50,000 people has been put up here almost at a moment's notice, equipped with every necessity of civilized life. Running water at high pressure is piped to every street. Telephone lines have been strung connecting up the different divisions; cook shacks are stationed at frequent intervals; drainage trenches have been dug in every direction; lights have been erected, so that there are no dark corners; regular army sentinels police the streets far more thoroughly than any municipal police; bureaus of information have been established. An entire network of organization, highly articulated, yet exceedingly simple in composition, has been built up, started running, and now apparently keeps going with the regularity of clockwork."

For the care of the sick, seven emergency hospitals were provided, some under the care of the army, some under the State Department of Health. The Red Cross supplied 100 nurses and the ambulance service was sufficient to cope with 1,000 heat prostrations on July 3, the worst day in camp. So efficiently, indeed, were these prostrations cared for that at the end of that day the army hospitals, which had the bulk of all cases, reported only 310 patients under care from all ailments, the greater number of whom had been brought to the hospital before July 3.

General sanitation was cared for by the State Department of Health whose orders were enforced by the state constabulary, which also had charge of traffic regulation and general policing.

General Hunter Liggett, in charge of the camp, gave credit for the achievement to Major Normoyle and his regulars.

One of the veterans put it even stronger. "We had no camps like this in '63," he said. "Why, not even a general could keep clean in those days." The army surgeons prepared for the worst and actually estimated that there would be ten deaths a day. The total of nine for the week was less than the average death rate for men of the old soldiers' age. Those who have survived for a semi-centennial are undoubtedly a picked lot physically, but there was testimony to their age and condition in the lost-articles tent which collected one hundred crutches, several sets of false teeth and a wooden leg.

Seven of the northern nurses were present.

COMMISSION ON SOCIAL INSURANCE

A bill to create a federal commission on social insurance has been introduced in the House by Representative M. Clyde Kelly of Pennsylvania as the second measure on the program of the Progressive Party. It provides, briefly, for a commission of five persons to be appointed by the President to inquire into the cost, operation and social value of voluntary, mutual, and other forms of public and private insurance against accident, sickness, invalidity, old age, death, unemployment, and other disabilities and hazards in the common life of the people, as well as the cost, operation and social value of related forms of public and private pensions. The commission is empowered to make recommendations in its final report concerning the desirability of establishing a system of social insurance, and to submit drafts of bills to carry out its recommendations.

PROGRAM ON PURE BATHS

Since H. F. J. Porter introduced the subject of purifying swimming pools at the first annual meeting of the American Association for the Promotion of Hygiene and Public Baths last year it has occupied no inconsiderable amount of space in medical and physical culture publications. At the second annual meeting of the association in Baltimore this year it appeared in many of the addresses, including Simon Baruch's presidential address.

Two speakers, William Royal Stokes, chief of the Maryland Bureau of Bacteriology, and Arthur M. Crane of New York, devoted their whole papers to a consideration of the relative value of the various means of purifying pools. Mr. Crane dwelt especially on the value of refiltration. He cited the refiltration of the public bath at Bermondsy in London in which the pool water remained bacteriologically clear after nine months' refiltration and the Belfast bathing pool in which the water is refiltered and reused for seventeen months. Among many other examples he mentioned the Twenty-third Street Y. M. C. A. pool in New York, in which 39,000 gallons of water used by 25,000 persons during the week, was, after refiltration, of crystal clearness and free from pathogenic bacteria. In the Washington Heights Y. M. C. A. pool the refiltrated water was thirty times more free from bacteria than that drawn from the main. The most striking result was reported from Amherst College, where eighty students used the pool of 75,000 gallons capacity every day and at the end of three years' refiltration this water was still bacteriologically safe, hypochlorite of lime being used also.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN THE PRAIRIE STATE

Social workers in Illinois view the record of the recent legislative session with mingled feelings of satisfaction and disappointment. Perhaps the most gratifying result is the passage, after years of agitation and struggle, of a bill authorizing the purchase of not less than 1,000 acres of land and the erection of suitable buildings for an epileptic colony. $500,000 is appropriated for the first expenditure. Medical service at the colony is to be carried on in connection with the State Psychopathic Institute, thus assuring study into the causes and the methods of preventing epilepsy.

A wage loan bill was passed providing for the organization of societies with a capital of $25,000 for the purpose of loaning money on salaries in amounts not to exceed $250 and at a rate not to exceed 3 per cent a month. These societies are prohibited from paying more than 6 per cent interest on the capital and are expected to compete with the loan sharks.

Municipal tuberculosis sanatoria were given power to "furnish nurses, instruction, medicine, attendance and all other aid necessary to effect a cure." Under this provision they can now begin treatment in the home and carry their instruction into the community by means of exhibits and other forms of instruction.

The nurses registration bill, a measure which provides for a three years' course for nursing and the fixing of standards of training by the state board, was passed in the face of a great deal of opposition. The purpose of the bill is to protect the registered nurse in the right to use the initials R. N. (registered nurse) and to guarantee the public that it is getting the service it wants.

The new workman's compensation act provides for an industrial board of three members to be appointed by the governor, one employer, one employe and one representative of the general public, to act as a court for the adjustment of claims for injuries and death. Its decisions are subject to review by the courts.

A commission was created to investigate into the causes and conditions of unemployment. It will consist of three employers, three employes and three from the general public, and is to report in two years.

A new funds to parents or mothers' pension act was substituted for the law passed two years ago. It makes practically all of the conditions upon which pensions are granted, with the present method of administration in the Juvenile Court, a part of the statute. The new act excludes unnaturalized aliens and deserted families.

Among some of the important measures that failed to pass was a bill for birth and death registration; a non-support bill drawn by Judge

July 12, 1913

Town of Canton, Massachusetts

IN ACCOUNT WITH ECONOMY

CR.			
By salary of one milk inspector saved			?
DR.			
To closing eighteen school houses because of epidemic of tonsilitis attributed to impure milk—school plant idle . .	?		
Loss of services of nineteen teachers during closing . .	?		
Time of 702 pupils wasted	?		
Losses from business houses closed during epidemic . .	?		
Loss of time of hundreds quarantined during the epidemic . .	?		
Expense of town authorities during epidemic—visiting physicians, nurses, tons of disinfectants	?		
Economic value of nineteen individuals who died in epidemic .	?		
Heartache	?	?	?
To Balance	?	?	?

Article 18 of the Warrant of the Board of Health of the town of Canton, Mass. (posted before the Annual town meeting for the citizens to read), was published as follows: " . . . . To see if the town will authorize the Board of Health to appoint an Inspector of Milk and appropriate a sum of money for the same."

At the annual town meeting held March 3, 1913, the article was voted down by a motion to dismiss, which was carried. Since then—the epidemic!

Goodnow on the basis of his experience at the Court of Domestic Relations; a bill giving better control of children between the ages of 14 and 16 so that they would either have to be employed or be in school; a bill to regulate messenger service and a bill prohibiting the admission of minors to saloons.

No minimum wage legislation was enacted although five different bills were introduced. A resolution calling for an investigation into the question also failed of passage.

A bill for an eight-hour day for women was introduced and amended in the house so as to provide for a 54-hour week. The senate, however, refused to concur and the bill was lost. A bill to exempt canneries from the operation of the present ten-hour law was vetoed by the governor.

CHILD LABOR IN THE SOUTH

On another page of this issue will be found Dr. McKelway's account of the first effective step taken by Florida for the protection of child workers. In her recent presidential address before the Southern Conference on Child and Woman Labor, Jean M. Gordon gave a clear picture of the progress and defects of child labor legislation in the South. Her strictures on Florida can be omitted in the expectation that the new law, providing as it does not only a high age limit but a special child labor inspector to make its terms effective, will bring in a new era.

Of the other southern states Miss Gordon pointed out that in the four years since the conference was organized every southern state has done something for its women and children, Georgia being the last in the South—indeed the last state in the Union—to adopt the sixty-hour week. This laggard state also illustrates a vicious practice peculiar to some southern states whose child labor laws "out-Herod Herod," in Miss Gordon's words, in allowing orphans who, of all children, should be tenderly cherished by the state, to work under the legal age.

Chief among the defects of child labor legislation in the South Miss Gordon held to be the lack of provision for proper enforcement, which makes a travesty of many of the laws. Mississippi leaves the enforcement of her law to the sheriff, the grand juries, the judges of the lower courts, to ministers, to teachers, "in fact, to any and every body, and in consequence the law is not enforced." Alabama has a special officer, but he is also responsible for all the jails, pris-

ons and almshouse, and conditions in these have needed so much attention that they have occupied most of his time. The Missouri law applies only to cities of 10,000. Therefore most of her large factories, employing hundreds of women and children, are on the outskirts of the cities and do not come under it. South Carolina has but one man to inspect its hundreds of cotton mills, to say nothing of other industries, and North Carolina and Georgia have not even gone through the form of putting inspection laws on their statute books.

Kentucky has so far proved herself the most advanced of the southern states by her recent appointment of a woman factory inspector.

"Most of us," says Miss Gordon with a pessimism that is pardonable after this showing, "seem perfectly contented to write the law into the statutes of the state, and then go home feeling that all is well. I am beginning to doubt if the men and women of the South are genuine in their demand that the children be allowed to enjoy their childhood and receive what is the inalienable right of every child, a free day-light education, and time for play."

PENNSYLVANIA SENATE BLOCKS CHILD LABOR BILL

The various forces which have many times prevented the passage of better labor legislation in Pennsylvania combined again this year to defeat the child labor bill[1] establishing an eight-hour day for children under sixteen. Never before, however, did these forces meet with such determined opposition.

After two great public hearings in the House the bill passed that body by an overwhelming vote in practically its original form. When it reached the Senate it was referred to a committee which for a full month refused even to consider it. After a public hearing to which 2,000 manufacturers went on special trains to oppose it, the bill was reported out of committee, but so badly mutilated as to cause its sponsors to doubt the advisability of its passage. The Senate amendments increased the hours for children to ten a day and fifty-four a week and several exceptions not now present in Pennsylvania's law were inserted. These included a cannery exemption; exemption for parents to employ their own children; and what was branded as a particularly objectionable exception, permitting the making up of time lost on holidays or by the "stoppage of machinery."

All efforts to bring together the conferees from the two houses finally failed and on the last night of the session, after five hours of discussion, the House reaffirmed its position and refused to agree to the bill as amended in the Senate.

[1]See THE SURVEY of May 31, 1913, p. 297.



DINING ROOM

City conditions have no place on a country farm. With 900 acres the buildings at Byberry are still overcrowded.

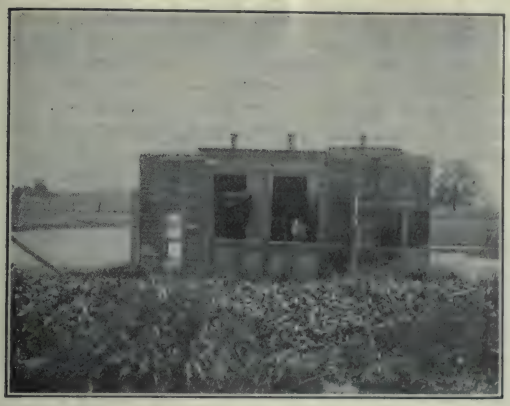
This leaves the situation just where it was at the beginning of the session. The law limits employment in factories of children under fourteen to sixty hours a week and ten hours a day.

The Pennsylvania Child Labor Association which carried on an active campaign for the House bill will continue to press for more advanced legislation.

PHILADELPHIA PLANS TO BREAK UP " BLOCKLEY "

In 1804 when the Philadelphia almshouse stood at Spruce and Eleventh streets, it was described in a memorial addressed to the Legislature as comprising "a poorhouse; a house for the reception of the aged and infirm whose condition incapacitates them from earning a subsistence; an orphan and foundling hospital; a ward for lying-in indigent women; apartments adapted to the treatment of the insane; workshops for those who are capable of exercising every species of industry; an extensive hospital for poor male and female patients requiring medical and surgical treatment." At the same time attention was called to the fact that "each of these departments has in most cities been separated into distinct establishments."

The almshouse was then cramped for space but it was thirty years before it moved to suburban "Blockley," across the Schuykill, where a farm of 158 acres was secured. The members of the committee which had memorialized the Legislature apparently must have passed away, for no one developed the idea of classification. The new institution was built on the congregate plan on a little corner of the big farm. There "Blockley" stands today on a five-acre plot enclosed by high walls. The rest of the farm has either been given to the University of Pennsylvania or sold to speculators. "Blockley" today almost word by word fits the description of its early prototype, except that a



"OPEN PLUMBING"
The beginning of modern methods and the adherence to old at Byberry.

memorializing committee would now have to add "blind," "epileptic," "tuberculous," "idiotic," "feeble-minded," and various other adjectives, if it attempted to classify the 5,500 inmates accurately.

At this juncture in the situation appears a new Committee on Municipal Charities with a report of 150 pages outlining methods for breaking "Blockley" into its constituent parts with appropriate institutions for each. Plans had previously been made, however, for two new independent institutions and contracts for their erection had been awarded.

These plans were the first step toward breaking up "Blockley," but the locations selected were criticised as being unsuitable. The desire to revise the plans brought about the organization of the committee and the advent of Mayor Blankenburg's administration opened the way. With some difficulty the committee secured the abrogation of one of the contracts. The Home for the Feeble Minded, to which the city was committed beyond recall, will be established on a large farm on the Byberry Tract in the northeastern extremity of the city.

The committee found a serious confusion between city, county, local poor boards and the state in the care of dependent children, the insane, the feeble-minded, and the epileptic, so that a clear differentiation of function, it states, must be made by the Legislature before the city may proceed with a wise and economical plan. By enlarging itself into the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, the committee has set out to awaken the state and to secure a revision of the laws. A firmly entrenched system of state subsidies to private charities, with meager appropriations to public institutions, stands in the way. William B. Buck, who steered the Committee on Municipal Charities, will be executive secretary of the new state association.

In the meantime, Philadelphia has taken stock of her public charities and is planning to proceed in the development of those functions that must, in any event, be continued by the municipality.

NEWARK HEALTH WORK NEEDS REORGANIZATION

If Newark were located anywhere but under the New Jersey eaves of New York city its size would be seen in truer perspective. It has over 350,000 people. In 1910 only St. Louis and San Francisco in all the territory west of the Mississippi River were as large as Newark.

For that reason the recent investigation of the Newark Department of Public Health is of special importance. Moreover, although so near New York, where is to be found so much leadership in modern public health work, the Newark department has, in recent years, to quote the report, "been marking time and giving little heed to the recent advances in public health science."

The investigation was made by the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation, at the request of the Newark Common Council. Franz Schneider, Jr., sanitarian of the department, spent over six weeks in analyzing all phases of Newark public health activities and in drafting a detailed report. He discusses the health department's plan of organization, the size of its appropriation, the adequacy of its scope and purpose, and the efficiency of its work. Although the department spends $175,000 a year, and is relatively one of the most liberally financed departments in the country, Mr. Schneider found it a striking example of loose organization and neglected opportunities.

Mr. Schneider's statement of the conclusions to be drawn from the Newark survey throws helpful light on the condition of the city's health department and its value to the community. Its form of organization, he says, "with a board of ten members directing an executive without technical training, is inimical to efficiency and progress."

In ten branches of health department activity the survey has shown that in two, sanitary inspection and laboratory work, the present health department furnishes a service which, though open to improvement, is fundamentally adequate; in four, the dispensary, vital statistics, control of communicable diseases and tuberculosis work, there is emphatic need for reorganization; in three others, infant hygiene, health education and publicity, and housing study, an adequate program is entirely lacking; while in the last, milk inspection, a program is only just being initiated.

To remedy the situation, Mr. Schneider points out that the most serious single need is a trained

and experienced specialist in public health to direct the department, replacing the present health officer who is hired merely as an executive. In this health specialist should be placed the responsibility for the policy and methods of the department. With such a health officer and a small board of carefully selected members to safeguard the ordinance-making power and give the health officer advice and counsel the department would be, to Mr. Schneider's idea, in a position to attempt effective work.

WOMEN WORKERS IN CONVENTION

Contemporaneously with the June sessions of the Missouri Commission on Women's Wages there was held at St. Louis the convention of the National Women's Trade Union League, whose officers were thus in time to supply the commission with first-hand information on the subject under investigation. Nearly one hundred representatives were present at the league meeting, and delegates and officials were for the most part women actually engaged in wage labor —garment workers, boot and shoe workers, glove workers, stenographers, waitresses, binders, suspender workers, journeyman tailors, grocery clerks, bookkeepers, hat makers, hat trimmers, waist and dress makers, beer bottlers and telegraph operators. Each was a specialist on some phase of the industrial, educational or political interests of her sex.

A composite picture of the entire convention on the human side, says one enthusiast, "would show a middle-aged woman with plain strong features, maternal tenderness strongly marked, balanced by fine intelligence, broad, level brow, quick, intelligent eyes, sensitiveness, idealism,— all the attributes that are considered essential to womanhood and motherhood; pose, and marked self-possession, patience, executive ability and unswerving purpose.

In her address as president of the league, Mrs. Raymond Robins of Chicago, recognized as the twin industrial facts of the day, the "ever increasing number of women entering every trade and the successful social uprisings of the workers in the sweated industries." She started with a plea for organization:

"In all these strikes, women and girls have been in the majority and unless we equip ourselves for definite training in organization work we will not be able to hold what has been gained through suffering and hardship and imprisonment during the strikes. All of us know that the task after a strike is the constructive work of organization, and it is idle to think that this work can be done without organizers. No group of people can hold what they have won in the way of fairer conditions except by their courage, initiative and vigilance and their trained capacity to stand together. The greatest value in the trade agreement, in arbitration and trade boards, and boards of sanitary control lies in the opportunity given for self-government. It is this industrial democracy—the establishment of self-government in the workshops of America—which is the very foundation of trade union principles. Many and many a time this call to self-government, this sense of responsibility towards her condition of work is the first awakening of the young girl. Unorganized she has to accept conditions as she finds them. She loses her job when she asserts her fundamental right to have a voice as to the conditions under which she works. Self-government is essential to the making of a free people, and self-government in the day's work can be had only by the united action of the workers."

Only second to organization in Mrs. Robins's view comes legislation; hence her belief in the importance of the suffrage to the woman wage-earner, whose most immediate legislative need at the present time, she held, is minimum wage laws, supplemented and made effective by legislation for industrial education.

The work of pushing legislation along these lines was taken up by the legislative committee of the league. This committee will also endeavor to introduce into the public schools a special course of study to equip boys and girls to enter the industrial world with an elementary knowledge of the laws which have been enacted for their protection, this course to be required of those applying for working certificates.

Following Mrs. Robins's plea for more and better trained organizers, to the education committee was assigned the task of establishing a training school for women organizers under the direction of the National Women's Trade Union League, and also the task of conducting correspondence courses in trade unionism. The league will not meet again in convention till 1915.

A BASEMENT FLOOR FOR LODGING HOUSE

Patrons of the St. Louis municipal lodging-house objected to sleeping during severe winter weather on newspapers spread on a granitoid floor. Moreover, they are gaining public attention by their attempts to secure cots from the municipality. The chances are that they will succeed, notwithstanding the fact that the mayor is being quoted as having said that "maudlin sentiment" should be avoided, that all that homeless men should expect is to be made a little more comfortable, and that cots would quickly become infested with vermin unless night shirts were furnished and baths required—a plan which he deems impracticable.

Close to two hundred bleak-looking men sat recently in the gallery of the House of Delegates and silently begged for more consideration. But the answer to the delegates' plea for improved conditions in the improvised lodging basement was to send a member to Chicago to learn how that city meets such a situation.

Probably no social relief has been worked for harder in St. Louis than an up-to-date municipal lodging-house. Last winter during very cold weather, the basement of the deserted Four Courts Building was used for lodging homeless men. The floor was crowded nightly. It was thought that finally the time was ripe, the need having been made so public, for securing a real municipal lodging-house. Accordingly, at the request of the City Council and the Civic League, the Municipal Library compiled and published a pamphlet of thirteen large pages, exhaustively describing the situation in all the other cities, and so arguing against St. Louis' inaction. There resulted a bill to create a Social Welfare Commission which would bring relief to many bad conditions. The establishment of a lodging-house was provided for in the measure. Soon it was found that the House of Delegates was not so eager for such a far-reaching bill. After many new bills and amendments had come and gone, a measure meagerly financing the improvement and care of the Four Courts basement was passed. Hundred of lodgers (more than lodge nightly in the Chicago Municipal Lodging-house) are sleeping on newspapers spread on the granitoid basement floor. The unoccupied first floor is of wood.

Meanwhile, the discussion about cots still rages and whether or not two hours' labor should be required before extending the privilege of space on a cold damp floor.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE FLORIDA CHILD LABOR CAMPAIGN

A. J. McKELWAY
Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee for the Southern States

[Eight years' work for the child laborer in Florida has met with its first success in the Legislature. This Florida child labor campaign was directly in charge of the author of this article, whose familiarity with industrial conditions and skill in presenting the claims of working children were responsible for the success of the new child labor bill in many critical stages.—Ed.]

The meeting of the National Child Labor Committee in Jacksonville last March has borne fruit in the passage of a child labor law in Florida by the Legislature which adjourned June 6. A strong State Child Labor Committee of several hundred members was organized following the meeting, with Dr. J. W. Stagg of Orlando, as chairman; Marcus C. Fogg of Jacksonville, secretary of the Florida Children's Home Society, as secretary, and Mrs. J. W. McGriff, notable for her work for women's clubs, as membership secretary.

The bill was drafted on the basis of the Uniform Child Labor Law, with some modifications to suit Florida conditions, and was introduced early in the session by the speaker of the House, Ion B. Farris and by the president of the Senate, H. J. Drane.

The only open opposition came from the Jacksonville *Times-Union*, a paper unusually timid concerning anything that might affect corporation interests, and from the Western Union Telegraph Company. This latter opposition was unexpected as the age limit for the night messenger service had been put at eighteen instead of twenty-one which is the standard in New York, New Jersey and several other states, and ought to be in every state. In a private conversation Belvidere Brooks, vice-president of the Western Union, had expressed himself as in favor of the eighteen-year age limit, but the state agents of the Western Union took it upon themselves to oppose the whole bill as it was drawn, issuing a pamphlet to this effect which the state agent of the Postal Telegraph Company also signed. So vigorous was this opposition that it seemed to the writer too great to be overcome without risk of the whole bill, and a substitute measure was prepared on the basis of a bill which passed the Florida house four years ago. This substitute fixes a ten-year age limit for boys and a sixteen-year age limit for girls in the newsboy service, with a twelve-year age limit for work in stores and the street trades generally, these two sections applying only to cities of 6,000 population or more. The third section prohibits the employment of children in factories, workshops, theaters, etc., under fourteen years of age anywhere in the state.

Sixteen years is made the limit for dangerous occupations and processes, eighteen years for the night messenger service and twenty-one years for employment in places where intoxicating liquors are sold. Night work is prohibited and the hours for children under sixteen years of age are nine a day, fifty-four a week. The general provisions of the Uniform Child Labor Law slightly modified prescribe the procedure for securing certificates of employment under the direction of the school authorities.

The beginning of legislation in the state for industrial safety and health is made by provisions for safety appliances, sanitation, and seats for girls in establishments employing children under sixteen years of age. The bill provides for a state labor inspector, man or woman, whose sole duty is the enforcement of the child labor act. The law takes effect next January.

Representative C. H. B. Floyd of Apalachicola, who placed the bill on the privileged calendar opposite his name, as the one bill he was allowed to bring up in the closing days of the session is largely responsible for its passing the house without discussion, 56 to 0. By a vote of 27 to 2, it had passed the Senate, where it was supported

by President Drane and F. M. Hudson, who for eight years has championed child labor legislation in the Florida Legislature. Representative Floyd made a most effective speech in its support, saying that the House had been legislating for the birds of the air, the beasts of the fields and the fish of the sea, in the game and fish commission bill just passed, and it was time now to do something for the children of Florida. He took peculiar pleasure in representing Apalachicola in the advocacy of the bill, he said, as Apalachicola has been misrepresented through the efforts of its largest oyster packer, John G. Ruge, in the defeat of previous bills before the Florida Legislature.

Florida has thus taken her place among the progressive states of the nation, and the four cotton mill states, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, with an age limit of twelve for factories, are now surrounded by southern states with an age limit of fourteen. It is to be hoped that the cotton manufacturers, who have been recently pleading with the United States Senate for greater protection for their infant industry, will not be allowed much longer to lobby successfully against effective laws to prevent their exploitation of industrious infants.

NEW YORK PRISONS

The wrangle over prison management in New York state, which continued throughout the Dix administration and extended into the turbulent regime of Governor Sulzer, gives promise of abatement through the appointment of a Commission on Prison Reform. It is non-political and non-partisan in character and is vested with authority to order the affairs of penal administration in New York state in such wise that the new concept of prison discipline can find form in the legislation, and the ensuing statute law in the administrative policy and practice.

William Church Osborne investigated the system, denounced it, threw out Cornelius Collins and was blocked in his more constructive program by the wiles of the political manipulators. The uncompleted work was left to Governor Sulzer on his assumption of office. Frederick H. Mills, who had successfully weathered the storm since the days of prison contracts nearly a cycle ago, was removed on charges similar to those preferred in THE SURVEY many months before, and with him the superintendency of Colonel Scott came to its downfall. The poignant statements of a newspaper man, George W. Blake, whom the governor appointed to rake over the prison scandals, portrayed in vivid colors the conditions which penal reformers, like Mr. Barrows, had pointed out and decried for many years but to which the ear of the public was as deaf as that of the politician.

Popular indignation as the result of the publicity given to Mr. Blake's reports, and the open antagonism of the senatorial leaders from New York city to the appointment of Judge Riley as superintendent of prisons, gives opportunity to the new superintendent, not had by his predecessors, to appeal for popular support from the interested public. This appeal has taken form in a request to the governor for the appointment of a new commission on prison reform which "should formulate a complete system for the control and reformation of the prisoner," to quote Judge Riley's words, "a system which shall be more in accordance than our present one with the modern ideas of justice and modern methods of treating criminals, so as to attain the most beneficial results for them and at the same time conserve the interests of the state."

The personnel of the commission gives hope of the dawn of a new order of things penal in the state. Thomas Mott Osborne, who is chairman, was for many years president of the George Junior Republic, having recently resigned to become chairman of the National Committee on Prison Labor. The vice chairman, Prof. George W. Kirchwey, formerly dean of the Columbia Law School and candidate for the Court of Appeals at the last election, represents probably more than any other man of legal training the militant attitude in reform of the criminal law. Judge Charles M. Hough of the United States District Court is known for his clarity of vision. Prof. Howard Townsend Mosher is a member of the faculty of Rochester University and Edward Bates of Utica is secretary and treasurer of the State Federation of Labor. The New York State Federation of Women's Clubs is represented by its president, Mary Garret Hay, who is also a director of Bedford Reformatory. The other women on the commission are the President's daughter, Margaret Wilson, and Hannah Blum, wife of the chaplain of the New York Police Department though better known to social workers as a daughter of Henry Morgenthau. The secretary and treasurer, E. Stagg Whitin is chairman of the executive committee of the National Committee on Prison Labor. He has investigated prison conditions in many states, his most recent work being for the Board of Public Affairs in Wisconsin. The inclusion of Judge Riley, the superintendent of prisons, secures for the commission the co-operation of all prison officials.

The new commission has issued a call for help and co-operation in its work from all interested in the possible accomplishment of the task before it. It is anxious to hear from all persons having ideas as to the betterment that is possible and especially does it hope to get in touch with men of intelligence who have had experience within prison walls.

CASTING THE HOROSCOPE IN ILLINOIS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

At the close of this tense legislative year in Illinois and Chicago, it is difficult to discriminate sharply between the political and social significance of events. But it is much more evident that partisans are playing politics with social issues, than that those promoting or defending measures of social advance are dividing their forces by resorting to political methods. Indeed the tests to which they have been put have very decisively united them in their social propaganda, notwithstanding they are more divided than ever before politically. This reassures the hope for the future and disappoints the foes of progress.

No such gauntlet has been thrown into the arena of Chicago's public interests since its streets were rescued from the conspiracy of public utility raiders and corrupt legislators and aldermen, as was recently and unexpectedly flung at the feet of the Chicago Plan Commission and the retinue of organizations enlisted in the crusade for the better and more beautiful city. The great plan initiated by the Commercial Club, comprising most of Chicago's richest and commercially influential men, for two years has been developing in the hands of the Plan Commission authorized by the City Council and appointed by the mayor. Surprising progress had been made. The link connecting the north and the south sides was ordered by ordinance extending Michigan Boulevard, on two levels, across the space which has cut off the boulevard connection on both these sides of the city.

The widening of Twelfth Street to be the great east and west thoroughfare was also achieved by act of the City Council and is in process of realization. But still more surprising was the success of the commission in recovering the Lake Michigan riparian rights of the city from the Illinois Central Railroad, which had long laid claim to the water front. Through the joint commissioners, the railway and the City Council, a readjustment was effected whereby the city is free to create outlying parks by "made land"and to construct interior lagoons along the whole water front from Grant Park at the center to Jackson Park and up the Midway ten miles to the south. These plans also provided for a great civic center a mile across the river on the west side and therefore protected the city center from the further encroachments of railway freight terminals, which now dangerously congest its street traffic.

All at once, in the very midst of this progress, a group of railways headed by the Pennsylvania, introduced ordinances into the City Council for the vacating of streets and alleys to enable the erection not only of a vast passenger station, but of a still vaster freight terminal, elevated from fourteen to thirty-nine feet, like a veritable Chinese wall extending—passenger and freight together—from Madison Street, the central east and west thoroughfare, south to Sixteenth Street. These ordinances were introduced not only without conference with the city's official plan commission, but at the very time requests were vainly urged upon the railways to confer with the commission over their respective plans.

As soon as it thus became evident that an attempt was being made to get action upon these railway ordinances without deliberation and expert advice, city planners and citizens of all classes in all sections arose in arms. The City Club held a series of noon discussions at which all sides were heard and were subjected to challenge. The City Council's special committee on railway terminals held many public hearings, at which the railway architects, attorneys and managers led off, but were intrepidly, vigorously and unitedly followed up by other architects and engineers, civic and commercial bodies. Without committal to or insistence upon any one of the several railway terminal plans, emphatic demands upon the City Council for deliberate, expertly advised and comprehensive action were made by the Western Society of Engineers, the Chicago Architects' Business Association, the Greater Chicago Federation, the Woman's City Club and the Cook County Real Estate Board, which thus powerfully supported the fighting force of the Chicago Plan Commission and the City Club. Among the many men of public affairs taking their stand for the city's future was Frederic A. Delano, president of the Wabash Railway, who has been appointed by President Wilson a member of the Industrial Relations Commission, after having been nominated by ex-President Taft.

While public sentiment was thus formulating itself, local politicians and locally interested shopkeepers lined up for the railway project before they could understand or feel the weight of argument and public opinion. So quickly and strongly was the pressure of it brought to bear upon the City Council's committee that attempts to "railroad" the ordinances through the council promptly gave way to action recommending the appropriation of $10,000 to employ a commission of experts to submit a railway terminal policy for the whole city. The City Council promptly appropriated the money, thus endorsing this same method of settling the issue.

Despite the whispered claims and silent suspicions that enough votes had been secured in advance to pass the ordinance, no one now fears that three-fourths of the aldermen will desire or dare to vacate these streets and alleys for a project which will thwart forever the plan for the city's best development, or that eighteen of the seventy aldermen can not be found to block any such attempt.

It is well not only for Chicago, but for the whole country, that this attempt to ignore and ride roughshod over the newly asserted right of the cities to plan and control their own development should have been made in the light of publicity which Chicago has a habit of focusing upon its public affairs. Once for all, notice thus seems to be served upon all public utility corporations that no longer can they dictate their own terms to self-respecting cities, but that only as they consult and conserve the city's interests can they hope to promote their own.

Closely in line with this issue is the struggle for the "home-rule" of public utilities in Chicago. When the Legislature passed the bill constituting a single state commission of five members to be appointed by the governor, with state-wide scope, practically all the commercial and civic bodies of the city sent strong delegations to the governor, which were headed by the mayor and almost the entire City Council, to urge his veto of the bill. Notwithstanding the elimination of the home-rule clause which he himself had favored, Governor Dunne signed the bill, claiming, in a statement issued "to the people of Illinois," that it was his duty to the whole state to give it a law based upon the Wisconsin act, and including the best provisions in the laws of other states. He further promised to do his utmost to secure a home-rule amendment to the act at the next session of the Legislature, and meanwhile pledged himself to appoint a commission "of such character and ability as to place the cities of the state under no political disadvantage by reason of the failure to include the home-rule amendment."

His veto of the bill providing for the consolidation of Chicago's four larger and seven smaller park commissions, which has long been sought by the people, still further complicates the situation and solidifies the opposition to the governor's action. While constitutional objections were given for his veto, his political enemies account for it and for his signing away the home-rule rights of Chicago, by the political advantage of retaining the patronage of the park appointments and of gaining that of the public utilities commission.

Practically all who have been in the long and successful struggle to make Chicago a council-governed city regard both these acts of the Legislature and the governor as dangerously reactionary, virtually stripping the aldermen of authority to fulfil their hitherto great responsibility for the city and therefore depreciating their office in their own estimate and that of their fellow citizens.

The mayor and city administration have been quick to see and seize this political advantage in proposing the organization of "non-partisan home-rule clubs as fighting forces, until the Legislature shall have restored home rule to Chicago." It remains to be seen how "non-partisan" such clubs may prove to be. But it is safe to predict that whatever political advantage may accrue to their promoter, the really non-partisan civic, commercial and labor organizations of the city will unite to retrieve the loss and increase the gain essential to Chicago's indomitable movement for social progress.

What effect the new votes of women will have in deciding these issues at local elections is puzzling the politicians. Governor Dunne, however, courageously signed the bill against tremendous opposition from above and below. While not yet granted the right to vote in state elections, until the constitution can be amended, the eligibility of a million and a half women to vote in national and municipal elections is an unknown quantity which can not be forecast. But the women's organizations are being quickly and effectively united by the Chicago Woman's City Club to train and encourage women to vote.

The very day after the suffrage bill was enacted they decided "to make a concentrated effort to improve the city's housekeeping," and issued a call to all other women's organizations to make the first point in a program for the city campaign the more effective disposal of the city's waste. Noon meetings for the discussion of the most pressing problems in citizenship were begun and will be continued for a month, and probably resumed in the autumn. The publication of outlines for the study of citizenship, together with reading lists, was provided for. The election commissioners of the county have also taken up the training of women to use the new voting machines which are being introduced. Other women are being trained to explain the process of registration and voting to the women of the city. It is thought that classes for women voters may be held under the auspices of the commissioners. The experiment of using schoolhouses as voting places succeeded so well last spring that many more will be opened as better polling places for both men and women. Law schools are adding lectures and classes for women on the election laws. The managing committees of political parties are being urged to instruct precinct committeemen to encourage women to vote by relieving the surroundings of the polls from disagreeable features and by explaining in advance the process of voting.

The effect upon men of these educational movements for the training of women to vote will be watched with interest and hope. Certain it is that with women's ever-increasing discernment of the close connection between their household economy and public administration, social politics seem destined to supersede merely partisan politics, as women's votes may wield the balance of power in city government.

BOOKS

THE RELATION OF EDUCATION TO CITIZENSHIP
By SIMEON E. BALDWIN. Yale University Press. 178 pp. Price $1.15; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.23.

PREPARING FOR CITIZENSHIP
By WILLIAM BACKUS GUITTEAU. Houghton Mifflin Co. 238 pp. Price $.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $.84.

Governor Baldwin of Connecticut in this series of Yale lectures on the responsibilities of citizenship presents in a somewhat rambling and discursive vein the ideals for an education of a gentleman of the old school. He regards the educated man as a capitalist and a capitalist who can never become bankrupt. "Capital existing in any honest form brings respect; it also brings responsibility. A capitalist is always bound to use capital."

In discussing the shaping of education to citizenship he brings out the two callings of every citizen,—the particular one by which he earns a livelihood and the general calling which he has in common with the citizen and the man. He urges that special education is needed to fit a man for each of these special callings, though the second is not generally deemed as necessary.

As a whole the volume is an appeal to the college graduate to take an interest in politics in a better sense. This he interprets, however, so far as the book shows, in a somewhat narrower sense than many of our present-day leaders.

Little response is evident to the shibboleth of social service which is playing so great a part these days. In places he shows an adherence to conservative views to which many would dissent, as where he says that a people may as a whole, be overeducated.

* * *

Preparing for Citizenship is an elementary text-book in civics intended to supplement the author's previous volume for older pupils, Government and Politics in the United States. He has remembered that government is to be studied as a living organism, and places stress upon the spirit and functions of government, rather than merely upon its form. The pictures, although a number are of the customary type such as photographs of the national and state capitol buildings, have on the whole been selected to show the dynamic functioning of government, whether it be the building of a road or the medical inspection of school children. All in all, the book gives a good living picture of the work the nation does through its governmental agencies, rather than a mere skeleton description of the agencies through which work is done.

Even making full allowance for the fact that the book is aimed at young people, in places it is written down to their level too obviously and in a manner that will seem to many boys and girls, preachy and goody-goody. Mr. Guitteau also at times quotes from authorities that young school barbarians are apt to regard as "dead ones." Some years ago in Brooklyn, a green speaker at a local political convention arose and began "Mr. Chairman, Plato says——." He got no further. The reference to Cicero at the beginning of the second chapter of Mr. Guitteau's book tends to have the same effect. The mechanical device of printing in italics the key words such as government, convention, etc., has not been followed at all times consistently.

The chapter on public charities contains statements which make one ask, "Why?" But to this question no answer is given. Further along we learn that "social welfare imperatively demands a restriction of child labor and in recent years much has been accomplished in this direction, largely owing to the activity of women's clubs and other organizations." This overlooking of the National Child Labor Committee and the consumers' leagues is surprising. In fact the book in no place gives any satisfactory idea of the effect that the work of national and local social organizations is having upon governmental activities.

JAMES P. HEATON.

A BUNCH OF LITTLE THIEVES
By DAVID S. GREENBERG. The Shakespeare Press. 336 pp. Price, $1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.46.

This book is crude in literary workmanship, not convincing in some of its situations, and highly improbable in a part of its chronology. In spite of its defects, however, it bears convincing internal evidence of having been written by one who has himself either lived through many of the experiences described or has received much information directly from those who have so lived. It boils and bubbles hot with indignant protest at the ignorance of boy nature, —the benumbing incompetency, and the cruel brutality, with which boys from poor homes and the commercialized streets of our cities are treated.

The indictment is really drawn against the home, the school, the juvenile court, the community, and the industrial school to which the rest of us send boys who incarnate our failures.

The assumption of our truancy and juvenile court laws is, that boys will get a square deal and a real chance after they have been sent to parental school or juvenile reformatory. The thesis of this book is that this assumption is false in at least one school. The implication is that it is false in many schools.

This issue must be squarely met by those who are responsible for the care of juvenile delinquents. There is real danger that our care of delinquents by probation officers will prove inefficient for at least two reasons. First, that the probation officer will be given so many children to care for that he can care adequately for none; and, second, that the troubles of probation officers will be multiplied by the attempt to care for boys and girls on probation who are so schooled in wrongdoing that nothing short of custodial care will suffice to control them. It is therefore of first importance that a judge of a juvenile court shall at all times be convinced that the

institutions to which he commits boys and girls are humane and efficient. Any fear on his part that a given institution is not humane, or efficient, or both, increases his reluctance to commit boys and girls that ought to be committed and, therefore, tends to increase the number of boys and girls on probation who cannot be so helped.

It is the duty of the community to see to it that the alternative before the judge in any given case is between an efficient probation care on the one side and an efficient institutional care on the other hand. A weakness, or even a current belief in a weakness, in either probation or in institution, tends to break down efficiency all along the line in dealing with juvenile delinquency. To use an illustration from baseball, the community must know that each position—that of probation officer and institution—is well played before we can be sure of a good "team-game" in the care of difficult boys and girls.

Again, so far as institutions for delinquent boys are concerned, their efficiency cannot be accurately tested by drum and trumpet inspections. Some way of knowing from day to day and week to week the actual experience of the boys and girls who go to institutions is necessary to a sound judgment as to the worth of the institution.

The value of this book is its challenge. Are the alleged facts as to brutality and incompetence true? It is the duty of the community to know. If they are true—we are not only educating "gunmen" in our congested streets, but we are "speeding up" the process in some of our institutions. HENRY W. THURSTON.

THE ECONOMIC UTILIZATION OF HISTORY

By HENRY W. FARNAM. Yale University Press. 220 pp. Price $1.25. By mail of THE SURVEY, $1.35.

The Economic Utilization of History, by Professor Farnam, is an appeal to economists, and perhaps no less to lawmakers and the public, to analyze the economic experience of the past in order that present-day problems may be approached and that laws may be drafted with greater intelligence. The author declares that his purpose is "to emphasize three considerations, (1) the need of systematic and concerted extension of this (the historical) method; (2) the scientific value of historical facts; and (3) the importance of utilizing the great amount of economic material contained in the history of our own country."

Emphasis is laid upon the advantages for economic observation under the political system of the United States. The need of more and better protective legislation in behalf of industrial workers is discussed and attention is directed to the haphazard and unscientific methods in legislation that have hitherto prevailed. The author feels that much social work at the present time is misdirected in that it does not touch fundamentals, but he believes that there are "signs of a better social vision."

The book contains an interesting description of the unique industrial experiment at the Zeiss Optical Works at Jena, Germany.

JOHN A. FITCH.

EUROPEAN CITIES AT WORK

By FREDERIC C. HOWE. Charles Scribner's Sons. 370 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.90.

THE MAKING OF A TOWN

By FRANK L. MCVEY. A. C. McClurg & Co. 221 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.09.

THE SOCIAL CENTER

Edited by EDWARD J. WARD. D. Appleton & Company. 359 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

The average thoughtful citizen who is beginning to have a vision of what the city can be and do for its dwellers will find his vision crystallizing into a definite picture, and even into a program for effort, as he reads Frederic C. Howe's book on European Cities at Work. For it is a record of achievement and as such it should prove a stimulus to those practical citizens who always want to know whether a thing has ever been done before. It is a veritable compendium of facts presented in an illuminative and readable way.

Dr. Howe idealizes the German city, and does so with abundant justification if the reader merely keeps American cities in mind. Only in statements concerning congestion and the restricted municipal suffrage does the note of criticism creep in.

Two big facts stand out which will doubtless prove surprising to many American readers. One is that the German city of today, quite as much as American cities, is a product of the last twenty or thirty years. "Only its location, its traditions, its royal palaces, and its beauty are old." Growth of population has been parallel with that of our own cities, and the comparatively recent development of advanced municipal activities and policies leaves no room for the excuse that the cities of the old world have had more time in which to work out the extension of their functions.

The other big fact is that their municipal socialism is not due to "reformers" but to business men. That business men with political power "do not legislate in the interest of their class as they do in America" is an anomaly, as Dr. Howe says, for he points out that there is "no other country in the world in which this is true." He tries to find the explanation in the "psychology of the people, traceable to home rule," but while his points are suggestive and interesting they leave room for many questions and are not as satisfying as might be wished.

The differences between German and English cities are set forth with great clearness, and the contrast between German emphasis on city service and "community living" and the sort of municipal administration occasioned by the fact that "the British voter thinks in economic rather than in personal terms," is particularly illuminating.

* * *

Dr. McVey's book on The Making of a Town is a useful manual which should prove of great value to officials and earnest citizens in small communities. It is one more illustration of the way in which a state university may serve people. As president of the University of North Dakota, Dr. McVey has perhaps had in mind the needs of the small towns in his state, but

his book should find a wide reading among small town dwellers from one coast to the other.

While drawing suggestion from European as well as American municipal activities, his message is more instructive than descriptive. It bears not the slightest earmark of the learned treatise, but its language, as clear and simple as the five words of its title, is the sort which the man in the street will find readable.

There are slight inaccuracies, as when the town of Le Clair is said to be in Missouri. And the student who knows the towns named will criticize the classing of Gary, Hopedale and Le Clair with Port Sunlight, Bourneville, and Alfredshof in Essen, when instances are given by which the manufacturing village under company control may be "best illustrated." But the practical adaptation to the small town of the principles of town planning, arrangement and width of streets, simplified and efficient administration, budgets, public health, education and recreation, is sound and greatly needed.

There is also much good advice concerning the diversification of industries in the chapter on the relation of the town's business to its civic life. And it is interesting to note that almost at the outset a town survey is suggested, with a simple outline of what it should cover. The chapter on organizations and what they can do for the town is particularly valuable as indicating the way in which the practical civic work may be carried out.

Even to the dimensions of schoolrooms, their ventilation, lighting and decorating, and to the menu and service in the dining room of the town hotel, concrete suggestion is given, and to this concreteness much of the value of the book in serving its purpose is due. At the end there is a short and good set of references for each chapter.

* * *

Information as to municipal activities elsewhere is invaluable, and practical guide books on what to do, whether in small towns or large, are useful, but there is another element to our social and civic problem—the spirit and way of working together. The volume on The Social Center, edited by Edward J. Ward, is the first expression in book form of the rapidly growing movement to provide for and promote the spirit and way of working together. If we are ever to develop in this country that "community living" which Dr. Howe finds in German cities, if we are ever to give the springs of democracy the opportunity to flow unimpeded and untainted, the social center movement will help to show us how. Mr. Ward's book is the expression of the idea and ideal to which he has devoted so much activity and thought, and which others in city, town and rural community, through school, recreation center, university extension, art gallery, library, and other neighborhood focal points are developing so splendidly. The book is largely a re-statement and collation of previous writings by Mr. Ward and others. The substance of it is thus familiar and needs no exposition to readers of THE SURVEY, who will recognize at once the value of having the material in permanent and convenient form. The school, as the people's gathering place, plays the major part in the social center movement, and to its adaptation the book is mainly devoted. But for all who want to help make any of the institutions of our community life serve democracy in the highest degree, this book will prove indispensable. GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR.

WHEN I WAS A BOY IN GREECE

By GEORGE DEMETRIOS. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. 168 pp. Price $.60; by mail of THE SURVEY $.67.

This little volume of the memories of a Greek boy from Macedonia possesses unusual charm. It has too a timely interest, for it gives a vivid insight into the life of the village folk of the region which has been the theater of the Balkan war.

From this primitive life, curiously redolent still of ancient Greece and overshadowed by the more barbaric power of Turkey, this high school lad came to Boston and was put to work for "quick cash" at blacking boots. At this he worked ruinously long hours, with no knowledge of English or opportunity to learn it, with no training (or prospect of training) for any better kind of work. Just as his health seemed giving way, the one chance out of ten thousand brought him into contact with an older man, an artist, who felt the situation so keenly that he induced the boy to leave his work. This friend, as he came to know Demetrios better through the effort to find more suitable employment for him, discovered in him what appears to be a genuine gift for sculpture. Now he is trying to secure an opportunity to develop this talent.

These facts of George Demetrios' American experience are not touched on in the book and it it to be hoped that he, like Mary Antin and Yoshio Markino and others, may make the effort to describe not only his memories of his native country but the experiences of transition and readjustment. All students of immigration, all persons interested in the contacts of different currents of tradition, must rejoice in the appearance of every such first hand contribution to our understanding of the elements that are entering into our ever more complex culture.

EMILY GREENE BALCH.

ECONOMIC SURVEY OF PITTSBURGH

By J. T. Holdsworth. 229 pp.

Among the many current studies of local conditions this volume is significant as having been prepared for the City Council of Pittsburgh by a professor in the University of Pittsburgh. This city, which gave no warm welcome to the facts portrayed by an outside group of investigators, has now undertaken a study of its own economic conditions "predicated upon the idea that . . . industrial and commercial progress is largely dependent upon social and civic conditions." The findings of an investigation so originated will undoubtedly be given a thoughtful hearing and should have a direct influence on civic action.

The topics considered are: the smoke problem, workingmen's homes, rents, wages, unemployment, the cost of living, recreation, taxation and

the use of land, and municipal efficiency. For each there is a general statement of conditions in Pittsburgh and of certain developments along these lines in other cities, followed by conclusions as to next steps in Pittsburgh. The statistics on which the conclusions are based are few and far from convincing, a result, probably, of the endeavor to cover with a small staff so wide a range of topics in a short period of field work.

Even for the topics to which most time was given, such as housing, the data are inadequate. The particular phases discussed are the insufficient number of houses for workingmen and the matter of rents. Over fifty pages are given to pictures of houses in Pittsburgh and in cities of corresponding size—Cleveland, Milwaukee, Buffalo, Philadelphia, Detroit, Newark, Baltimore. On these the comparisons as to rent are based. Professor Holdsworth objects to the statement about rents in Pittsburgh made in the report of the English Board of Trade, because the houses chosen in Pittsburgh were not, he thinks, typical. He, of course, lays himself open to the same criticism. Ten selected houses in each city certainly do not give a sound basis for comparative statistics.

This same general criticism may be applied to the comparisons of food cost. Prices of certain articles were secured in sixty stores in Pittsburgh and in six to ten stores in certain other cities, and from the figures so obtained conclusions are drawn. One could wish that either money had been appropriated for more thorough investigation or that the work had been confined to the adequate presentation of certain topics.

The value of the report as a working manual would have been increased had it indicated which activities are already under way and the service which the community as well as the City Council might render.

The report is none the less interesting as indicating the increasing desire of the public and of city officials for knowledge of community conditions. Professor Holdsworth recommends continuous surveys in certain specialized fields. If his program is carried out and if these studies are accurate and detailed, Pittsburgh will set a new standard for a municipality in studying its own problems.

MARGARET F. BYINGTON.

MONARCHICAL SOCIALISM IN GERMANY

By ELMER ROBERTS. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 200 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.37.

Monarchical Socialism in Germany is valuable not only because of its authority but because the writer has succeeded in grouping the vital points in such a way as to give a clear picture in outline. For those wishing to make a study of Socialism in Germany and to whom the subject is new, it will serve as an excellent door.

The author makes every chapter point toward his object which he gives in the opening sentences of the first chapter: "The motive of this writing is to convey some notion of the extent in which the associated monarchies, forming the German imperial states, are engaged in profit-yielding undertakings that in other states are usually left entirely to persons or companies, and also to give some account of other social and economic experiments."

The State Enterprises, as such, The Labor Exchange Experiment, Unemployment Insurance, Taxing the Increase in Land Values (modified single tax) are some of the chapters of especial interest. The book can easily be read in two hours and is full of facts useful to the beginner in the study of any and all types of socialism.

ELLEN LEE.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN JUNE

SOCIAL IDEALISM AND THE CHANGING THEOLOGY. Gerald Birney Smith. The Macmillan Co. 251 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.34.

RELIGION AS LIFE. By Henry Churchill King. The Macmillan Co. 194 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08.

LIBERTY AND THE GREAT LIBERTARIANS. By Charles T. Sprading. Charles T. Sprading, publisher. 540 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

HEROINES OF MODERN PROGRESS. By Elmer C. Adams and Warren Dunham Foster. Sturgis and Walton Co. 324 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

THE UNREST OF WOMAN. By Edward Sanford Martin. D. Appleton and Co. 146 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.09.

A SURVEY OF THE WOMAN PROBLEM. By Rosa Mayreder. Geo. H. Doran Co. 275 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

THE NEW UNIONISM. By André Tridon. B. W. Huebsch. 198 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08.

LESSONS IN ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN WOMEN. By Ruth Austin. American Book Co. 159 pp. Price $.35; by mail of THE SURVEY $.41.

THE WALLED CITY. By Edward H. William, M.D. Funk and Wagnalls. 250 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.11.

THE CHURCH AND THE LABOR CONFLICT. By Parley Paul Warner. The Macmillan Co. 302 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

PREVENTIVE MEDICINE AND HYGIENE. By Milton J. Rosenau. D. Appleton and Co. 1074 pp. Price $6.00; prepaid of THE SURVEY $6.30.

THE MASKED WAR. By William J. Burns. Geo. H. Doran Co. 328 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.64.

THE OLD ADAM. By Arnold Bennett. Geo. H. Doran Co. 314 pp. Price $1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.48.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A WORKING WOMAN. By Adelheide Popp. Translated by E. C. Harvey. F. S. Browne & Co. 135 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.32.

ECONOMICS OF BUSINESS. By Norris A. Brisco. The Macmillan Co. 390 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

THE IMMIGRANT. By Frederic J. Haskin. Fleming H. Revell. 251 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.37.

BETWEEN ERAS—FROM CAPITALISM TO DEMOCRACY. By Albion W. Small. Inter Collegiate Press. 431 pp. Price $1.65; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.85.

THE COUNTRY CHURCH. By C. O. Gill and Gifford Pinchot. The Macmillan Co. 222 pp. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.34.

THE SEVENTH ANNUAL PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY. University of Chicago Press. 223 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

MINIMUM WAGE AND SYNDICALISM. By James Boyle. Stewart & Kidd Co. 136 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.07.

MARXISM VERSUS SOCIALISM. By Vladimir G. Simkhovitch. Henry Holt & Co. 297 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

THE MODERN TREATMENT OF NERVOUS AND MENTAL DISEASES. Vol. II. By Wm. A. White and Smith Ely Jelliffe. Lea and Febiger. 900 pp. Price $6.00; prepaid of THE SURVEY $6.35.

ELEMENTS OF POLITICAL SCIENCE. By Stephen Leacock. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 417 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.88.

PERSONALS

THAT it is not necessary to delay motherly oversight of the girls of the street until the city can appoint women to its police force, has been proved by the first six months' work of Mrs. Thomas H. Tyler, Boston's street matron.

About the first of the year the Florence Crittenden League of Compassion, desiring to join preventive measures to its rescue work, rented an apartment in the Fenway, and established Mrs. Tyler there in homelike surroundings. From that center, night after night she has gone about the streets and the parks, into the theaters and cafés, wherever girls are to be found, and has quietly and unobtrusively given her help where needed. She has no police authority, no distinctive dress or badge and does her work by the sheer force of her friendliness. The service she renders runs the whole gamut of girls' needs. It varies from seeing a simple country girl safely on to the right car to plucking swiftly back an equally simple girl from the final misstep.

She is a friend to girls and her entire formula of service is embraced in the phrase so often on her lips: "She saw I was her friend." Nor is it an idle formula with Mrs. Tyler. The girls she helps are her friends—they are not cases; they are individuals who need Mrs. Tyler.

The society back of Mrs. Tyler hampers her by no rules. It furnished the apartment—named it the Shelter—it pays her salary, and provides her with a liberal expense account. Having done this, it wishes her Godspeed and leaves her alone. Mrs. Tyler has no board meetings to attend—except as she tells of results—she is not compelled to discuss Mary or Jane or Susan with a supervisory committee. The society looks at her work and is satisfied.

While generalization is difficult because each girl has her own peculiar needs, it is safe to say that the Shelter is possibly the most effective instrument Mrs. Tyler uses. Here she invites her girl friends, for a day or a week as the case may be, and here they find a home—many of them for the first time. She believes it to be of prime importance that the bewildered girl shall get a chance first to catch her breath and then to get a fresh grip on her self-respect. So the girl is at once made to feel that she is a friendly guest, not an inmate, of a friendly home.

So when Gertrude, a college girl whose lapse was chiefly occasioned by sheer laziness, came home with Mrs. Tyler, they visited concerts and art museums in deference to the visitor's tastes. On their return other friends of Mrs. Tyler came in, in a perfectly normal fashion, and Gertrude felt herself one guest among many. So Mrs. Tyler quietly emphasized the beauty of enjoying those delights in a perfectly legitimate way and in companionship which left no bitter taste. But Mrs. Tyler's other friends were all workers, and Gertrude was given something to think about.

Annie, however, had known but little of home life. When Mrs. Tyler picked her out from a crowd of roystering sailors, she needed physical care. Her clothes were dirty; disease and vermin rioted in her sick body. When she was clean and whole—the society's expense account provided a new outfit for her—Annie's tastes were also consulted. She knew nothing of art or music, but she did like animals, and Mrs. Tyler took her to the zoo at Franklin Park. The next night they went to prayer meeting and strangely enough the lesson that evening was on repentance. When Mrs. Tyler tucked her in bed that night, Annie said, "I think I could say a little prayer myself tonight."



Photo by Louis Fabian Bachrach.
MRS. THOMAS H. TYLER.

Mrs. Tyler's activities in no way supplant those of the established agencies; they supplement them, and offer opportunity to exceptional women to do preventive work of exceptional value. It is significant that the organization behind Mrs. Tyler, one long known for its rescue work, has now turned its attention in the direction of preventive work.

WILLIAM HORTON FOSTER.

* * *

VISITORS to the New York School of Philanthropy library will miss a face which is familiar to all users of its books. In the late spring, Helen Page Bates who had been on the library staff since 1906, left to become headworker at the Franklin Street Settlement, Detroit, thus taking up again work in which she had been active previous to taking her training as librarian in 1902. Before coming to New York, Mrs. Bates—or Dr. Bates, for she was a doctor of philosophy of Wisconsin University—had worked in Philadelphia and Minneapolis settlements, being headworker in Unity House in the latter city. During her residence in New York she lived at Union Settlement. The Franklin Street house is the oldest and most solidly entrenched settlement in Detroit.



MARGARET F. BYINGTON.

MARGARET F. BYINGTON, since 1909 connected with the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, has resigned to accept an appointment September 1 as supervising district secretary in charge of the Department of District Work and Co-operation of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. She has had ample preparation for her work of relief and rehabilitation of families and her direction of the co-operating agencies in this department, in her four years' connection with the Foundation during which she made a comparative study of charitable institutions in many eastern cities, and in five years' experience previous to 1907 as a district agent of the Boston Associated Charities and with Charity Organization Society of New York.

To this equipment of practical work she adds a special knowledge of living conditions gained by her work for the Pittsburgh Survey. She made an intensive study of the budgets of one hundred families and of the effects on household life of work in the steel industry. These she brought out in Homestead, the Households of a Mill Town, in the Pittsburgh Survey series of volumes (Russell Sage Foundation Publications). Miss Byington is also author of several practical and widely used pamphlets. She is a graduate of Wellesley (1900) and took her master's degree in sociology and economics at Columbia (1902).

* * *

DIXON VAN BLARCOM has been engaged as field secretary by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. Mr. Van Blarcon is a Yale graduate and has had experience in anti-tuberculosis work under the New York State Charities Aid Association. He has been active in several campaigns for county tuberculosis hospitals. Last fall he conducted the Red Cross seal campaign in New York state.

IN accepting an appointment as assistant chief clerk for the employers on the Grievance Board established under the protocol in the waist and dress industry, Belle Lindner Israels added an acquaintance with another side of the life of the working girl. For a dozen years she has been interested in the problems of the play life of the city girl and as chairman of the Committee on Amusement Resources, she was largely responsible for the Dance Hall Law of 1908 and was active in the movement for making school houses recreation centers.

Her new position brings her in touch with the problems of the city girl's work life. It brings her in touch also with girls organized for common defense at their work, whereas at their play, they are unorganized for protection against the commercial exploiters of pleasure. She finds among the organized working girls a spirit of personal independence and loyalty toward their organization and toward the protocol. No small number of the cases that have been adjusted in the first months of the board's existence, represent an effort on the part of the workers to prevent encroachments on their rights as set down by the terms of the protocol. Among the stories of loyalty which the new assistant clerk tells with keen appreciation is that of a shop chairman who had to be constantly on the watch and to fight a "mean" superintendent at every point in order to protect her charges. Finally the situation grew so tense that the employer offered to transfer the girl to another shop he owned where relations were harmonious and where, as a further inducement, pay was almost double. She refused and is still fighting it out in the bad shop.

But the assistant clerk is not blinded by her respect for the working girl to the other possibilities of human nature. She tells with a twinkle in her eye the story of another shop where on a certain class of waists the girls claimed that the rate of piece pay was lower than was paid for waists of about the same grade a year before, and offered their last week's pay envelope in proof. Comparison of pay rolls for the several previous weeks with those of the year before proved that the girls had made a "demonstration" that week—had "soldiered on the job" in order to get their piece scale raised.

These are but two of the 2,000 cases referred to the board by either employer or worker. Of these, the vast majority were adjusted by deputy clerks in the shop, about 300 were referred to Mrs. Israels and S. Polaikoff, her colleague, and the club on the union side, a few going up for adjustment to the chief clerk himself, W. H. Bartholomew. Only twenty-nine cases, for the most part those representing a principle which could be worked out into a code of regulations were referred to the full grievance board of fourteen members, half union officials and half employers. The board and its clerks are also working out plans for continuation schools in the waist and dress industry.

Mrs. Israels still continues her activity in the recreation movement. She is at present serving on the citizens' committee appointed to push legislation for a Board of Public Welfare.

COMMUNICATIONS

"THE WHITE SLAVE"

[A photograph of this statuette, by Abastenia St. Leger Eberle, was printed on the cover of THE SURVEY of May 3, which contained several articles on the prevention of the social evil. Letters of protest and of approval were published May 31 together with an editorial paragraph; further letters on June 14.]

TO THE EDITOR:

And serve you right!

If you think you gain anything by exploiting all the crude thoughts that come your way on the "sex" question—you will learn more if you live long enough.

I didn't write you about that picture!

Some day I will write you all about this sex question. Meanwhile you will get your fingers burnt some more.

Also glorifying the crudities of the labor leaders, who like to go on the picket lines and be jailed as martyrs and write poems on the scums and bums who sit on the park benches and loaf in dissatisfaction.

Some day you will find out that the decent people are in a majority!

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

Your recent issues indicate that the recent front page illustration of the white slaver and his victim has received the adverse criticism of many of your readers. Your strong reply meets my hearty endorsement.

In the summer of 1911 I had a part in the federal enforcement of the Mann act and learned of the horrors of this infamous traffic. I also learned that judges, officials, jurors and the general public were indifferent toward its enforcement, though some improvement in this regard seems to have taken place.

It is necessary for the preservation of the social fabric that the dangers of the traffic be generally known. The public conscience needs to be aroused, to be startled, to be horrified. To this end the illustration is valuable, only it does not go far enough. It omits the picture of the worse trafficker, the gilded scoundrel who seduces the victim through the forms of matrimony.

Houston, Tex. ——— ———.

TO THE EDITOR:

I have noticed the denunciations of the picture upon the cover. May I say that while it may have been a mistake to place the picture on the outside of the magazine, those who have cared for the young girls who are in danger of being the victims of the atrocious white slave traffic must sympathize with the motive which actuated you in forcing the matter on the public, even by such a method as this.

So many persons are unconscious of the evil that exists in the world, I can scarcely blame one who tries to shock them into a different state of mind, even by forcing on their attention such horrors as these. The dark places of the earth are full of wickedness, and it is not so bad to go too far in giving information of existing evils as not far enough.

One of your most severe critics seems to look at the matter from a purely artistic point of view.

Let us take the part of these poor victims (with decency and good taste if possible) but let us take their part at any rate.—C.

Boston.

TO THE EDITOR:

Please send me ten copies of THE SURVEY bearing the white slave cover. I have been keenly interested in the comment that that number of THE SURVEY brought from friends and members of our household who saw it. You have roused people and made them think by your courage in portraying the horror.

EDWARD A. RUMELY.

La Porte, Ind.

TO THE EDITOR:

That picture was like a blow from a clenched fist at the end of a strong arm. I sat looking at it for quite half an hour, and never before did the horror of the traffic it represents so sink into my soul. The protests against the publication of such a picture only serve to show that the white slave agitation is as yet merely a fad with a lot of aesthetic souls. They do not realize that an actual trade in flesh and blood and beating human hearts is going on now and here. "It isn't possible. This is England", declared Betty's aunt when informed of the child's fate. Betty has a considerable number of aunts of both sexes in America.

Poor parson that his artist father must save his soul from being contaminated by THE SURVEY!

I am reminded bv this correspondence of the protest a lady once made to a young man who said that as soon as the public school then building was completed he would take his children out of the private school and put them where they belonged—in the public school. The dear lady was horrified. Allow two beautiful children to associate with all kinds of children! What would become of their ideals!—and as for their morals, heaven help them! (As a matter of fact there are few private schools in which there is a higher moral standard than exists in the public schools of America. It is a standard born in the fierce struggle and competition of boydom.)

"You don't want your children to go through the mire, do you?" she asked in exasperation.

And the young father replied: "Yes, so long as there is mire in life my children must know about it. In a country such as ours we must all go up together or all stay down together."

The attempt of the few with money to climb up out of the mire is pathetic, it is so hopeless. I just read of the carefully educated millionaire's son who was carried aboard the yacht every night helplessly drunk. Of course no one wants his children's minds soused in the mire. But

since they must know of it sometime why not allow them to go into life with understanding? I cannot think of any boy in America of even ordinary intelligence and decency who would not see the horror of prostitution in The White Slave, and who would not hate it forever. Most of our sermons, talks to boys and girls, lectures to woman's clubs, etc., lack "punch"—no one's feelings are hurt. That picture has more punch in it than anything ever written. Of course, some good souls will be offended, but "the kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and the violent take it by force."

The side-stepping and padding in religious and moral teaching are bearing their legitimate fruits—the evils continue. It is quite true as one of your critics says, that the artist "allowed her imagination to go deep into the haunts of vice before she made this statue." It went a lot deeper than that of the critic. Let us thank God that it did.

RAY F. CARTER.
[Educational Director First Congregational Church.]
Oakland, Cal.

TO THE EDITOR:

Is it possible at all for me to procure plaster reproductions of Miss Eberle's work, the White Slave, Little Mother, etc.? We in the West have no opportunities such as you have of keeping in touch with "sociological art." I am at present at work organizing a social service parish. I may speak of my experiences in Chicago to the people, I may give them what I acquire from THE SURVEY, and other such magazines—but I cannot, with the spoken word—do the work as effectively as might be done were it possible to illustrate by permanent and temporary exhibits.

I cannot conceive of anything which would bring home to a person the awfulness of the white slave traffic as Miss Eberle's statue does. The reproduction on the cover page brought it home to me very forcibly—in such a way as it has never been brought home to me,—and I have a record of four years' work in the Juvenile Court and slums of Chicago.

Could THE SURVEY make it possible for us to secure reproductions—in plaster preferably—but if not, photographic reproductions[1] of size large enough to attract attention in an exhibit?

ALBERT E. SELCER.
[Vicar St. Stephen's Church.]
Omaha, Neb.

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me, as the mother of a son and a daughter and as one who is interested in the welfare of other people's sons and daughters, to thank you for your use of the cover design of May 3. With this awful traffic reaching the proportions that it has, people need to be startled out of their false modesty, which is often a cloak for mere indifference.

Surprised that any thoughtful person could condem your use of the design, I called the attention of my twenty-one-year-old daughter to it, without comment. After a moment, she remarked, "In view of the fact that fifteen thousand girls are wanted for San Francisco in 1915, I think that cover is excellent."

If this is the effect which the illustration has upon a high-minded girl, I think no man need shrink from having the paper where his mature sons can see it.

JULIA G. BABCOCK.

Bakersfield, Cal.

TO THE EDITOR:

You are everlastingly right. One can not sound a battle-cry in a whisper.—W.

Washington, D. C.

TO THE EDITOR:

I am greatly interested to note the diversity of opinion among subscribers regarding the cover of the issue of May 3. Please accept for what it is worth my hearty approval and Godspeed. Good folk now as always need a lot of stirring up; as a lady said to me a few days ago apropos of the vice agitation, some will have to be nauseated by it before most are moved.

But will you not send the writer of the comment on the correspondence in the issue of May 31, over to Borough Hall, Brooklyn, and tell him to take a good look at a statue facing the front of the Hall? It may impress upon him the fact that Mr. Beecher lived in Brooklyn and was pastor of Plymouth Church and that it was there that the incident of the slave auction occurred and not in the Broadway Tabernacle, which was and is in Manhattan.[1]

The next issue of the *Congregationalist* is announced as a Henry Ward Beecher number. It will doubtless be worth reading and there, I doubt not, it may be noted that Mr. Beecher refused the doctorate preferring to be known simply as Mr. Beecher.

A quarter of a century is long enough to forget a great many things, yet I do not believe Mr. Beecher would willingly have had his name

[1]On her return to New York in midsummer, Miss Eberle plans to arrange for an enlargement of the photograph used on the May 3 cover. Her studio is at 206½ West Thirteenth Street, New York. She is enlarging the figure of the young girl, and hopes to get it cut in marble in Paris.

[1]Unless Lyman Abbott in his life of Beecher is at fault, it was at Broadway Tabernacle that the incident occurred. But as one or two words were badly misprinted in the editorial passage referred to, it may be of interest to repeat here in Dr. Abbott's words, how the great pastor of Plymouth Church conducted an auction sale of two slave girls who had attempted to escape from Washington, where they were about to be sold for exportation to New Orleans:

"The story of their attempted flight reached northern ears. A meeting was held in the Broadway Tabernacle for the purpose of raising the necessary funds for their emancipation; the young preacher from the West was one of the speakers. He extemporized on the platform a slave auction and called for bids, the necessary amount was secured, and the girls were freed. This was the first of similar purchases during a period of ten-twelve years. He was criticized by radical abolitionists for wasting his energies in the emancipation of a few individuals while the great slave empire was left undisturbed; by others, for recognizing the rights of owners (by payment); by still others—more anxious that all things should be done decorously and in order than that anything should be done at all—for sensationalism in his methods. But Beecher's object was not merely the manumission of a few individual slaves; he believed in the humanity of his fellows. He believed that thousands who would regard with apathy if not complacency the slave system at a distance, would regard with abhorrence the return of an individual slave girl to a life of enforced sin and shame."

dissociated from the church he founded and built up and served till his death, or be thought other than the simple, unpretentious man he was.

A CONGREGATIONAL MINISTER.

Washington, D. C.

TO THE EDITOR:

Some time ago I asked, in good faith, the editor of one of our best known magazines devoted to social and religious welfare to give their readers the answers to several questions concerning the nude in art, which I then presented with my letter. I could not understand what service the public presentation of likenesses of the human form could render.

In thinking over various pieces of famous Greek statuary I could not see that it really conduced to any public appreciation of beauty, except as our natures are tuned to accord with that particular phase. My letter and questions were politely, very politely returned—yes, I reckon I was very stupid.

But in this white slave picture I am quite clear. Run over in your mind all the Venuses you can remember and see if there is a suggestion about this one on the cover of THE SURVEY of May 3 which would place it in a class with the suggestiveness of most of the best of those of the Greeks. And yet mothers will halt the whole family in front of the de Medici and rave over its beauty, silencing any juvenile doubts with the artist's usual unctuous remark about one's mind being above such thoughts!

How perfectly these letters show the extreme variants in the sex education of their writers, and all because most of that education has been received under conditions making it difficult really to understand any part of it. The letters of those approving your use of the picture do not strike me as emanating from loose or diseased minds.

I send every copy of THE SURVEY (as soon as I have read it through from cover to cover, including the "ads") to my friends, and I must have at least a dozen extra copies of May 3. I'll call and get them before I leave town for the summer.

AN EARNEST READER.

Brooklyn, N. Y.

TO THE EDITOR:

I cannot bear it not to add my word of commendation for your much discussed white slave cover.

It is impossible to imagine how any one could look at it and feel anything but an overwhelming flood of pity. If I had sons old enough to notice it at all, it should certainly be explained to them, and even though one were a "Methodist minister" his feelings would not be spared.

As for the correspondent who intimated that Miss Eberle's imagination was a depraved one, I have only contempt for such a type of mind. Anyone who can look at that little shivering, cowering, naked child, and not feel that she was created by a sympathetic, broad and noble spirit, must indeed have missed the point of the statue. It would be useless to attempt to argue with such a type of mind.

It is a little hard on you to have to read a stranger's indignation, but my mind had to be relieved.

MARY COIT SANFORD.

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to say that I most heartily endorse the stand you take. I can see nothing immorally suggestive in the picture, but such a portrayal of evil as must shock and arouse to its extirpation. I think your argument is unanswerable.

M. B. WILLIAMS.

[First Methodist Episcopal Church.]

Omaha.

TO THE EDITOR:

I want to say, as one of the young folks, that the picture on the May 3 SURVEY is not harmful to us.

"Galahad," whose "strength was as the strength of ten because his heart was pure" is an ideal. This picture of the white slave is a warning. Are not both necessary?

ELEANOR BELL.

Minneapolis.

TO THE EDITOR:

I am a constant reader of your valuable magazine and every week I see that it finds its way to some one else whom I think it will interest.

In the issue of June 14, I have noted the differences of opinion relative to the cover page of your issue for May 3.

I am like the gentleman from Washington, D. C.—"Hit 'em again and hit 'em hard."

W. H. PINGREE.

[Secretary Central Civic Committee.]

Jacksonville, Fla.

TO THE EDITOR:

I write to say that Mrs.....desires the copy of THE SURVEY stopped, since it has become increasingly more unfit for family reading in a household principally composed of ladies.—B.

New Haven, Conn.

TO THE EDITOR:

Herewith I enclose twenty-five cents in stamps for which please send me another copy of THE SURVEY for May 3, with the picture of Miss Eberle's wonderful statuette and the excellent collection of articles dealing with the campaign against vice of which Miss Eberle's work forms so effective a part.

I am perfectly amazed that such a picture should have aroused any criticism among people supposed to possess such social intelligence as the readers of THE SURVEY. Jane Addams is right, the evil is old, but there is a new conscience in dealing with it, but even newer than the new conscience is the new realization that

sin cannot be combatted by silence, that only the sunlight of the utmost publicity will cleanse these dark and festering corners of our social life. Prudery has ever been, however unconsciously, the chief ally of vice.

Therefore, I say God speed THE SURVEY, in this and all its other battles against social wickedness. I agree with my honored teacher, Prof. Rauschenbusch, who says in his volume on Christianizing the Social Order, "If a man reads the Bible and THE SURVEY, he ought to find salvation."

ROBERT CHIPMAN HULL.

[Pastor First Baptist Church.]
Summit, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR:

I enclose check for my renewal subscription. I have pleasure in sending it at this time hoping it may give you a little good cheer when so many have criticised you for publishing Miss Eberle's statuette the White Slave.

Those who find fault with it have forgotten, it seems to me, that a human body is neither pure nor impure. It is entirely *un*moral. It is our thinking alone that makes it what it is. The statuette is designed to be nothing but the picture of an idea, the idea that there are degenerate men who actually sell the souls and bodies of women. How anybody can see anything else than this in it, it is difficult for me to understand. I am sorry that anyone should have allowed a big idea to be obscured by a detail.

Can you furnish me a good photograph of Miss Eberle's White Slave? I want it for use in my educational work among forty young men on this general subject.

HENRY E. JACKSON.

[Minister Congregational Church.]
Upper Montclair, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR:

While reading THE SURVEY for May 31, I read of one who protested against your picture of the White Slave because his eldest son—a "Methodist minister" might see it and—well,—I don't know what might happen—get shocked into insanity perhaps.

Well, I pity the boy and he a minister. How the Bible must worry him! Mr. Editor, the blunt of the matter is this: We have too many of these fine-haired preachers who don't know a spade when they see one—and are too nice to call it a spade when some one tells them what it is. Such bosh and nonsense!

P. C. JOHNSON.

[Chaplain Nebraska State Penitentiary.]
Lancaster, Neb.

TO THE EDITOR:

Fathers and mothers of girls and boys no longer children but not yet grown-up, are sharply touched by your cover of May 3. Some hail it as an aid, others regret it as an intrusion.

If those who hail it as an aid make it part of an instruction which rouses into vivid imagination the evils and terrors of vice, then they err. They might as well take youngsters of that age through a doctor's course in pathology of all kinds. If those who regret it as an intrusion, regret it as an obstacle to keeping their young people ignorant of the existence of vice, prostitution and the attendant diseases, then they err.

Grown people who urge "full instruction and warning" do not take into account the sensitive nervous systems of unformed youth, nor do they remember that the untrained will tends to go toward whatever is vividly imagined, without regard to its quality. On the other hand, grown people who urge "innocence and protection" do not take into account the danger and cruelty of unpreparedness, nor do they remember that facts known but not apprehended, are the ground work of future wisdom.

The boys and girls of today, who are put through books on "what a girl should know" and "what a boy should know" and the like, and are allowed to read the literature, or detailed news, of vice, will not, twenty years from now, subject their own boys and girls to the same exciting and dangerous ordeal. They will tell them plain facts in natural order and let it go without elaboration, feeding their imaginations only on what is wholesome and vigorous and presenting for their wills only temptation to well doing.

Personally I agree with those who would have preferred the picture to be on the inside page. But even the best daily newspapers offer us parents, in their reading matter, a like problem every day.

That picture is less exciting to fresh young nerves than the insensitive representations of a sacred caress which have recently appeared on three different respectable covers and are very frequent on inside pages, on calendars, etc.; and any copy of *Life* insidiously corrupts minds, young and old, more sickeningly than anything straightforward ever can.

The fact is that since the Lexow Investigation youth has been treated as a negligible portion of the serial-reading public. "Publicity" addresses itself to tempered nerves. So we parents must contrive and enforce a new procedure to shelter youth, if it is to be kept fresh and sound-hearted. Publishers' etiquette has ceased to help us, because women have suddenly been taken out of the category of the sheltered,—and youth, which shared their cloister, is overlooked.

ANNIE WINSOR ALLEN.
(Mrs. Joseph Allen.)

[Member Board of Managers, New York State Training School for Girls at Hudson.]
White Plains, New York.

[Unless further letters raise wholly new points, the somewhat restricted space in our summer issues will be given up to other subjects.

The letters published have fairly boxed the compass of opinion and the editors are appreciative of their frankness and predominant good temper. We have seldom had such downright evidence of the thoroughness with which THE SURVEY is read and taken to heart; the sturdiness with which a large company of readers can be counted upon to back up its efforts to push forward the boundaries of active social concern; their eagerness to co-operate in developing a right technique to that

VOLUME XXX, No. 16 WEEK OF JULY 19, 1913

THE SURVEY



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THE WORLD IN CHICAGO

THIS GREATEST OF AMERICAN RELIGIOUS PAGEANTS SHOWED NOT HOW TO MAKE PEOPLE GIVE UP ONE RELIGION FOR ANOTHER, BUT HOW RELIGION LIFTS UP LIFE WHICHEVER WAY LIFE MAY TURN. IT PICTURED ALL PEOPLES FROM GREENLAND'S ICY MOUNTAINS TO INDIA'S CORAL STRAND, IN HOUSE AND HUT, IN TEMPLE AND SHRINE, IN STREET SCENE AND PILGRIMAGE, IN PICTURE AND MODEL, IN PLACARD AND MOVING PICTURE, IN TABLEAU AND PAGEANT

By GRAHAM TAYLOR

MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTS

CIVICS—EDUCATION—INDUSTRY—CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

INFORMATION

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York, Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc. of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction, when desired. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

EUGENICS—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect. Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership $2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SEX EDUCATION. The American Federation for Sex Hygiene, Tilden Building, 105 West Fortieth Street, New York City. Constituent societies throughout the country. Publications to members and upon application. Membership $2 per year.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, $1 per year. Membership, annual dues $2, includes all literature.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education—promotion, discussion, investigation, publications, clearing house of information, legislation, experimentation, constructive work and co-operating agency. For literature, address C. A. Prosser, Secretary, Room 415, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN.—Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston Street, Boston. Mary Schenck Woolman, President. Training for Vocational Teaching and Trade Experience in co-operation with Simmons College; Placement Bureau for Trained Women; graduate Fellowships in Industrial Research. Publication on "Economic Relations of Women."

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee $1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

WORKING WOMEN—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditious through organization and legislation. Information given. *"Life and Labor,"* events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Jean Hamilton.
Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker," Twenty-five cents 1 year.

YOUNG WOMEN—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 600 pp. per vol. $2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics Meeting: Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

INDEPENDENCE DAY LEGISLATION AND CELEBRATION SUGGESTIONS—Pamphlet containing forms of ordinances governing the sale and use of explosives, and plans for celebration of the day. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.
Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, $2 a year.

FEDERATED BOYS' CLUBS—National Headquarters, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass. A clearing house for information on subjects relating to work with boys. Printed matter distributed; clubs organized; workers furnished; conferences conducted. Invites membership. Club $2.00; individual $1.00. Thomas Chew, President; Geo. D. Chamberlain, Acting Ex. Secty.

BOY SCOUTS—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, *"Boys' Life"* $1 a year. Memberships: Associate $3, Sustaining $10.

MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS—National Municipal League 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

CITY PLANNING—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at $5 a Year Includes All Literature.

DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

POLITICAL SURVEYS—Progressive National Service, Forty-Second Street Building, New York City, Frances A. Kellor, Chief of Service. National clearing house for political action on social and industrial justice, conservation, judiciary reform, initiative referendum and recall, corporation control and related subjects.

THE SMOKE NUISANCE—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, Pres.; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters.*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.
To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc.. sent free.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION — The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

ORGANIZED CHARITY—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.
To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.
For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY—*April*: Eugenics. *May*: Euthenics. *June*: The Unfit.
See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 75c. per year; club rate 50c.

EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.
Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.
Rev. Harry F. Ward, Secy., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood.
To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.
S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY—*The Congregational Brotherhood of America*, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course; Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York.
Sociological surveys made, Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS—A clearing house for Southern social forces; to study and improve social, civic and economic conditions. Proceedings of Atlanta Congress, April, 1913, over 600 pages, entitled "The South Mobilizing for Social Service," sent free to each member. Membership $2.00. J. E. McCulloch, General Sec., 353 Sixth Ave., N., Nashville, Tenn.

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.
Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

IMMIGRATION—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Warren C. Eberle, General Secretary; Frances A. Kellor, Managing Director.

IMMIGRANT GIRLS—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.
For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Secy., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

PROBATION—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.
Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

LABOR LEGISLATION—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.
Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.
American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

PRISON LABOR—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas Mott Osborne, Chairman; R. Montgomery Schell, Secretary-Treasurer; E. Stagg Whitin, Chn. Exec. Com. Prison labor conditions throughout the United States examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. $5 a year.

SETTLEMENTS—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

THE PITH OF IT

CALLING the roll of THE SURVEY'S three associate editors gives three presidents of the National Conference of Charities and Correction: Edward T. Devine, 1906; Jane Addams, 1910; Graham Taylor, 1914. And still within the ranks of our National Council—John M. Glenn, 1901; Robert W. de Forest, 1903; Ernest P. Bicknell, 1909; Julian W. Mack, 1912; Frank Tucker, 1913. P. 511.

WHEN Men and Religion on one hand and the Women's Civic Club on the other took a good look they found that the house that Hartford built was no better than the historic edifice erected by Jack, or the house courts of Los Angeles, or the alley shacks of Washington—at least not for the people who live in it. How a big change is coming about. P. 534.

A VERY up and doing settlement in an adobe home at Santa Barbara. P. 533.

IT IS nothing short of industrial revolution, says Fred S. Hall, for Pennsylvania to establish a labor department with power and ample staff to get things done. P. 519.

OHIO'S Industrial Commission is on the job—another casting from the Wisconsin model. P. 520.

"BOOSTING for health" and "Boosting for safety" are no longer mere phrases for a few enthusiasts—they stand for enthusiasm by whole big groups of people. Some day there will be a big campaign with a slogan of "Hurrah for health." Pp. 522, 523.

ABROAD the religious pageant has largely followed the medieval pattern of the Passion Play with biblical characters. In America, and particularly in Chicago, it takes the Jerusalem of today and all the other nations and tribes on the face of the earth to bring home its lesson. P. 529.

MANY of us now well out of our teens recall the schoolroom ruler with pain. It has been supplanted by the yard-stick, applied not to the surface of boys but to the efficiency of schools and particularly of school officials. Ohio has started to measure all its schools and already records some parsimonious fractions of country school finance not mentioned in the older arithmetics. P. 525.

THE new baby, called by its relatives Art of Housekeeping, Domestic Science, Domestic Education and other family names, has been christened Family Building, Dr. Carver officiating. P. 515.

TWO symposiums after THE SURVEY'S own heart—collections of striking and variant opinion on important current events: next week The Responsibility of the Small Investor; week after, The Industrial Relations Commission.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE
GRAHAM TAYLOR — JANE ADDAMS
Associate Editors
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THE COMMON WELFARE

FOR PRESIDENT, GRAHAM TAYLOR

With five hundred delegates, a large local attendance and an enthusiastic response, the fortieth National Conference of Charities and Correction, which met at Seattle July 5-12, decided to meet next year at Memphis, probably early in May. The new officers are Graham Taylor, president; Mrs. John M. Glenn, A. J. McKelway and W. A. Gates, vice-presidents; William T. Cross, secretary.

Professor Taylor, after a pastorate in a downtown Congregational church of Hartford, Conn., where he was also professor of practical theology in Hartford Theological Seminary, accepted the professorship of social economics in the Chicago Theological Seminary in 1892. To give his students touch with the life of working people he founded Chicago Commons, "a social center for civic co-operation" in a river ward. This settlement soon assumed wider significance and a larger part in the civic life of the city, and from it has grown the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, of which Professor Taylor has been president since its organization.

To the social awakening of the last decade or two he has contributed much through his writings and his country-wide activity as a speaker. He was editor of *The Commons* prior to its consolidation with *Charities*, and is now associate editor of THE SURVEY. His efforts to promote social spirit in the churches have been especially noteworthy. Among his more important contributions to THE SURVEY was the series on Religion in Social Action.

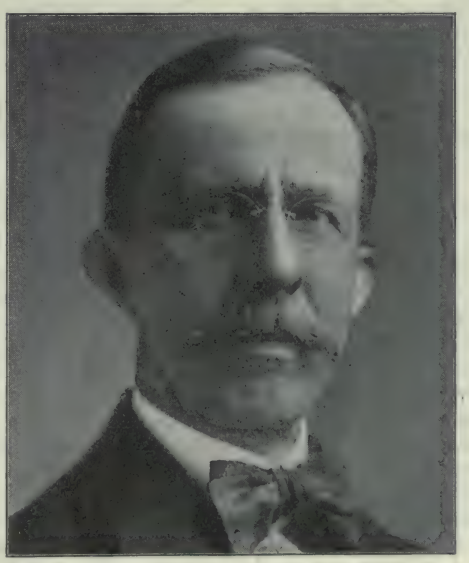
In the industrial field he has shown sympathetic understanding of the problems of labor and his important services as conciliator or arbitrator in labor disputes testify to the confidence which both sides, as well as the public, have in him.

Mrs. Glenn is chairman of the committee on co-operation and districts of the New York Charity Organization Society and is identified actively in other important ways with the work of the society. She was formerly secretary of the Baltimore Charity Organization Society and, as Mary Wilcox Brown, wrote a book on The Development of Thrift.

Dr. McKelway is southern secretary of the National Child Labor Committee. He was formerly pastor of a Presbyterian church in Fayetteville, N. C., and later editor of the *Presbyterian Standard* and of the Charlotte, N. C., *Daily News*.

W. A. Gates is secretary of the California State Board of Charities and Correction.

William T. Cross is secretary of the Missouri State Board of Charities and Correction, and secretary of the American Association of Officials of Charities and Correction. He succeeds Alexander Johnson whose retirement from the secretaryship after eight years in harness was chronicled in THE SURVEY of January 18.



GRAHAM TAYLOR
Elected president of the 41st National Conference of Charities and Correction at Memphis next May.

The last southern meeting of the conference was in Richmond in 1908. Previous to that it met in Atlanta in 1903, in Nashville in 1894 and in Louisville in 1883. The rapid but substantial growth of social agencies in Memphis the past six years is characteristic of the whole South's developing interest in social problems. This has been stimulated by the two meetings of the Southern Sociological Congress which was organized in Nashville last year and held its second meeting in Atlanta this spring. The permanent activity of this sectional body is expected to increase the attendance at Memphis.

SOCIAL WORK OR STATE ACTION?

Social workers were given the opportunity to view their work through the eyes of the non-professional worker and of the public at a conference on the ethics and professional basis of social work, held at the Church of the Ascension, New York, Friday, Saturday and Sunday, June 13, 14 and 15. The conference was called by the Public Forum of that church. The announcement sent out to social workers and philanthropists, suggested for discussion fifty-three questions touching upon what might be termed professional ethics, and upon the possible effects of private as against community support of social work. The searching character of these questions may be seen in these instances:

When should social workers go into politics?

Would it improve the efficiency of the social worker and would it improve society if the social worker were absorbed into the service of the state?

Has social work absorbed the effective radicalism of an important group who, if not privately supported, would be developing democracy?

Are even radical social workers separated from the people whom they might be leading because of the feeling of the public that they are supported by the privileged classes?

Is social work a substitute for economic justice?

Do social workers courageously face the economic and political implications of the facts they deal with?

The questions were furnished to the forum by social workers, but some took vigorous exception to their phrasing and refused to participate. This left the field free, in the main, to those social workers and critics of social work who declared that privately supported social work must, in a democracy, be superseded by state activity.

The first session was opened by John Collier, of the People's Institute, who defined social workers as all who labor to alter society along pro-social instead of private-interest lines. Members of four political parties told how far, in their judgment, political action should replace privately supported social work. A. I. Elkus, as a Democrat, felt that privately supported work was needed to point the way for the state's activities; Francis W. Bird, as a Progressive, felt that if through an aggressive social program by a political party the state undertook its true functions, it would do much that is now privately conducted social work; Sol Fieldman, as a Socialist, agreed with this view but claimed that the Socialist Party was the only one which stood for a thorough-going program, and added his opinion that private support of social work imperils its sincerity in formulating the pro-social point of view; and Abraham Gruber, as a Republican, expressed the belief that the government is already at work in a large and adequate way to improve social conditions, and deprecated the further extension of governmental functions.

Discussions followed by Rose Pastor Stokes who accorded with the point of view that the state should take over the activities of the social worker as far as possible, and by Graham Romeyn Taylor, who favored a widening of public effort along lines demonstrated to be successfully privately conducted social work, and who felt that there would still be plenty of scope for the spirit of generosity and private philanthropy.

At later sessions Frances Perkins, of the Committee on Safety, speaking on Social Work as a Compromise, declared that social work should deal with health and educational matters chiefly so that when the industrial revolution comes it will be a revolution of the fit. Benjamin C. Marsh of the Congestion Committee took the view that privately supported social work was not free to be of definite service in promoting democracy. Judge Julian W. Mack of the United States Commerce Court, however, believed that social work is necessary pioneering for social good. Edith Guerrier of the Boston Public Library decried the professional state of mind in social work. H. F. J. Porter, of the Efficiency Society, declared that social workers frequently lose their perspective, immerse themselves in curative work and give too scant attention to preventive measures.

At the Sunday evening meeting, Orrin G. Cocks of the Laity League for Social Service, gave a general defense of social work and of conservative advance by pooled judgments.

CINCINNATI COUNCIL OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

One important local outcome of the Ohio floods is the development out of the Flood Relief Committee of Cincinnati of a Council of Social Agencies, made up of sixty civic and philanthropic organizations which desire to establish permanent co-operation. Among the civic agencies are classed the Chamber of Commerce and the Business Men's Club.

A confidential exchange of case records is being established by the council and next fall case committees will be organized to work out harmonious plans for families where duplication exists.

A bureau of endorsement and investigation of agencies soliciting funds is already established, conducted by a committee of seven, five of them representing commercial clubs and the other two being the largest doners to charity in Cincinnati. The director of the council acts as executive sec-

retary to the endorsement committee. One of the aims of this committee is the establishment of uniform methods of accounting and reporting in all endorsed societies.

Another of the council's activities is a department of research, through which the council hopes to apply efficiency and economy tests to institutions and agencies on request. This department will also make surveys of social and community problems.

Through these three lines of activity the council hopes to secure a higher standard of social work, to bring about better co-operation and combination of agencies where needed, to expand the social service of the city and to become a clearing house for givers to charitable funds. A survey of all contributions to philanthropy is under way now and out of the knowledge gleaned from this survey will come, it is hoped, the leverage for a continuing growth of contributions and contributors. Eventually the council will attempt the centralization of all budgets; its present function will be to offer its information and advice to all large and prospective givers, permanent endowments, memorials or legacies.

The council meets every two months. To this meeting are referred all important questions, and from its debates come final decisions which carry weight with the constituent societies. In the interval between meetings the affairs of the council are conducted by an executive board composed of the officers and twenty-one members. Ten of the members of this board are contributors to charity and ten are active social workers.

In consideration of the support granted by the Flood Relief Committee, the council has agreed to assume full responsibility for relief work in future floods in Cincinnati.

CONDITIONS IN NEW YORK IN DRESS AND WAIST INDUSTRY

The preliminary inquiry into conditions in the dress and waist industry in New York, recently issued as a pamphlet by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control, shows that the shops in that industry "are in a general way very much superior to shops in other needle industries." The cloak and suit trade was the first to establish a sanitary board. Last March the dress and waist industry by the protocol ending the strike in that trade established a similar body. These two boards are under the direction of George M. Price. This enables him in the report to compare conditions as they existed in the two industries when the boards began work. The number of persons affected by the sanitary board in the waist industry is 36,658. Of these 77.7 per cent are women while the showing is only 23 per cent in the cloak industry.

The 700 dress and waist shops are as a rule larger than the cloak shops. In striking contrast with the cloak shops, the majority of which are on the East Side or in Brooklyn, 72 per cent of them employing 81 per cent of the workers are located between Fourteenth and Thirty-ninth Streets, Manhattan. None of the waist shops is in a tenement as were many cloak shops, and 97 per cent of them are in loft buildings. In respect to housing and location this industry starts therefore with a better equipment.

Of fire conditions the report says:

"It is with deep regret that we are compelled to make the statement that, while sanitary conditions in the loft zone are excellent, we are not certain that if a fire should break out today in one of the shops located in this zone, there would not be great loss of life."

Thirty per cent of the shops have doors opening inward, inflammable material is commonly found on the floors and few have fire drill. Fifteen shops have no fire escape. In conjunction with these facts it is noted that over 50 per cent of the shops, and about the same proportion of employes are located on or above the sixth floor.

Lighting conditions are found to be fairly good. The washing, dressing and toilet facilities are for the most part ample, but in only forty shops is any rest room found, and in only nineteen is there a lunch room. In only three shops are the machines run by foot power, a mode of operation which is condemned as being bad for the women workers. The general cleanliness is reported to be fairly good.

The pamphlet contains also an account of the processes and organization of the work of waist and dress manufacture by Katherine Tyng, one of the seven inspectors employed by the board. Miss Tyng's report shows the infinite subdivision of the work and the monotony due to this specialization.

PREFERENTIAL SHOP PREVENTS A STRIKE

The preferential union shop in the ready-made clothing trade has been imported to Chicago from New York. The great garment workers' strike in the winter of 1910, which involved particularly the firm of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, resulted in a joint agreement under which the 7,000 employes of this firm have worked for two years. This agreement provided for a board of arbitration of three members who soon found the questions at issue far beyond their ability to settle. So a trade board was formed consisting of five representatives of the employes and five of the employers, with James Mullenbach, formerly assistant superintendent of the United Charities, as chairman. In eleven months this body ruled on ninety-eight cases. Fifty-one were decided by agreement between the members of the board and forty-seven by vote of the

chairman. Forty-three verdicts were for the firm and fifty-five for the employes. Appeal from the rulings of the trade board to the board of arbitration was taken in but fourteen cases. The arbitrators affirmed the ruling in four cases, reversed it in two and threw out one. Five of the others were adjusted and two were dropped.

Notwithstanding these peaceful and judicial methods of settling their differences, the discontent of the workers grew toward the expiration of the two-year period of the agreement, because of the lack of any formal recognition of the union, and in March 4,094 of the employes voted to strike. Only 275 opposed this action. But the co-operation between union leaders, the Woman's Trade Union League and the firm, established through the trade board and the board of arbitration, proved successful in this crisis. The renewal of the revised agreement was successfully negotiated on the basis of the following "preferential" clause:

"The firm agrees to the principle of preference, namely, that they will agree to prefer union men in the hiring of new employes, subject to reasonable restriction; also to prefer union men in dismissal on account of slack work, subject to a reasonable preference to older employes, to be arranged by the board of arbitration, it being understood that all who have worked for the firm six months shall be considered old employes."

The board of arbitration's decision confirmed the renewed agreement for three years. It fixes fifty-two hours as a week's work. The hours of the cutters, however, were reduced to forty-eight. A minimum wage scale was adopted. This provides $5 a week for machine operators during the first three months and $8 thereafter. The sleeve operators' wages were raised to $7 and the needle section of the hand work to $6. All the other workers now have a minimum of $8 a week.

The credit for this victory is due not only to the open-mindedness of the firm and to J. E. Williams, whose adjustment of the Cherry Mine Company's compensation and many other miners' differences has fitted him for the chairmanship of the board of arbitration, but is shared by some leaders of the workers. Two of these leaders are recognized as "real statesmen," in the complicated situation. And the labor of the two working girls who served as organizers for the Woman's Trade Union League made it possible to weld a vast multitude of workers, differing in race and language and without any experience in organizations of any kind, into disciplined union shop crews.

The success of these movements has resulted in a vigorous campaign for joint trade agreements between the garment manufacturers' association houses and their thousands of employes, which has already resulted in the signing of some agreements and the unionizing of many employes.

NURSES FOR THE PUBLIC HEALTH

So long as nearly 90 per cent of the sick must be cared for, by necessity or choice, in their own homes, just so long will the efforts of the public health nurse be required to give this care. This point alone from the address of Lillian D. Wald, president of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, justifies sufficiently the existence of this body which held its first annual meeting in Atlantic City in June. But the large attendance and the splendid spirit of the gathering were abundant added demonstration.

Miss Wald pointed out that the organization's opportunity to become a strong influence for civic and social efficiency was almost unlimited. As the crusaders of old were urged on by their faith in their mission, so the modern band of nurses, working for the public weal, should carry into their work the fine spirit of consecration, zeal and enthusiasm, keeping ever before them the vision of suffering diminished and of a better, because a stronger, humanity.

Lee K. Frankel of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company spoke on Visiting Nursing from a Business Organization's Standpoint. He referred to the emphasis that had been laid on the free side of this service and showed the importance from a business viewpoint of establishing it on a more stable foundation by means of a fee system, so that families on small incomes might derive the benefit of this nursing service without being made to feel that they were recipients of charity. By arranging this, the usefulness of visiting nurse associations might be immeasurably increased and skilled nursing care assured to many households now unable to engage special nurses. The fee for this service might come from the family, employer, a fraternal organization, an insurance company, the municipality, or a relief society; but it should be so handled that any possible stigma of accepting charity would be removed from self-supporting patients. In closing Dr. Frankel gave a brief account of the Metropolitan Visiting Nursing Service, its expenditures, its extent and some interesting statistics compiled from it. The discussion which followed showed that the nurses were keenly interested in this phase of the development of public health nursing, and that in some cities, notably in Cleveland and Chicago, some of these suggestions were being tried.

Whole sessions were devoted to one topic. The immigrant occupied one afternoon, and four papers were presented, each handling a special phase of this big subject.

The subject How We Have Met the Problem of Food Where School Lunches are Served to Children of Immigrants was discussed in an entertaining way by Mabel H. Kittredge of New York. Her talk was of particular interests to nurses whose work with families, who persist in trying to bring up children on a restricted old-world diet in new-world tenements and who patronize too freely the delicatessen store, is their despair.

The membership of the organization has already grown to more than seven hundred, representing thirty-seven states, with receipts and contributions amounting to $4,485.75. For this splendid showing the chairman of the finance committee, Mrs. R. L. Ireland, of Cleveland, was tendered a vote of thanks. *The Public Health Nurse Quarterly* was reported to be free from debt, with a subscription list nearly doubled in one year. Its support until 1915 was guaranteed by the Quarterly Committee (composed entirely of representatives of the Cleveland Visiting Nurse Association) on condition that it continue to be edited and published in Cleveland. This assures the continued successful editorship of Annie M. Brainard.

The organization congratulated itself heartily seven months ago, when Ella Phillips Crandall of Teachers' College, accepted the post of executive secretary. In her first report Miss Crandall reviewed the work of the year. Her office at the Central Club for Nurses in New York bids fair to become a registration bureau as well as an information desk, and the requests for advice and addresses from local visiting nurse associations is proof of its timeliness.

Originally only nurses engaged in public health nursing were eligible for active membership in the organization, but through a change in the constitution, any nurse interested may become an active member. In spite of its name, this organization may not yet betoken much to the general public, but every one at its meetings felt that the cause of public health had been furthered by this gathering, from twenty-six states, of workers interested in the welfare of the sick.

In appreciation of her guardian leadership during its first decisive year, Lillian D. Wald, whose far-sighted vision permeated the conference, was elected honorary president of the organization. Helen Hartley Jenkins of New York, whose generosity has made possible the extension of the Department of Nursing and Health at Columbia to include a division of public health nursing, was unanimously elected to honorary membership and presented with an official pin. With the election of Mary S. Gardner of Providence as president and Edna L. Foley, superintendent of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, as vice-president, the convention adjourned to meet next year in St. Louis.

EDITORIAL GRIST

FAMILY BUILDING

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS
Teachers College, New York

THE art of housekeeping—the new housekeeping which seeks to make life better in home, town, factory, countryside, restaurant, hotel, club, wherever man's daily affairs of food, clothing and shelter are involved and human living is at stake—is enlisting a widening group of people interested in developing a scientific basis for it. There gathered at Cornell University the first of the month, in the new laboratory and studio building of the Department of Home Economics, over 200 teachers, homemakers, social and institution workers, coming from practically every state and Canadian province. This was the fifth annual convention of the American Home Economics Association, and the fifteenth national meeting since the late Ellen H. Richards, Mrs. Melvil Dewey, and others gathered at the first of the ten Lake Placid Conferences on Home Economics in 1899. This conference united a remarkable interest in the results of laboratory and field study, with a determination to apply this knowledge for the establishment of the new housekeeping. This new housekeeping is modest—it has the hall mark of all science "we don't know, we will try to find out."

Dr. Thomas Nixon Carver offered as a controlling personal and social idea, the notion of "family building" which, accepted by a nation, was the one sure password, he suggested, to racial perpetuity and to personal happiness.

Domestic Education in the Home, the work of the new type of visiting housekeeper, was presented by Mrs. Bothwell of Detroit, Mrs. Hansen of Buffalo, Miss Gibbs of New York, and Miss Winslow of Cleveland. It is such work that is upsetting the world-wide philosophy adequately voiced by the Detroit immigrant who protested "Some folks are born clean, some dirty; my wife is of the latter class. Why bother her?" "But we did," the domestic educator reported. This visiting teacher in the home provided in the cities named by the Associated Charities, the Civic League for Immigrants, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and the Y. W. C. A., seems to be most successful in reaching the adult of the present day, while reform via the schoolroom is always delayed until tomorrow. Mabel H. Kittredge explained the housekeeping centers which reach adults and children alike in New York.

These reports of varied efforts for urban home improvement were well matched by the gathering of rural extension teachers of home

economics from twenty-two states who exchanged experiences regarding such methods as the use of railroad exhibit cars and temporary schools, popular bulletins for the housewife and correspondence courses, short-course schools for housekeepers at state universities and colleges, clubs for housewives and for boys and girls, exhibits of home products at county fairs and many other devices for bringing education to the wayfarer outside academic halls.

It is evident that there is a great national movement on for rural and urban teaching which will get into the homes, and just as county agricultural agents are being provided, so the consultant for housekeepers is a parallel provision already in evidence. It is cheaper than malnutrition, poor cooking, ugly clothing, insanitary dwellings, polluted water supply, and all other manifestations of defective living—and a woman teacher who brings the gospel of right living to the woman of the individual family is probably working as close to the real center of our social problem as it is possible to get.

Other interesting features of the program were the discussions of the various aspects of home economics—its relation to industry and vocations, to education, to housekeeping, and to social service. Mention should be made, too, of the paper on Efficiency in the Household by Mrs. J. George Frederick, a home woman who has applied the new shop-efficiency to the household; the masterly statement of Standards of Living by Dr. Ira S. Wile, and the sessions in charge of the institution economics section of the association. This section which met for the third time, is very evidently making progress in developing a basis for the art of organizing and administering large institutional households, such as the college dormitory, orphanage, etc. This was well evidenced by the statement on institution organization and administration by Mrs. Dewey of the Lake Placid Club, and the report by Prof. William Morse Cole, of the Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, on Unit Costs in Institution Management, which represents a consecutive consideration of institution finance at the hands of a committee for the past three years. The problem of conducting school lunch rooms was also presented by persons concerned with the administration of school lunches in Philadelphia, Rochester, Buffalo and other cities.

A striking incident of the convention was the raising of a special fund to establish a housekeepers' department in the *Journal of Home Economics*, the one professional publication in the household science field, which was established and is published by the association. This journal, now in its fifth year, has become indispensable to household teachers and professional workers; it has not, however, attempted especially to bring the facts of science to the untrained homemaker. A plan was adopted for securing the co-operation of college and other laboratory workers in making scientific studies of simple household procedures, such as dish-washing, cleaning, care of the range, etc.; the results, then, to be presented in a housekeeper's division of the *Journal* and later to be issued as rules of procedure in bulletins, placards, and possibly in a loose-leaf "housekeeper's encyclopaedia."

The dedication of the Cornell Home Economics Building in which the state of New York has invested $200,000 for better housekeeping, and where, following the example of the western commonwealths, any young woman of the state can secure a fee-free four-year course, was a significant incident of the convention, with an address by former-president Andrew D. White of Cornell, followed by the breaking of the Stars and Stripes from the flag pole of the building, on the Fourth of July.

THE NURSE AND THE COMMUNITY

LILLIAN D. WALD

DURING the last decade there has been wide propaganda upon public health measures. Perhaps at no time before in the history of the world have there been so many "campaigns" for instruction concerning health and hygiene and the prevention of illness. To the trained nurse has properly fallen the responsibility of making practical application in the homes of the people of the results of scientific thought and research.

How best is it possible to expand for the community the nursing care that has been cherished for centuries by women everywhere as their duty to their own sick, and which trained nurses, since the days of Florence Nightingale, have been taught to give in institutions, on the battlefield and in the homes of the rich? This was what nurses from the West and the East, from the North and the South sought when they met recently in convention at Atlantic City. Three national organizations of trained nurses came together to discuss and to gain inspiration from each other on matters affecting their profession and its place in the community.

The conference was distinctive and, it may be said, epoch-making because the National Organization for Public Health Nursing met for the first time. This organization, created a year ago but in actual existence not more than seven months, demonstrated throughout its own meetings and the meetings held jointly with the other national organizations, an eagerness for guidance and a longing for the word from pioneer nurses who had established themselves in the service of the people. In all its conferences

there was not a word or implication of desire to promote nurses' interests for themselves. Although many represented visiting nurse associations or city departments of health and education, almost all paid their own expenses out of salaries that are meager and the whole spirit was one of service.

A thousand nurses were in attendance. They were eager to promote methods by which people of small means might secure nursing when ill, on the most dignified basis possible. They were gratified that insurance for nursing had made such great advance. They reminded each other of the fact that the greater proportion of people who are sick are sick at home, and urged that the technique for visiting nursing and the standards of efficiency, which had been promoted by a few, should be adopted by all. Visiting nurse service in many instances had been established in a casual way. They wanted it recognized as a community necessity.

Other forms of public health work were represented, and reference was made to almost every phase of public health and the promotion of right living. Nurses were at the convention who are engaged in prenatal work, before life itself is brought forth; others who are at work for the reduction of infant mortality; for instruction in sex hygiene, with its touching appeal to repair the omissions of the past and finally to help potential parents to do better for themselves and the oncoming generations. Nurses came to the convention to testify to their responsibility to help in the prevention of premature employment of children, and in the protection of men and women who work, that dangers may be removed from them, and that they may not risk health or life itself while earning their daily bread. Nurses who are engaged in the inspection of school children, and in follow-up work, entrusted with the mission of completing the treatment that patients receive in hospitals, were there. Nurses discussed their interest in mental hygiene measures, in the abuses of midwifery practice, in blindness that may be prevented, in school feeding, in the segregation of defectives, in the facts of physical deterrence that bring children before the courts, in general movements for welfare in the homes, shops, factories and schools.

Society needs the new nurse, needs her inspired, needs her well-trained, with such training as was not conceived of before, excepting, perhaps, in the master mind of Florence Nightingale. The significant fact about this convention was that the nurses felt that their call is not only to the care of the sick, but to seek out the deep-lying and basic causes of illness and misery, and to use their training so to protect and prevent that there may be in the future less sickness to nurse and to cure.

THE OHIO CHILDREN'S CODE

HASTINGS H. HART

THE first Children's Code in the world, so far as we are aware, was enacted into law when the Ohio Legislature recently passed the bill introduced by Senator Greenlund, embodying the work of a "commission to codify and revise laws relating to children," authorized by the Legislature of 1911. Governor Harmon selected as the members of this commission Judge Daniel Babst of Crestline and Arthur D. Baldwin, Esq., of Cleveland. Mr. Baldwin served as secretary.

After consultation with leaders in child-helping work in various cities as to what should be embodied in a children's code, this commission compiled a list of all the laws of the state of Ohio relating to children and then proceeded to revise them into a comprehensive code which will without doubt form a basis for the forming of future legislation relative to these classes of children.

It is fortunate that a work of so far-reaching importance fell into such competent hands. The committee has produced a law of remarkable wisdom, clearness and comprehensiveness. A summary of its provisions follows:

1. *The Board of State Charities* is given added duties covering the investigation and supervision of maternity hospitals and "all institutions, whether incorporated, private or otherwise, which receive and care for childen," including "the care and disposition made by institutions for receiving children and by all institutions including within their objects the placing of children in private homes." The board is to "annually pass upon the fitness of every benevolent or correctional institution, corporation, public, semi-public or private, which receives children or places children in private homes." It is to issue to such institutions certificates which must be renewed annually. "Any person who receives children or receives or solicits money on behalf of such an institution, corporation or association, not so certified, or whose certificate has been revoked, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and fined."

"The Board of State Charities shall, when able to do so, receive as its wards such dependent or neglected" or delinquent "minors as shall be committed to it by the juvenile court," or may be transferred from some institution. It is provided that "the board shall, by its visitors, seek out suitable permanent homes in private families for such wards" and shall visit them, at least semi-annually. It may place children, with or without payment of board, not exceeding $3.50 per week. Provision is made for the reimbursement of the Board of State Charities by the county or by parents.

2. *The Juvenile Court Law* is written into the Children's Code with important amendments providing for: notice to absent parents; acceptance of written promise of parents or guardians to bring children into court; power to commit to state institutions for the feeble-minded, deaf, dumb or crippled; provision for "physical and mental examination by physicians to be appointed by the Juvenile Court"; authority to commit children to county children's homes; authority to tax parents for support of children, etc.

3. *A Mother's Allowance Act* is incorporated in the Juvenile Court chapter. It provides that: "For the partial support of women whose husbands are dead, or become permanently disabled for work by reasons of physical or mental infirmity, or whose husbands are prisoners, when such women are poor," having children under the age of 14 and having legal residence, the Juvenile Court shall make an allowance not exceeding $15 a month for the first child and $7 a month for each other child under the age of 14. The conditions are as follows:

(1) Children must live with the mother;

(2) The allowance must enable the mother to remain at home when she would otherwise be required to work elsewhere;

(3) The mother must be morally, physically and mentally fit;

(4) The allowance must be necessary to save the child from neglect and avoid breaking up the home;

(5) It must appear beneficial to the child to remain with the mother;

(6) A careful preliminary examination must first have been made by a probation officer, an associated charities, humane society or other competent person or agency, as the court may direct. A tax of one-tenth of a mill on the dollar is provided.

4. The law relating to the state Institution for Feeble-minded Youth is so amended as to make each county liable for the support of children from that county.

5. *The Boys' Industrial School Act* is reenacted without important amendment.

6. *The Girls' Industrial School Act* is amended so as to authorize the transfer of girls under 18 from a penitentiary, county jail or other institution to the Girls' Industrial School, and also to provide for the deposit of the earnings of paroled girls in the saving bank for their benefit.

7. *The Ohio State Reformatory Law* is made a part of the Children's Code, with provisions for the transfer of incorrigible boys to the Boys' Industrial School from the reformatory.

8. *County Children's Homes* are, for the first time, brought under the control of the Board of State Charities: first, by the provision already described; second, by the power of the state board to "prescribe such forms of report of registration as it deems necessary"; third, by its power to supervise the placing of children by county homes, to visit their placed-out children and to place children for them on request. The trustees of the county children's homes are compelled either to appoint placing-out agents of their own or to place-out their children through the Board of State Charities.

This legislation was secured by the hearty cooperation of the county children's homes. It will probably result in the consolidation of the smaller county children's homes with those of adjacent counties, as in Indiana.

9. *Medical Inspection of School Children.* The Children's Code does not include the school laws of the state except with reference to schools for children in county children's homes and other public institutions; but it does provide for the medical examination of school children and for compulsory school attendance. Each board of education in the state may appoint at least one school physician and may also employ trained nurses. They are authorized to examine children, teachers and janitors. They are required to keep card index records.

10. *Compulsory Education.* Boys from 8 to 15 and girls from 8 to 16 must attend school for the full term. Boys under 16 can not work without a school certificate showing that they have completed the fifth grade, and girls under 18 can not work without a certificate showing that they have completed the seventh grade. Boards of education may appoint "juvenile examiners" to test these qualifications.

11. *Child Labor.* The code embodies nearly all the provisions contained in the Uniform Child Labor Law advocated by the National Child Labor Committee. The minimum age for child labor is 15 for boys and 16 for girls.

12. *Cruelty to Children.* The Juvenile Court is given jurisdiction over cases of cruelty and neglect on the part of parents, and also over persons contributing to the dependency or delinquency of children.

The Ohio Children's Code is the Magna Charta of the children of that great commonwealth. It establishes a point of departure and will undoubtedly form the basis of similar children's codes throughout the United States. It brings out in strong relief the obligations of the mother state toward her children.

All honor is due to George S. Adams, judge of the Cleveland Juvenile Court, who first proposed the enactment of a children's code, to Governor Judson Harmon, who seconded the plan and selected the commission, and to the commissioners, Judge Babst and Mr. Baldwin.

INDUSTRY

PENNSYLVANIA'S INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

FRED S. HALL

FORMER SECRETARY PENNSYLVANIA CHILD LABOR ASSOCIATION

Social workers in Pennsylvania are hoping that it will mean just that. Because of the appointment of a new labor commissioner, apparently free from the blighting Pennsylvania political influence, and the creation of a labor department with broad powers, these workers believe that they see ahead the enforcement of up-to-date legislation. If this really comes the result will be little less than an industrial revolution.

It will be remembered that Governor Tener a few months ago dismissed Chief Inspector John C. Delaney, a step indirectly at least ascribable to the five years' fight that the state Child Labor Association had been making against that official. The new appointee is Prof. John Price Jackson, dean of the School of Engineering of Pennsylvania State College. So far as the writer is aware Professor Jackson has never held public office before. His appointment, though not the result of any direct effort on the part of social workers, is warmly commended by the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association through Jasper Y. Brinton, its president, and Charles L. Chute, its secretary. Mr. Chute describes the new labor commissioner as "a very efficient and successful organizer, an expert in electrical engineering, and a man of broad knowledge and executive ability." His interest in the application of brains to government is evidenced by the leading part he took in the recent expedition of prominent Pennsylvanians, led by Mayor Blankenburg of Philadelphia, to Wisconsin to study the "Wisconsin idea." In striking contrast to his predecessor, Professor Jackson has asked for the closest co-operation of the organizations directly interested in labor legislation—the State Child Labor Association and the State Consumers' League. Not only has he expressed himself as wanting suggestions and advice, but he offers to the workers of these organizations every facility in making investigations which will further a strict enforcement of the laws. Soon after his appointment Professor Jackson made public announcement that the only condition under which he had accepted the position was that politics should be entirely eliminated from the department. With an administrator of this type, great changes for the better may be anticipated.

The bill creating in Pennsylvania a Department of Labor and Industry, of which Professor Jackson now becomes commissioner, is a piece of labor legislation of far-reaching importance. Its notable innovations are the division of industrial hygiene and the industrial board. The bill was modeled largely after that which this year was enacted in New York State.

The departmental bill was drafted by the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association, but, possibly fearing that hostile manufacturers might be aroused to opposition against it, the association made no campaign in its favor. The bill was sponsored by Governor Tener and was enacted without appreciable opposition.

Hitherto in Pennsylvania the entire administrative system for enforcing laws which affect nearly a million wage-earners was placed in the hands of a chief factory inspector and forty-one non-expert deputies at salaries of $1,500 a year. These forty-one low paid officers, in the words of Mr. Brinton,

"were called upon to enforce a number of the most general and indefinite requirements as to the safeguarding of the places of employment in the state, the application of which to any specific condition necessarily depended entirely upon the discretion and point of view of the particular factory inspector, subject to review, in the almost unheard-of event of prosecution by a court and jury. Practically no other duty than the enforcement of these general provisions was placed upon the department; no experts or investigations were provided for; no ascertainment and declaration of standards were contemplated; no methods of co-operation between the state and the industries affected were even remotely suggested."

In contrast to this, the division of industrial hygiene in the new department has both the authority and the duty to make constructive investigations of the wide scope, covering, step by step, all the more important risks of industry and the means and devices whereby these risks may be efficiently minimized to the mutual advantage of employer and employe. This work will be done by four $3,000 expert inspectors, one of whom is a physician and chief medical inspector and the three remaining, respectively, a mechanical engineer (expert in ventilation and accident prevention), a chemical engineer and a civil engineer (expert in fire prevention and building construction).

By the new act the number of regular inspectors is increased to fifty (five of them women) with salaries of $1,500. Two medical inspectorships are also created at $2,500 each, to be filled by physicians, one of whom must be a woman. Mr. Brinton says of the industrial board:

"The establishment of the industrial board is the second and perhaps the more important of the innovations included under the organization of the new department. The duty of this board is twofold, to make investigations into all matters touching the enforcement of the labor laws of the commonwealth, and to establish rules and regulations necessary for carrying out the de-

clared policy of the state, requiring reasonable and adequate protection of the health and safety of his employes. The widest powers of investigations are afforded to the board, with further power to subpoena witnesses. . . . This board is not, of course, in any way a law-making body, but merely an administrative body charged with the duty of giving voice to the expressed declarations of the Legislature in the light of its expert investigation into the necessarily changing and frequently intricate conditions of different industries."

INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION OF OHIO

S. GALE LOWRIE

DIRECTOR LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE BUREAU, STATE OF OHIO

During the third week of June the Ohio industrial commission law became effective. This is not only the first of the fifty-six pieces of progressive legislation promised by the governor and secured by legislative action to go into operation, but it is considered by many as first also in importance among the laws passed at the session of the Ohio Legislature just closed.

The law is patterned after the Wisconsin model, and creates a commission of three, each appointed for a term of six years at a salary of $5,000. It is provided that not more than one of the appointees shall be a representative of employers, and not more than one a representative of employes; not more than two members may belong to the same political party, nor may any member be an officer of a political party.

On June 30, Governor Harmon appointed as members of the Industrial Commission, Wallace D. Yaple of Chillicothe, Thomas J. Duffy, of East Liverpool and Prof. M. B. Hammond of Columbus. Mr. Duffy represents the laboring class and has been chairman of the State Liability Board of Awards. For nine years he was president of the National Brotherhood of Operative Potters, which organization had not a single strike during his incumbency. Mr. Yaple is an attorney and has also been a member of the Liability Board of Awards. He was serving his fifth term as mayor of Chillicothe when appointed to this position by Governor Harmon. Professor Hammond is an authority on labor questions and is probably better versed than any man in Ohio on the scientific phases of labor matters. He is a professor at the Ohio State University. Last year he took a leave of absence and studied in Australia, New Zealand and Europe, paying particular attention to minimum wage legislation. He is probably one of the best authorities on this question in the country. At present, he is a member of a commission appointed by Governor Cox to study the controversy of employers and employes as to whether coal should be mined and paid for upon the mine run basis, or after it has been screened.

The commission will, on September 1, take over the work of the following state departments: the Bureau of Statistics, Bureau of Mine Inspection, Department of Inspection of Workshops, Factories and Public Buildings, Board of Examination of Steam Engineers, Board of Boiler Rules, Board of Arbitration and Conciliation, and State Liability Board of Awards.

It is the design of the law to provide for the administrative control of affairs affecting labor as is done so successfully by the Wisconsin board. The law requires, therefore, that each employer furnish his employes with a safe place of employment, prescribe hours of labor reasonably adequate for the nature of his employment, and do other things necessary to protect the life, health, safety, and welfare of his employes. The commission is empowered to make and enforce rules and regulations for the carrying out of these provisions.

It was the original intention to supplant by these administrative regulations many of the existing laws relative to conditions of labor, particularly hours. Owing to the strong opposition of labor leaders, however, the general laws now on the statute books prescribing conditions of employment and hours of labor were allowed to stand as minimum requirements demanded of the employer. These regulations may be further supplemented by rules of the commission. The state of Ohio has a fairly moderate code of labor legislation, and the labor leaders did not wish to jeopardize any of the laws which at the cost of considerable effort, have been placed there.

The duties of the new industrial commission will in general, cover those of the departments which it supplants. It will be responsible for the enforcement of the general labor laws of the state, the administration of reasonable hours of labor, standards of safety devices, and other matters of protection and the investigation of conditions of employment. They must conduct hearings and investigations before making their findings. The commission is enjoined to promote voluntary arbitration and mediation, aid to the greatest extent possible in the settlement of industrial disputes, establish and continue a free employment agency, examine and license steam engineers, and collate and publish statistics and other information relative to conditions of employment. The Wisconsin device of court procedure has been followed in the hope that the evil of labor injunctions may be avoided and that a speedy court review may be had upon all orders of the commission.

Not the least among the duties of the Industrial Commission will be the administration of the new compulsory workman's compensation law, which is among the most advanced of such laws, providing more adequate compensation for total disability than any existing law.

It is confidently believed that the creation of this commission will not only effect material saving to the state in the amalgamating of the various departments which hitherto have operated independently and in some instances at cross pur-

poses, but that a method has been established for the rapid and rational settlement of all controversies which may arise between capital and labor and that will give employes, employer and the public at large the blessings of rational labor regulation properly enforced.

ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY

DON D. LESCOHIER
CHIEF STATISTICIAN, MINNESOTA DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

The federal report on Accidents and Accident Prevention in the Iron and Steel Industry[1] is unquestionably the most comprehensive and suggestive report on industrial accidents that has been issued in the United States. It is a careful study of the 1910 accident experience of 155 steel plants with 158,604 employes, and of an experience extending over a number of years in the case of certain plants.

Two hundred and seventy-four fatalities, 400 permanent injuries and 35,364 temporary disabilities of over a day's duration were found to have occurred in the plants studied during the year 1910. This constituted a fatal accident rate of 1.86 for each thousand workers employed at least 300 days, a permanent injury rate of 2.72 per thousand, and a temporary injury rate of 240.6 per thousand.

The most striking feature of the report is its demonstration of the efficacy of recent accident prevention efforts. Sixteen plants, each employing more than 1,000 men 300 days in the year and including two or more of the productive departments[2] were carefully classified on the basis of the degree of development of their safety organization, and their accident experience then investigated. Six plants with well developed safety systems were put into class A; five with partially developed safety systems were put into class B; and five where safety had received but little attention into class C.

An examination of the accident experience of the three groups revealed that the number of accidents in 1910 for each thousand 300-day workers in class A was 167.1; in class B, 272.4; and in class C, 507.9. The accident rate of the best plant in class A was 115.9 per thousand; that of the worst plant in class C was 615.7. In other words, five hundred more men per thousand were hurt in 1910 in the class C plant than in the class A plant—truly a terrible indictment against some board of directors. The accident rate of the worst plant in class A (237.2) was better than that of the best plant in class B (239.6), and the rate of the worst plant in class B (302.3), was much better than that of the best plant in class C (403.1). A more conclusive demonstration of the efficacy of the current safety campaign and of the possibilities of accident prevention in our industries could hardly be asked.

"We have in these figures," says the report (p. 47), "not an estimate but a positive demonstration of what can be accomplished in this industry in the way of accident decrease. The accident rate of class A is only 33 per cent of that of class C. . . . Do the plants of class C represent industrial conditions so different from those of class A that the comparison which has been made between them is an unjust one? The answer is: The conditions are absolutely comparable and nothing which has been done in plants of class A is in the smallest degree impossible in those of class C."

To test that matter even more thoroughly, the federal experts made a study of the accident history of a single plant employing about 8,000 men, which has not at the present time a highly developed safety technique. The records of this plant for the twelve years, 1900-1911, show a decrease in disabling accidents (fatal and non-fatal) from 370 for each thousand 300-day workers in 1900 to 109 per thousand in 1911. Only twice in the twelve years did the accident rate in any year exceed that of the previous year. The rate was 10 accidents higher in 1903 than in 1902 and 24 higher in 1909 than in 1908. On both occasions the succeeding year witnessed a drop to a rate less than for any preceding year.

It was found that while there is great difference in the hazards characteristic of different branches of the industry, there is no branch of steel manufacture where the existing accident rate cannot be reduced. The lesson was the same from the Bessemer works, which had a fatality rate of 4.36 in 1910, and a total accident rate of 423.1 disabling accidents; down to the steel foundries, where there was a fatality rate of only .49 and a total accident rate of but 133.4; and puddling, where there were no fatalities and a temporary disability rate of but 50 per thousand workers.

Another interesting feature of the report is its discussion of non-disabling accidents. In a plant in which safety work was well developed it was found that 22,528 out of 29,038 accidents occurring in a period of six years, or 77.5 per cent, were non-disabling accidents, and it would seem clear that the employer has here an important fact to face.

The figures given on the duration of the disabilities that result from various classes of injuries are rather startling to those familiar with American compensation laws, in that they suggest that the amount of compensation payable for various kinds of temporary disabilities will actually be much less than has been supposed. For instance, it is somewhat surprising to find that 12 out of 43 men who suffered fractured arms were back at work by the fourth week, 27 by the sixth week and 33 by the end of two

[1] Vol. IV of Report on Conditions of Employment in the Iron and Steel Industry. Senate Doc. 110, 62nd Congress, 1st Session.

[2] The "productive departments" are those which manufacture the product, distinguished from shipping, yard and other departments which simply handle raw material or finished product, or do work that is not directly connected with the manufacturing process.



months. And it is no less surprising to find 19 out of 71 broken legs resulting in disablements of less than six weeks, and 27 in disablements of less than two months.

The entire range of injuries presented shows a remarkably low duration of disability as compared with what the ordinary discussion of these injuries has assumed will result from them. It looks as if the exceptional case has been deceiving the ordinary observer with respect to the disabilities that result, on the average, from the various classes of injuries. The average time lost per non-fatal injury in the steel plants was found to be but 14.2 days, in the yards 14.1 days, in blast furnaces 13 days, in rolling mills 12 days, and in foundries 10 days. Only 9 per cent of temporary disabilities lasted over 30 days and only 2.6 per cent more than 60 days.

From the point of view of safety practice, the chapters on the Organization and Development of a Safety Department and Direct Safeguarding Methods are to be commended. The record, in clear and concise manner, of the safety methods that have been found effective in the steel industry illustrated with seventy photographs, forms one of the best of many safety publications that have recently come from the press.

"Most industrial diseases are preventable," says Prof. C. E. A. Winslow in the foreword to his little pamphlet, The Health of the Worker, published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company:

"The bad conditions that exist in factories and other industrial establishments are due mainly to ignorance. They keep the worker uncomfortable, they hinder his work, and they make him an easy prey to any sicknesses that come along. They are likewise harmful to the employer's interests, for he is a constant loser from poor and careless work, spoiled stock, absences and the breaking in of green hands. Dangerous conditions continue to exist because neither employer nor employe knows what is going on. They do not understand that dust and fumes, bad air, poor lighting and dirt make sick men and a poor product. This book is written to help its readers to think of these things; for conditions will be made better as soon as people begin to think about them. You cannot keep your shop healthful unless your employer does his part. Neither can he unless you do yours."

Tuberculosis as an industrial disease is due more to the dusty trades than to anything else. In this connection Professor Winslow quotes from an old doctor in a Massachusetts town:

"I have seen quite a number of cases of so-called grinder's consumption. The symptoms are excessive shortness of breath on slight exertion, dry cough and great prostration. The grinders are from the Polanders and Finns for the past dozen years. The disease takes hold of them more frequently, and is more rapidly fatal than among the grinders of former years and of other nationalities. When I came here 40 years ago I found the victims among the Yankees who had ground some 20 years before. Those would grind 18 or 20 years before having to give it up. The French-Canadians were then grinding. They could work 12 to 16 years. They became frightened off, and the Swedes took up the work. They would get the disease in 8 or 10 years. Now the Finns and Polanders are at it, and they last only 3 to 5 years, and the disease is more common among them."

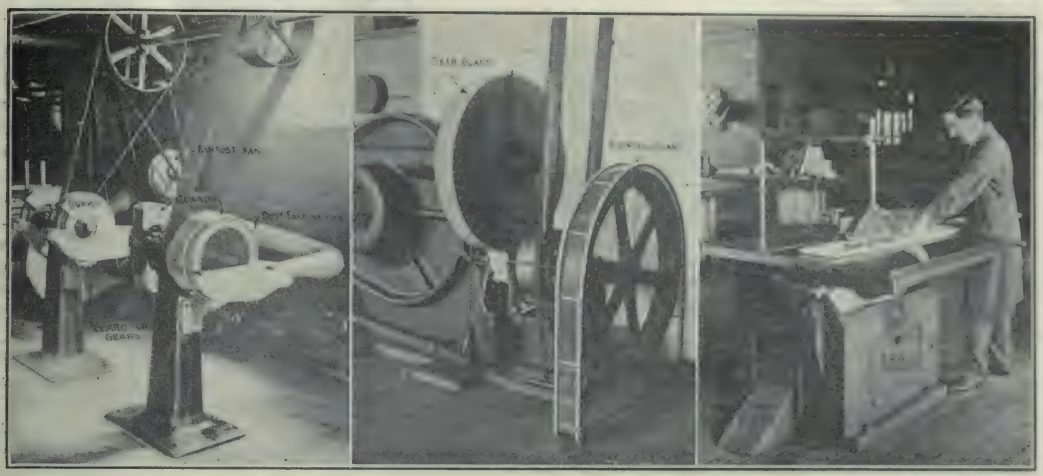
The employer can control dust in three ways:

First, by using wet processes;

Second, by carrying on the work in an enclosed vessel;

Third, by the use of hoods and exhaust fans. The worker can avoid it by wearing a respirator. While it is not always possible, "the best way to deal with dust is not to have any. Where wet grinding or grinding in oil can be used instead of dry grinding, where paint can be rubbed with pumice and oil instead of sandpaper and the like, there is no danger from dust in the air. Cleaning of the benches and floors in the workroom should be done with a wet cloth, and not a dry one, for the same reason."

BOOSTING FOR SAFETY



IN THE SHOP LABORATORIES, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

Abrasive wheels with guards and exhaust system are shown on the left. In the center is a punch and shears with guards over gears, fly-wheel and shears. The third cut is of a combination saw. Everything, including saw, belt and space in bed column, is covered.

Illinois, in many ways pioneer in the present accident prevention movement, is "boosting for safety" more enthusiastically than ever. Individual companies and the factory inspection bureau have been campaigning for some time, and now the state university and the Illinois Manufacturers' Association have joined the movement. If any proof of the value of the idea is needed, said one manufacturer recently, "ask the man with an arm or a leg off, or an eye out, or those widows and orphans who are struggling along without a husband's and a father's support, if they believe in safety first."

The illustrations on this page show what practical work is being done at the state university. A correspondent writes us:

> "The engineering department of the University of Illinois realizes that its business is to turn out engineers who value the workman's life and health and know how to conserve them as well as to design and operate machines. The shop laboratories under the able supervision of Director B. W. Benedict are possessed of the general spirit of 'efficiency' in shop operation. But the courses in shop management do not end with teaching how to save an hour's time here and a few pounds of coal there. Definite instruction is given on the protection of life and health, with constant drill in the program of 'safety first.' The Sociology Department has aided and abetted these schemes in order to provide concrete materials for such of its students as may be training for factory welfare and inspection work."

A recent issue of *Manufacturers' News* tells of an enthusiastic safety meeting of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association. Representatives of the Inland Steel Company, the Crane Company, the Avery Company and the Illinois Steel Company told of the safety work in their respective organizations.

"When the compensation law went into effect," said G. L. Avery of the Avery Company, Peoria, employing 800 men,

> "the insurance manual rate on our plant was $3.35. Because of our dispensary feature we were allowed a credit of 49 per cent and a further credit of 50 per cent was granted by our accepting the two thousand dollar deductive average clause in our insurance policy. When our insurance contract expired on the first of the year, we were given an additional credit of 60 per cent on the showing made the first eight months of our experience under the compensation law."

In other words:

Had we purchased our insurance subject to the manual rate, and made no efforts to prevent accidents, our insurance premiums for the year just ending would have amounted to		$22,977.65
Whereas the actual cost of insurance premiums, making allowance for the various credits listed above, amounted to		4,573.84
Making a gross saving in insurance premiums of		$18,503.84
From this amount must be deducted the cost of operating the Medical Department, including depreciations, taxes, insurance, etc., but not including an item of $500.00 for rearranging a room in the factory for this department	$6,264.89	
Compensation payments amounting to	223.93	
Hospital and specialist fees	225.50	6,714.32
Showing a net saving over manual rate insurance cost of		$11,789.52

As a result of this meeting the association decided to organize a "safety first" bureau.

JOTTINGS

RESULTS OF SAFETY INSPECTION

The Travelers' Insurance Company of Hartford recently built a nine-story addition to its office building. The work was in progress more than a year, and at the period of greatest activity 350 men were employed, yet there was not a single fatality due to the work of construction nor a single serious accident. A most thoroughgoing system of safety inspection was kept in operation from the beginning.

JOHN MITCHELL'S APPOINTMENT DECLARED ILLEGAL

The New York Court of Appeals has upheld the contention of Attorney General Carmody that the recess appointment of John Mitchell as commissioner of labor, after his name had been rejected by the Senate, was contrary to law. This decision leaves Second Deputy Commissioner Rogers as acting departmental head.

GARMENT MANUFACTURERS EMPLOY INSPECTOR

The Cotton Garment Manufacturers' Association of New York has appointed Sarah W. H. Christopher as fire prevention adviser to the 150 garment factories represented in their association with their 15,000 workers. Thus a beginning is made of a voluntary factory inspection which should have results beneficial in the extreme. It is announced that Mrs. Christopher is to begin at once a tour of inspection of all the factories included in the association with a view to ascertaining the danger points and taking the first steps toward their elimination. She plans further to establish fire drills in all the factories.

PAPER BOX MAKING AS A CAREER

The industrial betterment bureau of the Consumers' League of Pennsylvania has published the first of a series of practical "vocational guidance" pamphlets for young girls entering industry. The series is designed to cover the facts in regard to the specific industries which offer employment to girls in Philadelphia, with a view to avoiding if possible "blind alley" industries.

Paper-box making is the subject of the first pamphlet. In twenty compact pages the report covers wages and conditions in three-fourths of the firms in Philadelphia and gives a good idea of the processes and the chances of advancement. Wages of beginners run from $2 a week up; an average from workers' statements gives $3.55. Experienced workers' wages in four establishments averaged for the year including slack and busy seasons, were $7.71 and $8.86 respectively for the two principal processes and $7.57 for all workers grouped as handworkers. Wage averages based on workers' statements are slightly lower especially in the latter group. The maximum wage was $12. The highest average by age was $8.26 for women of twenty-five years or over.

One-quarter of the establishments gave out home work. The majority of the factories worked from 9 to 10 hours; eight exceeded the latter hours. The work itself was found to present no unhealthy elements. Most of the factories were fairly clean and sanitary, fire being the chief danger.

REORGANIZING HEALTH WORK OF THE T. C. I.

The Tennessee Coal, Iron & Railroad Company of Birmingham, Ala., has recently created a health department, through which all the sanitary and surgical work of the company is to be co-ordinated. The head of the department is to have general supervision over the hospitals and the work of the physicians in the various camps.

The first "superintendent of the health department" is Dr. Lloyd Noland, who, in order to accept, resigned his position under the Isthmian Canal Commission, where he had charge of the surgical side of Colon Hospital. Dr. Noland was graduated from Baltimore Medical College in 1902. After two years in hospitals and in private practice he entered the service of the Isthmian Canal Commission, where he remained until his resignation on April 10, 1913. Here he served as assistant surgeon at Ancon Hospital, executive officer to Col. Gorgas, chief sanitary officer, serving through the yellow fever campaign, and finally chief of the surgical clinic, Colon Hospital.

TO STUDY CONDITIONS IN DOMESTIC SERVICE

A commission to investigate conditions of women's work has been appointed in Indiana, and one of the special lines of investigation will concern domestic service. The creation of the commission is the result of a vigorous but unsuccessful effort during the recent session of the Legislature to secure the passage of an eight-hour bill for women. A compromise measure providing for a nine-hour day and a fifty-four-hour week also failed. These measures were framed to apply to all working women of the state and excepted no special industries. There was strong opposition from laundries, rural merchants and canneries, but in general manufacturers were less antagonistic.

The agitation led, however, to the passage of a bill for the creation of a commission upon which employers and employes should be represented, and upon which there should be one woman. The commission as constituted consists of M. E. Mix of the Dodge Manufacturing Company, Mishawaka, president of the Indiana Manufacturers' Association; Lee Rodman of Cannelton, who as an employer is identified with the textile industry of southern Indiana; H. F. Conway of Lafayette, secretary of the Clerks' International Protective Association; State Senator Harry Grube, author of the bill; and Mrs. V. H. Lockwood of Indianapolis, prominent in the State Federation of Women's Clubs.

During the hearings on the bills which failed, the opponents of the measures particularly urged that domestic service and agricultural workers should be exempted. Accordingly, the commission has decided to devote particular attention to a study of the working conditions of domestic servants.

EDUCATION

EFFICIENCY AND THE RURAL SCHOOL

LAURA H. WILD

PROFESSOR IN LAKE ERIE COLLEGE, PAINESVILLE, OHIO

[Miss Wild, although heading the Department of Biblical Literature in Lake Erie College, has always been interested in educational problems. Because of her zeal in studying local school needs, the college trustees have asked her to become lecturer on modern problems in the educational department. The results of her study, told graphically in the following article, shed light upon the larger Ohio state school survey outlined in her opening paragraphs.—Ed.]

How many angels can dance on the point of a needle was a question much fought over by the schoolmen of the middle ages. Whether a yard stick can be applied to the delicate relation between teacher and pupil is causing many battles among the schoolmen of the present day. It has been raised by the assiduous efforts of many educators to measure various elements and forces in teaching. These efforts aim to determine efficiency. The "efficiency test" has invaded the classroom. The movement is already widespread. Individual administrators have devised divers ways of getting at long hidden facts about their schools. The movement was given head and guidance several months ago when the National Council of Education created a Committee on School Efficiency to encourage and advise school surveys throughout the country.[1]

Such a survey is now being conducted in Ohio. The Legislature appropriated $10,000 this year for a state-wide investigation of schools, and the work has been begun. It has long been recognized that Ohio needs to be rescued from an antiquated educational system which no longer answers her wants. She is crammed full of schools and colleges and her educational record compares well with her political accomplishments. But she has been running under an old regime, patched here and there in spots. The result is a very uneven status. Certain centers, such as Cleveland and Cincinnati, have broken out with up-to-date plans which have set a pace for the whole country, while near-by townships, only a few miles away from all this stimulus, retain the most primitive and inadequate provision for their boys and girls.

Ohio is taking many suggestions from the survey recently made in Wisconsin. One of the first things done was to establish a legislative reference bureau, with Prof. S. Gale Lowrie of the University of Cincinnati in charge. Mr. Lowrie is familiar with the work of the similar bureau in Wisconsin under Charles McCarthy. It was largely through Mr. Lowrie's efforts that the governor appointed the able commission to make the survey—Oliver J. Thatcher of Wilmington, formerly a professor in the University of Chicago; William L. Allendorf, a banker in Sandusky and M. Edith Campbell, director of the Schmidlapp Bureau for Women and Girls in Cincinnati. The members of the commission represent the different sections of the state.

The survey is to begin with the rural schools and the plan is to select a sufficient number in different localities to represent fairly the general aspect of rural education in the entire state. This is the first step. Then will come the schools in villages and small towns, the normal and the agricultural schools.

A Typical County

While we are waiting for the results of this study, it will be interesting to consider what has already been learned about school conditions in one Ohio county and what can be done to remedy them. The Department of Education of the Lake Erie College for women, situated in Painesville, Lake County, has made a careful investigation the past year of the local school situation. Much of this study sheds light upon the larger state survey. Lake County is in the historic Western Reserve. Small and easily covered, it nevertheless includes almost all the types of rural and small-town communities: the suburban element, the foreign element, the completely isolated back-town element. It is near enough to Cleveland, which is electric with educational progress, to catch something of its stimulus. On the east, it has such up-to-date examples of school agitation as Rochester and Buffalo. The main east and west trunk lines run through the county.

In spite of its advantages, few of its schools have recognized the possibility of adopting the newer plans for school efficiency. There is no social center work, no medical examination (although this was tried once last year at the county seat, but has not been followed up) and there is no provision for ungraded classes. That there is

[1] See THE SURVEY for March 22, 1913.

plenty of need for the latter is manifest. Two of the townships have introduced sanitary drinking cups, one has centralized its schools, another has an annual field meet, another provides domestic science instruction and gymnastics for the girls in connection with the college, still another has introduced basket-weaving and wood work successfully, and all teach agriculture in compliance with the state law. But ten minutes a day of the latter is likely to become a joke, unless the subject is handled unusually well. When it comes to the larger and more fundamental projects, however, there seems to be a feeling of hopelessness as to the possibility of adapting them to the small community, to say nothing of great ignorance concerning them in the back towns. There are those who listen with interest to the explanation of what is being done in other places, and *wish* it might be done here, but there are few who have faith to believe that it *can* be done. The value of the work of the state commission will be not so much in gathering statistics and showing up conditions as in inspiring the people with faith in the possibilities of their schools. A hearty response will come from the teachers when feasible plans are proposed which school boards can be induced to adopt.

The Need of Superintendence

Another fact brought out by the Lake County survey is that it ought to be impossible for rural communities to get along without any superintendence. Whether superintendence should be for the township, county or district, is a matter for discussion, but unquestionably it makes for backward conditions when a township may, if it chooses, do away with all superintendence in order to save expense. There are well-to-do farming communities so infected with this saving idea that they have reduced their schools to the minimum of efficiency, employing as teachers at the lowest wage, young high school graduates, who have little interest beyond getting their first year's experience and passing to better positions.

These young girls are full of ambition at first. If they had some one to direct them and with whom they could discuss difficulties, their best could be aroused. But it is not inspiriting to be set down in a school of four pupils, as is the case in one district, and to be left to one's own devices for arousing interest and enthusiasm. Neither is it encouraging to ask for chalk, paper and other school necessities, as was the case in another district, and after several weeks receive an insufficient number of record cards, but no register and no chalk. When this teacher was asked if she had ceased to use the blackboards on this account, she replied that twice she had bought chalk from her own purse, but used the boards sparingly.

In one school the blackboard was so old and greasy with constant use that the little girl who was trying to write the multiplication table could hardly make her figures visible. When this school board was asked to put in new blackboards they bought the cheapest kind of blackboard paper and tacked it up as a substitute. One year's use has worn it out. One teacher said it was very hard to get repairs attended to, instancing a latch that was out of commission and a broken window. A broken pane of glass was neglected in the winter until one of the pupils caught cold and was seriously ill. By thus skimping on school expenditures, the farmers in one township have laid by enough to exempt them from school taxes for two years.

It is not strange that such a haphazard state of things should exist when the school board attempts to assume the duties of a superintendent. No school board should be expected to do the work of an expert whose business it is to know school matters thoroughly, although it might indeed be well to require of every board member that he should at least read one educational periodical. In answer to the question whether board members take such magazines there is a universal negative.

Parsimony Hampers Schools

On the other hand, the harbor town of Fairport, only a few miles distant, found it necessary to close the schools in April because there was not money enough to pay the teachers. Sixty per cent of the inhabitants are Finns and Hungarians, said to have more children to the population than any other town in the United States. When this state of affairs became apparent in the fall, the young and energetic superintendent did his best to secure an additional tax in order to make possible the full nine months of school, but his efforts were bitterly opposed and voted down. Had he sufficient means and the backing of his board, progressive measures would be immediately introduced in this needy district.

A dental clinic would be one of the first things, manual training and gymnastics would be others. Social center work could most profitably be introduced here and a vocational high school is one of the dreams of this superintendent. As it is, all high school pupils are obliged to go to the city to pursue their studies, which to their minds is aristocratic. This requires better clothes and also ten cents care fare a day, so that many stop entirely when they have completed the eighth grade. That this is not necessary to such a degree has been proved in one of the strictly rural townships of the county where a three-year high school course is offered in the centralized building. Forty-four of the 440 school children of the township are in this high school, a much larger proportion than ever went on with their studies before.

How the Suburbanite Can Help

There are many cities in Ohio and many overflows into the country. Lake County harbors such overflows in a mild and pleasureable degree. There are no large and congested suburbs strictly given over to the commuter, but a generous sprinkling here and there of families from the city who have country homes, or people who have transferred their active business to the city and rent apartments there for the winter season, retaining their ancestral residence as their real home. At the county fair last Septem-

ber was one of the finest exhibitions in the state of cattle and horses, which would not have been possible except for the gentleman farmer with his blooded stock. Some of these fine farms owned by wealthy Clevelanders, some even by New Yorkers, are next door to the country school house. These wealthy people do not for a minute think of educating their children in such limited schools and obviously bestow little thought upon the place where their workmen's children attend. There is one instance to the contrary, however, that of a man whose beautiful acres and charming country seat border directly upon the grounds of a little one-room schoolhouse, and it is his interest which has provided new seats and a good well.

As a rule, the seats are conspicuous for their maladjustment to the children. Little people are dangling their legs in the air and great, strapping country boys are squeezed into cramped space intended for tots. In a few instances, the teacher lets two of the large boys sit at her table, but this simply emphasizes the need of proper seating. The majority of the rural school grounds have no wells, and the teacher must send for water to a neighbor's house, usually rods away. In one case, the well was condemned but the board has not seen fit either to clean it or dig a new one. The toilet arrangements in the schools almost without exception are unattractive and unsanitary. In one or two instances, the wash basin is placed on one of the school desks, to greet the eye upon first entering the room, while a roller towel of varying degrees of cleanliness hangs near at hand. If not the first object to be seen in the school room, it is banished to the entry to add its unsightly impression at the front door. In several instances, the boys' outhouses are a disgrace.

Even the neatest of teachers with the best intentions in the world finds such conditions hard to battle with. Much, it is true, depends upon the individual teacher. In one schoolhouse the floor was clean, there were fresh muslin curtains at the windows which the children had furnished, the girls hemmed the towels and keep them clean, there was a branch of blossoms to add a touch of the esthetic, the pictures were neatly arranged on the wall, although for the most part unframed. In this school there was good order and a good spirit. The school grounds in front were quite bare, but in the rear the children had made a playhouse which they greatly enjoyed. In this entire township the school rooms are covered with the most dingy, melancholy paper, originally of a chocolate hue with immense figures, and the green window shades are perforated with holes, if not actually in strips, and this is the richest township in the county.

A teacher who can make her room attractive under such circumstances ought to be promoted. But these are acts of supererogation not nominated in the school contract, and there is much excuse for neglecting them when a girl often has to do her own janitor work. Two dollars a month is allowed for this, but there are few country boys who care for the job or who know how to sweep and scrub a floor clean, even if they undertake it. And when neither school board nor parents visit the school to see how things are done, it is the exceptional teacher who holds herself up to the perfect standard. But let one of the influential residents show even a little interest, and the latent ambitions of any school teacher are quickened into life.

We are wasting our precious country assets of fresh air, playground room, birds and flowers, held at such a high price in the city, because the teacher does not know how to take advantage of them. One Lake County school teacher has a friend in town who knows the birds. She had her out one day to talk to the children and the result was field walks and nature study of the genuine kind. This simply shows how a cultured person within range of the country school can be of help to the teacher and the whole community.

The great thing needed in our smaller communities is interest and intelligence, and this quite as much among the members of the school boards and the citizens as the school teachers. Such a survey as that of Lake County reveals that the teachers are, as a rule, responsive and ordinarily intelligent concerning school matters but woefully handicapped by a cramping and inefficient system. Most of them could easily be led to adopt new ways but the inertia of the fathers and mothers and school authorities dampens their ardor and reduces their faith. It becomes a bread-and-butter existence with many of them, but it could easily be raised to the level of a community service if only the minds of the school boards and the tax payers were inoculated with that germ. For example, the truancy law in the rural districts is generally evaded, not because the teachers with their pupils to be absent, but because their parents keep them out to help on the farms. The same parents could make a teacher's life miserable if she complained. Most country school teachers have never heard of a truant officer being appointed and "working papers" are never seen. Thus the farmer evades the law the manufacturer must observe.

Four Fundamental Steps: (1) Social Centers in Schools

If a rural community becomes thoroughly intelligent concerning modern methods and thoroughly awake to her own educational needs, there are at least four concrete steps which could easily be taken within the next two or three years. These steps involve only a moderate expenditure of money but a generous allowance of whole-hearted zeal.

The first is opening the schoolhouses as social centers. Not one schoolhouse is so used in Lake County at present. At the county seat, there is a large and attractive school building which gathers in many of the high school pupils of the surrounding townships. In this building is a commodious auditorium, the only available one of any size outside the churches in this town of 6,000. But the school board sees fit to charge $25 each time the auditorium is used. This is placing a double tax on education, for good lec-

tures and uplifting entertainment are as valuable educational effort as classroom exercise. In Fairport, three miles distant, on the lake shore, one of the iron ports and fishing harbors of the Great Lakes, no social work was attempted until two years ago, when in a small way the college girls started gymnastic classes, a cooking class and a library. The new school building provided a place for this work, but there is much more demand than can be met by the limited time of college students. The young foreigners are eager to read, but there are not books enough to go around. Twelve is the largest number that can be accommodated in the cooking class, so that a selection has to be made. Only a few can receive the gymnastic training, whereas the whole school should have the opportunity. The doors should be thrown wide open during the evening for clubs, lectures and various social activities, for the fathers and mothers and working boys and girls in such a community where "working papers" are called for at the earliest opportunity.

(2) *Rural Vocational Guidance*

Vocational guidance is as much needed in the small town and rural community as in the city. Perhaps country people are more at sea than their city brethren with fewer guides available. Painesville, the county seat, has worked out a plan which may prove instructive. Each of the seven churches has appointed a committee of three to look after the working boys and girls of their own parish, to become acquainted with them, find out why they left school, what they are doing, whether they can be helped to further training and a better job, in a word to be friends and counsellors to them. At the first meeting of this joint committee, held in the public library, the names of all the children who have dropped out of school during the last two years from the sixth grade through high school, as well as additional names secured from a recent religious census, were gone over and assigned to the seven parishes.

This is only one side of each committee's work. In addition each member selects one vocation from a list of twenty-one, to investigate as thoroughly as possible, finding out the positions available and the demand, as well as the training required. In this particular county, one of the especial fields for boys is nursery work, and for girls a variety of occupations from teaching and stenography to domestic service. But the investigation is not limited to what may be done within the county but extends to the lure of the city—the chances of a boy or girl in Cleveland, for example.

After the information is collected, it is to be posted upon a bulletin board in each Sunday School and in the public library. There is to be a shelf of vocational literature in the library and at stated times various advisers from the committee will be present to answer questions. The pastors and priests of the city have all responded most cordially to the invitation to join in this federated effort and have seen fit to appoint their wisest heads upon their respective committees. Little expense is attached to this procedure. It is, moreover, a help to each church. It may well be extended to the entire county by utilizing these bulletins in local schoolhouses and recognizing the library at the county seat as the clearing house for all inquiries. This will be more practicable as soon as the library is made a county library, a measure which is now on foot.

(3) *Branch Library Stations*

This will lead to the third advance step, namely, the establishment of branch library stations in local schoolhouses, throughout the county. Possibly the rural book wagon will soon be a common sight.

(4) *Ungraded Classes*

Without question an ungraded room should be established at the county seat. There are a sufficient number of retarded pupils in Painesville alone to warrant the employment of a special teacher. The teachers would welcome such a provision. Medical examination should go with it. The special teacher at the center might well be an adviser to the teachers in the surrounding townships, for almost every rural school contains from one to six retarded or defective pupils. In one school of twenty-four, six are behind grade. In another school of fifteen there is a family of three children, one eleven years old in the first grade, one nine years old in the second grade and the third twelve years old in the third grade. The rural problem of retardation is quite as serious as the city problem, for a young high school graduate, with little or no experience, is helpless in meeting this most difficult situation.

If Lake County or any rural county in the state of Ohio will work for five years to accomplish these four things, our schools will have doubled their efficiency as servants of the common welfare.

HOW LONG, OH GRANDPA!

CHARLOTTE PERKINS GILMAN in *The Forerunner.*

How long, oh Grandpa, must a growing age
Be stultified and paralyzed by you?
You most mistaken, ignorant old sage,
Who so profoundly, abjectly believed
All the dark doctrines you in youth received,
And passed them on—as true!

Have we no brains? New minds, new furnished, strong,
To see life for ourselves and learn its laws?
The things you used to think are mostly wrong;
We must think freshly, building as we go
Our new beliefs on proven truths we know,
Not on your ancient saws!

Because of you the young mind of to-day
Is a dark place where lies and follies throng;
Old lies, old follies, long since thrown away
But for our foolish reverence for buried brain,
The dead hand holding all the world in chain—
How long, Old Man, how long?

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

"THE WORLD IN CHICAGO"



SINGING KAFFIR BOYS

One scene in the great religious pageant which showed Indians and Hindus, Eskimos and Zulus, Chinese and Turks—peoples of all lands living, speaking, praying, singing, sacrificing, working.

Not since the World's Fair of twenty years ago has so much of the world gathered together at Chicago as at the great missionary exposition and pageant of May 3 to June 7. This time it came in costume and color, in house and hut, in temple and shrine, in street scene and pilgrimage, in picture and model, in exhibit placard and moving picture, in tableaux vivants and impressive pageant, in descriptive speech and interpreting, inspiring music. It took 20,000 participants from the churches, who gave their time and met their own traveling expenses, to impersonate the peoples of the world at their play and worship, at their weddings and funerals, in their triumphs and griefs, at work and at rest, in their spiritual darkness, yet ever coming into the light—Indians and Hindus, Eskimos and Zulus, Chinese and Turks—peoples of all lands in living, speaking, praying, singing, sacrificing, working attitudes of human life.

That so many thousands volunteered to do this; that for five weeks every afternoon and evening, six days a week, the Coliseum and Auditorium, the two largest and most expensive places of assembly in Chicago were required for the exhibits and pageants and the nearly half million people attracted by them; that a guarantee fund of $100,000 was put up by 400 people to warrant a daily outlay of $6,000—these facts of the mere massing of means and people at these two focal points arrested the attention of Chicago as nothing within its boundaries has ever done, except the World's Fair.

From London, through Boston, Cincinnati and Baltimore, this missionary "world" rolled in upon Chicago. Its managers, and those who took the principal parts in song and act and speech, had perfected technique in the other cities, but found their greatest facilities and met their greatest response in Chicago. British art and thoroughness, devoutness and cosmopolitanism were impressed upon the original inception and design, plan and purpose of both exposition and pageant. American originality, versatility, sympathy and spirit characterized every feature of the reproduction so that it was an American interpretation of the world's life, an American version of the greatest drama—the emergence of the peoples out of darkness into light.

Perhaps the point of contact between America and the world's other lands and people, between religion and humanity—the point at which the whole great affair was invested with the magic of a human interest story—was the stirring tableau representing immigrants pouring in from all lands through the national gateway at Ellis



STREET SCENE IN JERUSALEM

The visitor was brushed by the costumes of the East, ran across the potter's wheel, stopped before the oriental shop, walked through the city gate of Jerusalem.

Island. Maps of the world's two hemispheres were the background of the scene and around the government inspector immigrant families were grouped, trying each in its own way to comply with his tests of health, money, character, children and the prospects of meeting friends and getting work. A little way off was a prairie schooner on its way West, bearing the motto of the earlier pioneers, "Pike's Peak or bust." The Indian trading-post, the Mormon colony, the frontier missionary and schoolmaster, railway construction camps, the farming frontier, the city shop and slum traced the westward-flowing streams of human life through all their experiences across the continent. In the midst of this tumultuous life appeared the school house and the church, the circuit rider and the home missionary pastor, Negro jubilee singers and revivalists, the city mission and the evangelist, the playground and the boys' and girls' club, the Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations and the Travelers' Aid, and across the city's frontier-in-the-rear, the social settlements. Every way that life turned, religion was seen lifting upon it in some way.

In the foreign section the visitor passed through the streets of Jerusalem or Damascus, brushed by the costumes worn there, ran across the potter's wheel, stopped before the oriental shop, walked through the city gate. White-robed Hindus flitted by. Turkish women were seen under the hard lot of their grinding toil and their living death in the harem. Outcast lepers stood in forlorn contrast over against the model of a leper colony. Sick and suffering human beings, persecuted by witch doctors, medicine men and priestly incantations, drew the contrast with medical missions, their nurses and surgeons, their hospitals and convalescent homes.

It was in the pageant at the Auditorium that all these contrasts were drawn with high dramatic skill and musical effect. "Darkness and Light" fell vividly upon the scenes of four episodes. The episode of the North displayed the triumph of the missionaries over the medicine man among the American Indians, whose chief lifts skyward the Book with the message of peace and love. The episode of the South centered its tragedy of the slave raider and his victims around the heroic figure of David Livingstone. There he stood in the very human flesh and red blood in which he sought to heal "the open sore of the world." There he was seen again "going about doing good" when Stanley found him—and left him, refusing to leave his unfinished work though homesick to return with his discoverer. The tragedy of child widowhood culminated in the episode of the East in the rescue of the last victim of the Suttee from the flames of her husband's funeral pyre, by the edict of the British empire. The episode of the West furnished the stupendous climax in dispelling the sway of the vengeful goddess of the volcano and the priests of Peleé by the Christian Queen Kapiolani's interposition in saving a young bridegroom and a little child from being thrown into a fiery crater to expiate the wrath of the goddess.

The final episode brought together in imposing processional effect, with palms of victory in their hands, marching to the triumphant music of the great chorus and orchestra, all who had taken part in the scenes at the four points of the compass. It was the dramatization of the vision of the seer of Patmos when he beheld the great multitude, which no man could number, of all nations and kindreds and people and tongues, coming up to stand before the throne and before the Lamb, clothed with white robes and palms in their hands, while the mighty chorus sang:

> "From North and South and East and West
> They come!
> They come—the victors in the fight,
> They come—the blind restored to sight,
> From deepest darkness into light;
> They come!
> In a holy exultation,
> With the sound of jubilation,
> They come, they come!"

In Chicago as in London, where this Pageant of Darkness and Light was first presented in 1908, "it was a revelation to many of the power and progress of Christian missions in the reconstruction of the civilization of the world." Those who expected to see or hear nothing except the effort to get men and women to give up one kind of religion and take up another, actually saw and heard nothing but what was for the human interest of every man, woman and child in every land.

The social significance of this remarkable event is seen in these most far-reaching and abiding results: in the minds of auditors and spectators, as in the facts from the field, the



SHEIK'S WIFE APPEALING TO DAVID LIVINGSTONE

The episode of the South in the pageant centered it s tragedy of the slave raider and his victims around the heroic figure of David Livingstone. "There he stood, i n the very human flesh and red blood in which he sought to heal 'the open sore of the world.'"

humanizing of religion was set forward by demonstrating the identity between missions and all the movements for human progress; the comity and co-operation of many denominations having very divisive differences in creed, ritual and government, was demonstrated to be practicable only on their community of interests in the human service they are all trying to render. As many as 550 churches of 22 denominations took part. A co-operative unity is the one and only hope for a reunited Protestantism.

The revival of pageantry in religion was one of the avowed purposes of the missionary education movement of the United States and Canada,[1] under the auspices of which the exposition and pageant were held.

"The missionary movement recognizes the value of the dramatic element in religious education and undertakes to co-operate with those desiring to secure full benefits from its use. Those interested in its form of religious education should seek to acquaint themselves with those principles which scientifically relate the use of the dramatic instinct to other educational processes. Unless the work of preparation and presentation be regulated in this way, the method will not only fail to yield satisfactory results, but much harm may be done. Only those productions molded by the dramatic spirit will be published by the Missionary Education Movement, which are especially calculated to serve the purposes of religious education."

Strictly in consonance with this, an English musician of note, Hamish McCunn, was engaged to compose the music and John Oxenham, a well-known English author, wrote the text. The type of a new, dignified, devout and impressive effort to revive the visualizing and dramatizing of religion's appeal to the eye and the imagination, has thus been set and standardized, so that

[1]Four Epochs of World Conquest. Oliver Huckel. Missionary Education Movement, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.



"FROM NORTH AND SOUTH AND EAST AND WEST THEY COME."
Immigrant families at Ellis Island trying each in its own way to meet the tests of health, money and character which are the open sesame to the New World. One of the booths at the exposition.

it is sure to be followed, perhaps on a wider and higher scale than ever before in the history of the church. For nine months the singers, ushers, explainers, and participants came together in their respective groups under their stewards, to study and practise the song and story of the life of many lands. Both the religious spirit and the dramatic art are to be congratulated upon the removal of so much of the barrier which has so long divorced them and upon the restoration of that reciprocity which will surely promote the highest purposes of each.

"The World in Chicago" is a proposition, the corollary of which is Chicago in the world. And this is as true of the church everywhere as of the city anywhere. For only as the world rolls in upon the heart and conscience of the church, through the eye and ear, the touch and vision of its members, will the church obey the mandate of its Master, "Go ye into all the world."

MEN AND RELIGION TEAM IN CHINA

Y. Y. TSU
ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY, SHANGHAI

At Shanghai last February a Men and Religion team, with Fred B. Smith as leader and Raymond Robins as social service expert, put in a busy week on their way from America to Australia. Everywhere they were warmly received.

Their first meeting was for ladies in the Martyrs' Memorial Hall of the Y. M. C. A. Mr. Robins, who addressed the meeting, said that he was always eager for the women's meetings, for the women play a dominant part in social life; we are living in a social age for which social service and a Christian program are needed. The same message was presented by both Mr. Smith and Mr. Robins at the American University Club. They showed the splendid opportunity of university men to engage in the solution of the new problems of the city and of modern civilization. The urban movement has begun in China. With it have come influences which are putting the life of the nations and their institutions to severe test. Christianity, it seemed to the speakers, is able to fight and win the battle against the evil influences of modern life.



ASTOR HOUSE, SHANGHAI
Here Fred B. Smith and Raymond Robins delivered the Men and Religion message in China.

The result of the visit of the Men and Religion team has been a quickening of social conscience, the appreciation of the urgency of city problems, the value of concerted action in social reforms, and the responsibility of Christian manhood in social service.



THE ADOBE HOUSE, SANTA BARBARA, CAL.

The main club building of the Santa Barbara Neighborhood House provides not only a recreation center but its use as such has preserved an old landmark built in 1786, the house of the well known Spanish family of Arreraneo.

CIVICS

NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSE AT SANTA BARBARA, CAL.

MARGARET BAYLOR
SUPERINTENDENT NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSE

[*Since this article was written, Santa Barbara has gone "dry," to take effect August 1. This affects somewhat, so far as the future is concerned, the statement that for many years the city offered no form of civic amusement save "cheap dances, numberless saloons and moving-picture shows."*

Neighborhood House has also recently added to its present activities an open-air dance floor which is attracting considerable attention along the coast.

But most important of all, Santa Barbara has received a gift representing in cash about $50,000 for a civic center, recreation hall and auditorium. The activities of Neighborhood House will be transferred to the new building which will also house the Natural History Society. The center is to be for adult work exclusively. The present site of Neighborhood House will still be used as a playground for children and a club for younger boys and girls.—Ed.]

Tucked away far to the south on the California coast, surrounded by a wall of mountains, canopied by blue skies, and with the white curling waves of the Pacific unceasingly lapping her shores lies Santa Barbara, known to the tourist as "nature's playground."

In the midst of so much beauty and leisure the question comes to the idle mind, "What need is there here for the social workers, with their efforts for bettering civic and social conditions? Have not its people, rich and poor alike, the advantage of a wonderful climate, the sun, blue skies and sea, the beauty of nature the year round?"

This is true, yet Santa Barbara, aside from her tourist and resident class of wealth, has a population of those of moderate means and a large number of Spanish and Mexican families, among whom there is real poverty. As a natural consequence of her tourist element, she has, beside her own young people, strangers, brought from all over the country, as employes at the hotels, in the shops and laundries.

To these for many years the city offered no form of civic amusement save cheap dances, numberless saloons and moving-picture shows. The Boys' Club organized in 1907 was the first effort made to meet the need for wholesome recreation. In one year the club outgrew the two small rooms originally occupied, and the need was recognized for a more complete center, to include children and adults of both sexes.

It was at this time that Neighborhood House Association was formed and new quarters were

secured adjoining a city park which had been equipped for a children's vacation playground by the Woman's Club. Later it was transferred to Neighborhood House Association. In 1910 pressing demands for still larger quarters resulted in abandoning the former club house and playground and reestablishing the entire work on the present site in Spanish Town. The main club house and grounds have not only provided an ideal recreation center, but have preserved one of the old and valuable landmarks of the coast, "The Adobe House," originally owned by the well known Spanish family of Arrelaneo and built in 1786, the same year as was the historic Santa Barbara Mission.

Standing in the midst of several acres of land, Neighborhood House affords all the name implies—a social, civic and educational center. The work includes playground activities for children and young people; an extensive baseball field for men and boys; the men's club house containing reading room, bowling alleys, showers, pool and billiard tables; the main club house with well equipped rooms for social clubs, entertainments, dramatics, music, lectures, and industrial classes, and a dental clinic for school children.

The entire plan is based on self-government. Leaders of clubs and classes are required to instill the sense of ownership and responsibility. The order and discipline found where no set rules are apparent is due to the fact that "Nothing without labor" is the slogan. The good condition of the playground is credited to the children who clean it almost daily after school hours. The boys attend to the irrigation of shrubs and plants in addition to many other duties, including care of bowling alleys and general club property. The girls have a corresponding share of duties in their own departments.

The activities of the association are not confined within the picturesque "adobe," but extend throughout the city. The bath house, for ocean bathing, is very popular. During the vacation months it is used by the children under the care of a matron and a swimming instructor and through the winter by students in the High School and the State Normal Training School. Some sixty or seventy of the Normal students help at the house and are given credits for practice work and instruction in social service.

A constant demand from the young people about town for recreation resulted in an investigation of pleasure resorts open to the general public—and Neighborhood House found that it was confronted with the serious problem of the dance halls. Though few in number, all had the objectionable features found in halls of larger cities. Not wishing to condemn them before offering a substitute, the association secured the most popular hall and orchestra, and opened a public dance, charging the regular admission fee and closing at midnight. Minors under sixteen were barred, exchange checks were not issued, and vulgar dance positions or freak steps were forbidden. A police officer at the entrance protected patrons from any intrusion from the street, and a woman floor director (the superintendent of Neighborhood House), saw to it that the regulations were observed. This model dance, run on a business basis, appealed to the public and drew the crowd in spite of so-called "stiff regulations." In consequence, the cheaper halls closed. Its success led to the passage of a city ordinance regulating all public dances. The working out of the plan showed clearly that while the methods of meeting the problems of a small place may differ from the methods used in a large city, the problems are identical.

We are apt to think that there is not great need for social centers in small towns or cities. But Neighborhood House, from the fruits of her experience, would make a plea for civic centers in the smaller communities—places where all may meet upon a common ground, and through friendly co-operation work together for the welfare of the city and all its citizens.

ROUSING HARTFORD TO HOUSING EVILS

DOTHA BUSHNELL HILLYER
President Civic Club, Hartford

Ten families of recent immigrants with their respective lodgers quartered in a fine old mansion that had once sheltered a family whose ancestors in some cases had come over in the Mayflower; the evils of overcrowding together with the dangers of primitive yard closets and antiquated plumbing; the almost complete lack of fire escapes; basement and cellar tenements; dark rooms and halls; and filthy yards which seemed to spring into being over night—these were some of the conditions brought about by a rapid influx of foreigners, which some years ago made the Civic Club of Hartford, Conn., realize the pressing need of tenement-house reform. At that time neither the general public nor the city officials had grasped the situation.

In 1911 a law was passed by the Legislature giving specific powers to the Board of Health to deal with these menacing conditions. The Civic Club decided that the officials could do effective work only if backed by strong public opinion. Burdened with many duties the board had failed to keep adequate reports, and the true conditions were probably unknown to anyone in Hartford. Lawrence Veiller of the National Housing Association was consulted. As a first step he advised a thorough investigation for which Mary E. Heilman was engaged. Her reports proved to the Civic Club that matters were even worse than had been supposed. The time had come for decisive action. Miss Heilman's reports were submitted to the social service committee of the Men and Religion Movement and their co-operation was requested. Raymond Robins, with characteristic enthusiasm, awakened the men of Hartford to the urgent

need of their city. Committees were formed and their members were taken by Miss Heilman to visit some of the worst localities.

As the next step, the Civic Club and the social service committee brought evidence of deplorable conditions before the Board of Health. Specific cases of long duration were cited and the discussion which followed showed that the attention of the board had already been called to these facts.

Mayor Smith, who presided, asked for a few days to consider the best mode of procedure. He went with Miss Heilman to see various tenements and decided that only by a rigorous prosecution of flagrant offenders would the Board of Health be able to cope with the situation. The board lacked sufficient inspectors to cover the whole ground and so welcomed complaints sent in by Miss Heilman and the Center Church Tenement House Committee.

One of the worst slum centers was a well-known block that for years had menaced the public health. Here were housed eighty to ninety families of about 500 persons. Forty of these families used a yard vault flushed at irregular intervals by roof drippings and sink refuse. The others used cellar closets, antiquated and out of repair. These conditions had long been notorious because a little girl had been drowned in the vault in 1890.

The Board of Health ordered complete new plumbing installed by July, 1912. The story of the drowned child was reprinted to show the need of speedy reform. A little work was done but the owners were continually asking for an extension of time. In January, 1913, conditions were practically unchanged. It was only through constant agitation and the unwearied efforts of a newspaper reporter in keeping the matter before the public that the case was at last put in the hands of the prosecuting attorney. The owners immediately let the contract and the plumbing is now under way.

This was an extreme case. Other landlords were willing to co-operate and to improve their property, as is shown by the fact that only twelve cases had to be carried to court.

The report of the Hartford Board of Health for the year ending December 31, 1912, states that all but fifty-five yard closets have been removed. Of these fifty-five only ten are on streets with sewers and these will be gone by the end of 1913. Besides this 1493 old toilets have been replaced by new ones and 127 dark rooms have been provided with light and ventilation.

Cellars, yards and halls have profited by this wave of reform. "Clean-up week" was inaugurated in April, 1912. It implanted a desire for cleanliness where it had never been felt before and set a standard which is daily evidenced by tidier yards and buildings.

All this seems to prove that the first step in tenement house reform is to make a thorough and systematic investigation. Next, to lay the facts before the people and arouse public opinion. Lastly, public enthusiasm must not be allowed to die down until the necessary reforms have been accomplished. This was the hardest part for it took untiring effort to keep the public and the authorities alive to the importance of the situation.



THIS HELPED TO ROUSE HARTFORD

The view looks like New York or Boston but represents a scene in the heart of Hartford. If the picture was complete it would show twenty-three yard compartments which serve forty families. The yard closets cut off most of the light from the first floor tenements. There are no fire escapes on these four story buildings.

In the current year's report of the Board of Health the superintendent says: "the public sentiment in favor of the enforcement of the law has made our work relatively easy, and in but twelve cases has it been necessary to prosecute. In each case taken to the courts the law has been sustained. It would, however, have been impossible to accomplish what has been done without the aid which has been given us by individuals and organizations which are interested in the work."

DANCING AWAY CARE AND TAXES

To support the entire park system of Cleveland by dance hall tickets instead of taxes is the new plan broached by the city park department. A. J. Sindelar, secretary of the department, has just completed a study of municipal dance halls. In his report he estimates that one large dance pavilion operating in each of the five principal city parks at three cents a dance would yield the city a clear net earning of $300,000 a year.

This would mean that the $200,000 required to operate the entire park department would all be danced into the tills on three-cent tickets, doing away with the necessity for drawing upon taxation, and a surplus of $100,000 a year would be left to take care of improvements now covered by bond issues. Cleveland's extensive system of parks would be made self-supporting.

Mr. Sindelar's estimate is based on the operation of dance halls all year round, and on floors measuring at least 100 by 125 feet. The first move in carrying out the plan will be to recommend the erection of such dance halls at the two large lake front breathing spots, Edgewater and Gordon Parks.

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DO YOU know how your dividends are made, Mr. Small Investor? Some of your fellows think that you and they should feel more responsibility and act upon it. An "Investor's League" is one suggestion. A "white list" of securities is another. P. 547.

A SCHOOL for scrubbers. How the efficient workers can be made from those who "can do anything." P. 546.

CHARITY begins at home—and sometimes the best of it in the home of the poor. A wan-faced mother takes into her own steamy kitchen a destitute friend's washing, but it does not figure in the "annual report." P. 545.

COSTLY hovels and cheap homes were discovered in Cleveland's housing investigation. Rents for decent homes in the outskirts are actually less than for miserable shacks nearer downtown. And an insanitary hovel sometimes means a cost of $1,000 when quarantine officers have to guard it. P. 538.

PHILADELPHIA'S week at the University of Wisconsin not only gave big new ideas to a representative body of men, including the mayor, from the eastern city; it showed Wisconsin's legislature the importance of supporting the university's program for the state. P. 540.

JACOB RIIS once wrote, "The heart and the wise head of New York are here," in the guest book at Nurses' Settlement on Henry Street where Lillian D. Wald has now finished twenty years of service. He writes again, this time for THE SURVEY, of what she has meant to the East Side. P. 551.

THE right job for a convalescent means much for his complete and safe recovery. Four of New York's great hospitals are now trying to solve the problem of after care for those whose hearts—physiologically speaking—have been affected and are getting well. P. 541.

POTLATCH has not much to do with sociology, but they jostled each other in Birmingham, Alabama, recently. If this is not entirely clear, you will have to read the story. P. 542.

FROM the presidency of City College, New York, with its students drawn chiefly from the swarms of immigrant boys, John H. Finley has been drafted to serve as New York's state commissioner of education. P. 550.

WILL the contents of the pay envelope fill the market basket? Hard enough problem for anyone these days. But how does it confront the average worker in a typical manufacturing city? P. 544.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

GRAHAM TAYLOR — JANE ADDAMS

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Copies of The Survey for May 3, with the reproduction of Miss Eberle's "White Slave" on the cover and various articles on related subjects within, will be sent postpaid at these prices:

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THE COMMON WELFARE

FAST CHANGING FACE OF THE RAILWAY TANGLE

Developments came thick and fast last week in the controversy between the railroads and the trainmen. On Saturday, July 12, the stage was set for a strike. The members of the trainmen's and conductors' orders had voted by an overwhelming majority to stop work if the railroads did not accede to their wage demands. The so-called Committee of One Thousand had met in New York and ratified this decision so that the whole matter fell into the hands of two men, W. G. Lee and A. B. Garretson, chiefs, respectively, of the Order of Railway Conductors and the Order of Railway Trainmen. A word from these two would have called out the men and stopped the trains in the entire eastern district with its thirty-eight millions of people.

So rapidly did these developments take place that the first of the week following saw the danger apparently over.

On July 14, at the White House on the invitation of President Wilson, a conference of railway presidents, brotherhood chiefs and members of Congress was held to consider the Newlands bill amending the Erdman act, then pending in the Senate.[1] Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, one of President Wilson's appointees on the new Federal Industrial Relations Commission, is credited with bringing about the conference. As a result of this conference, the bill was rushed through both houses on July 15 and signed by the President. Thus in record-breaking time the machinery of arbitration that had been agreed upon and asked for by both railway managers and men had been provided by the government. This bill, it will be remembered, provided for a board of mediation and conciliation, independent of any other government department, to consist of a commissioner and an assistant commissioner and two other government officers to be named by the President.

On July 17, President Wilson announced his appointments to this board. William Lea Chambers is to be the first commissioner of mediation under the new act. G. W. W. Hanger is named as assistant commissioner, and the two other government officers who will sit with the commissioner as the board of mediation are Louis F. Post, assistant secretary of labor, and Martin A. Knapp, chief justice of the Commerce Court.

Mr. Chambers was chairman of the arbitration board in the late controversy between the railroads and the firemen. From 1897 to 1901 he was chief justice of the International Court of Samoa and from 1901 to 1910 a member of the Spanish Treaty Claims Commission.

Mr. Hanger, the assistant commissioner, has been for a number of years chief statistician of the Bureau of Labor, and during the last three or four years, when Commissioner Charles P. Neill has been so frequently absent from the bureau in pursuit of his duties as mediator under the old Erdman act, Mr. Hanger has served as acting commissioner of labor.

Mr. Post is widely known for his trenchant writings during his long service as editor of the Chicago *Public*, the leading single-tax publication of the United States.

Judge Knapp, who, prior to being appointed chief justice of the Commerce Court, was for years chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, served with Commissioner Neill as a mediator under the old Erdman Act.

It was reasonable to expect that the passage of this amendment in exactly the form desired by both railroad managers and employes would end all danger of a strike. But on July 14 the managers announced their willingness to arbitrate not only the demands of the brotherhoods but *all* matters concerning wages and conditions of employment. Later they amplified this proposal by submitting to the brotherhood chiefs a list of eight changes which they proposed to the contracts now existing, involving questions of over-time pay, the relation of wage schedule to runs, and the modification of contracts where full crew bills have gone into effect.

The brotherhood chiefs rejected the proposals and refused to submit them to arbitration. They claim that it is a proposition to reduce wages 20 per cent, that all such propositions under their contracts called for thirty days' notice and that it is a breach of good faith to propose at this juncture to submit these matters to arbitration when the agreement to arbitrate was made solely on the basis of the demands of the employes which had gone through the regular channels. It is intimated that if these demands had been before them prior to the conference of July 14 the brotherhoods would not have entered that conference or urged the passage of the Newlands bill. The railroad chiefs express themselves so positively that as this is written there seems danger of a strike if the railroads persist in submitting their propositions to arbitration.

[1] See THE SURVEY for June 28, 1913, Page 429.



BEFORE—

408 St. Clair Avenue. Six rooms, each used for light housekeeping, all as unkempt and dilapidated as the exterior. The rent for the whole house was $16 a month, but often as not it could not be collected.

COSTLY HOVELS CHEAP HOMES

It costs less to be comfortable than it does to be uncomfortable. A good home is less expensive than a poor one. Health and cleanliness come cheap. Dirt and disease are more costly than frankincense and myrrh.

Such are the conclusions of a "dollars and cents investigation" in Cleveland which the bureau of sanitation of the Board of Health is now completing. Two sections of the city were studied. One contains the notorious "Haymarket" district in the grimy heart of the city; the other is a pleasant open section with plenty of fresh air and elbow room. The first, viewed from an aeroplane, would present an almost unbroken array of shacks like long rows of coffins draped in soot. The other, though by no means a "Spotless Town," is a newer section where laboring men live in very small but comfortable homes with tiny, well-kept lawns in front.

Fourteen college investigators under Mildred Chadsey of the bureau of sanitation have been going after the facts in both sections. They show that it costs more to occupy hovels than homes. The rent per room is more in the poorer than in the better section.

Here are the figures, boiled down from the reports of 1,569 houses in the poorer section and 2,355 in the better. The rent for one room is $3.50 in the slum district as against $3.46 in the section of real homes; for two rooms, $4.96 as against $4.67; for three rooms, $6.73 as against $6.60; for four rooms, $8.87 as against $8.85; for five rooms, $11.41 as against $10.83; for more than five rooms, $14.23 as against $14.83. In every case, except the last, it is cheaper, so far as rent is concerned, to live in a little home with trees and a garden in front and a yard behind than to live in the dirty, slovenly, cramped quarters of the Haymarket.

A study of industries revealed that the opportunities for work are about the same in the two sections. Both are bordered by large factories. If there is any difference, it is that the factories in the outlying section experience more difficulty in getting help and hence offer a greater demand for workmen than the factories nearer the center of the city. It seems to be the old desire to live near friends and fellow countrymen rather than any real economic necessity that causes multitudes to crowd near the brightly-lighted main streets of the city instead of living in the more quiet, open community of small houses.

The cost to the city of bad housing conditions is being brought out in such sharp relief that it will not readily be forgotten. In one ancient wooden dwelling, for instance, fourteen families live. They all use the same water faucet in the yard and the same sewer vault. Recently measles entered this old house and spread from family to family until it became a veritable epidemic. Right on the heels of this came an epidemic of diphtheria which was followed by scarlet fever. For six months the house was kept in quarantine, with two sanitary officers constantly on duty at a salary expense to the city of $1,000.

Such are the serious financial penalties for civic thoughtlessness—not to speak of serious moral and social penalties—that the investigation is bringing to light. The two sections are being compared as to morbidity and mortality rates,

—AFTER

Premises all cleaned up and renting for $20 a month. The Cleveland housing investigation showed that well-kept property brings landlords more rent and that good houses cost tenants less than poor ones.



tuberculosis, juvenile delinquency and crime. The results will be tabulated in "cost charts" and placed in a permanent health exhibit in the City Hall.

CITY OFFICIALS GO TO SCHOOL AGAIN

Early in the summer the city of Philadelphia went to school for a week at the University of Wisconsin—that is, the city insofar as it is represented by the mayor, two city departments, the chief of an important municipal bureau, members of the Chamber of Commerce and other trade organizations and industrial enterprises, the Public Education Association, the Philadelphia Progressive League, the superintendent of education, representatives of the University of Pennsylvania and of more than a dozen other universities and technical schools, of several civic associations and correspondents of five Philadelphia newspapers.

The expedition, known as the City Club of Philadelphia's Wisconsin Expedition, was organized under the auspices of that club in co-operation with the city administration. The Wisconsin system of public education was the main object of study, as a model by which to readjust the system of Pennsylvania, whose institutions instead of co-operating are competing with each other, and are not properly equipped to answer the questions which the new social consciousness of Pennsylvania is asking.

The association of the teaching force through the state with the governments of the state and cities was thought to be necessary to the solution of the state's educational problem. So, too, was the association of civic organizations with the educational work of the state, so the expedition included many besides educators. There were one hundred and twenty persons in the party when it reached Madison, over one hundred of them representing Philadelphia organizations. The object of their study was to learn from Wisconsin how to secure the co-operation of Pennsylvania educational forces to the end of attaining efficiency in politics, industry and community life; to create a community demand for such education and for teaching along social lines, and to associate local governments in co-operation with educators.

A committee of reception and guidance from the university met the expedition on arrival; the citizens of Madison organized a hospitality committee and furnished the means of local transportation. The college fraternity houses opened their doors and men prominent in the political, social, and business life of Wisconsin came from distant towns or from places nearby to assist in the program prepared by the university. The governor was conspicuous for the generous aid he rendered, not only to the hospitality committee but to the university's program, at the Saturday luncheon when the Tax Commission, Public Utilities Commission, Industrial Commission, and the State Affairs Board, in fact, all the principal Wisconsin institutions were discussed. Other contributors to this discussion were Halford Erickson, John R. Commons, Thomas S. Adams, Charles McCarthy and Senator Hatton.

From the governor's reception in the state capitol on the first day to the faculty dinner on

the last, the endeavor of every meeting was to bring out the main phases of the "Wisconsin idea." Extension teaching was one of the early topics and the interest stirred by Louis E. Reber, dean of this division of the university, was so keen as to threaten demoralization of the program by the volley of questions he called forth. Included in one session's program of study were: instruction by correspondence; instruction of artisans and apprentices in their shops, their homes, or local places of meeting; training of business men and clerks; teaching of boys between fourteen and sixteen years of age; education in citizenship; the traveling package libraries on present-day problems for the village community; municipal reference bureau; the social center and the wider use of public buildings; the health bureau; the community-week institute; promotion of public welfare through co-operation with private organizations; extension lectures and entertainments and the standard of public opinion and appreciation.

The address of Mayor Williams of Madison has been distorted by the newspapers out of its context and away from its plain and simple meaning. Far from casting any reflection upon Philadelphia, it was a review of past unhappy conditions and a past reactionary spirit in the light of present conditions full of promise and progress.

It is impossible to give the program offered by the university in detail. Its highest point was touched in the review of the Wisconsin educational idea by President Van Hise.

THE EXPEDITION NOT A JUNKET

The Philadelphia expedition arrived in Wisconsin at a time when the university's appropriation was under fire from the opposition and its arrival led to a humorous incident. One of the opposition approached a member of the City Club's party and delivered himself thus: "We understand perfectly well that this expedition is not a Philadelphia expedition at all. It has been organized and is being paid for by the University of Wisconsin." When the person addressed protested that the City Club's expedition was composed of distinguished citizens each paying his own way; that all had come more than one thousand miles at a total cost of some eight thousand dollars; that the initiative was wholly from Philadelphia, and that the first step toward organizing the expedition had been taken by the City Club nearly a year ago, the member of the opposition replied: "It seems strange that you have arrived here at the psychological moment and your coming has greatly aided the university's program in the Legislature."

On its return the expedition met, seventy-five strong, to hear reports from its various committees and to take action with reference to a proposed program through which could be put into effect the inspiration gathered at Madison. An executive committee consisting of the president of the Public Education Association, the director of public works, the secretary of the City Club, a member of the executive council of the Board of Trade, and the secretary of the Public Education Association (James S. Hiatt, who is also secretary of this committee), has been authorized to outline this program. As at present planned the work will proceed into two general directions: first, the co-ordination of the greater institutions of learning in Pennsylvania which are already committed to the newer scheme of popular education, or are willing to be committed to it, and their active association both in preparing a scheme of popular education and a program for its embodiment; second, the creation of a community demand in Pennsylvania for just this sort of education.

The expedition will meet from time to time. It has detached itself from every association and stands now upon its work with a vigor and freshness that would be quite impossible to it were it allied with any existing society.

THE GIST OF THE WISCONSIN IDEA

Meanwhile the ultimate educational aim implanted in the minds of the expedition members by the Wisconsin trip was so well expressed in the address of President Van Hise as to bear repeating. Said the president of Wisconsin University:

"I only wish to indicate to you the underlying ideas which led us to the movement. The first of these was the slowly dawning realization that knowledge had far outrun the assimilation of the people. There have been greater advances in knowledge during the last sixty years than there were in two thousand years before that time. In a large measure this knowledge is not utilized by the people. We know enough about agriculture so that the agricultural production of the country could be doubled if the knowledge were applied. We know enough about diseases so that if that knowledge were utilized, infectious and contagious diseases would be substantially destroyed in the United States, and that within a score of years. We know enough about eugenics so that if that knowledge were applied, the defective classes would disappear within a generation. Similarly, in other fields, our knowledge has expanded far beyond its utilization.

"It may be said that this new situation should be dealt with by introducing the new knowledge into the schools and thus training the children to apply it. But much of the advance has been accomplished during the past fifteen or twenty years, since men who are still in active life left the schools—men who have from twenty-five to fifty years to live. If the teaching of new knowl-

edge were confined to the rising generation, the same situation would obtain fifteen or twenty years hence. Therefore, if we expect new knowledge to be applied at any time to the then existing stage of development, it must be carried out to the people. Adults must continue their education through life.

"This has been one of the underlying purposes of the broad extension movement in Wisconsin. We do not see how it demeans our university to do work for the advancement of the people simply because it has not been tradition for a university to undertake such work.

"One other idea is fundamental in our extension work, and that is to find a way for the boy or girl of parts whatever the conditions of birth. You well know that all of the intellect of Philadelphia is not born in the aristocratic circle. You well know that where your factories are, in the congested quarters, there is just as likely to be a boy or girl of parts born as in the homes of the wealthy. The late Lester F. Ward has proved this in a book of some two hundred pages; but it is no more than the poet Gray saw a hundred and fifty years ago—that in the country churchyard may lie a 'mute, inglorious Milton.'

"We in the state of Wisconsin wish to create a situation in which mute, inglorious Miltons shall become an impossibility. The greatest waste of this nation is its waste of talent. If we could only fully utilize our talent, there would be no limit to our progress. No one could forecast its speed.

"Wealth is not equally distributed among us. Some are more fortunate in this respect than others. It has been proposed by many that we divide wealth equally and start anew. However, that proposal has not met the approval of the larger number of the people. What we own seems to me a relatively immaterial thing. The richest man is not always the happiest. Democracy does not depend upon the horizontal distribution of wealth. It does, however, depend upon opportunity. And if the time shall arise in this country, in this twentieth century, in this new situation with recognized limitation of our natural resources, that the boy or girl of parts shall be unable to find a way, then we shall have lost democracy.

"It is, then, the second great fundamental aim of the university extension movement to forever retain in this commonwealth the essentials of democracy. To do this the opportunities of our boys and girls of parts to obtain an education broad and complete, fitted to the demands of the present time, must be provided."

CARE AND TRAINING FOR CARDIAC CONVALESCENTS

The blind, the deaf and dumb, and the crippled have been recognized for more than a generation as potential wage-earners and their handicaps successfully met by special systems of education. The tubercular patient, the contagious nature of whose disease doubles his handicap, still remains a problem. Of recent years Dr. Herbert J. Hall at his sanatorium at Marblehead, Mass., has developed training in special trades suited to convalescent neurasthenics, and his system will probably be installed in connection with the social service work of the Massachusetts General Hospital.

Hospital social service work has recently brought to light another group of convalescents whose after-care means pre-eminently the finding of the right job. Four of the great city hospitals in New York—Bellevue, Gouverneur, Fordham and Harlem—now recognize dismissed cardiac cases as among their greatest problems.

For years Dr. Warren Coleman of Bellevue, whose record in the years 1911 and 1912 was 2,700 cardiac cases, has been trying single-handed to find a solution of the problem of proper employment for dismissed cases. A husky drayman or a longshoreman exposed to all sorts of weather, a piano mover overheated from his work—men such as these fall victims to inflammatory rheumatism. This attacks the heart. The hospital carries them over the crisis and dismisses them with weakened hearts, to go back to work which has become suicidal.

But what else can unskilled labor do but the work it knows?

These patients, furthermore, have no opportunities even for such convalescence as other patients get, for almost no convalescent homes will take cardiacs on account of exaggerated fears of relapse and death.

Hence it was that the social service committee of Gouverneur in a report to the New York Conference of Social Service said: "Of all the various problems of hospital social service which we have encountered during our two years of practical experience, the most baffling has been the problem of convalescent care for cardiac cases."

This report was the culmination of a determined effort of Gouverneur, Fordham and Harlem to get support in an experiment not only in convalescent care but in permanent rehabilitation of cardiacs by providing them with suitable employment. These three hospitals began to work on this problem about a year ago. On July 12, backed financially by the Winifred Burke Foundation for a short experimental period and with further backing for a period to follow from some of the hospital committees belonging to the Social Service Conference, an industrial convalescent home for cardiacs was opened at Sharon, Conn.

The three hospitals which originated the agitation had worked on their problem carefully for a year. Gouverneur had chosen and furnished the house which accommodates fifteen patients and made up the budget, necessarily larger than are the budgets of most convalescent homes, as

cardiac patients need more nursing and more waiting on than others. A house was chosen near a hospital as these patients need also a doctor within call. The period of convalescent care in such cases must be long, and it was estimated on the basis of from three to four months.

It is in this long convalescent period that the chance for industrial training comes. To the Harlem committee was left the study of suitable occupation and from Dr. Hall of Marblehead they learned that cement and tiling work was best adapted to delicate hearts and could be learned within the period of convalescence. A teacher was chosen who will introduce these trades at the Sharon home about the middle of August.

Those interested in the project realized that for the greatest success such industrial training as is planned should be applied to carefully chosen cases. Patients who have struggled to perform work too severe for them, who are sufficiently intelligent to learn new methods of physical application, who have sufficient tenacity of purpose to persist in a course medically advised, and who have not a rapidly progressive lesion, or severe complication, are obviously the ones most suitable for this training. The selection and supervision of these cases is directed by a medical board composed of Drs. Lewis A. Conner, Warren Coleman, N. Gilbert Seymour, Alexander Lambert and J. H. Huddleston.

The disposal of the product is the side of the problem on which the Fordham committee is working. It may be that a central salesroom for the product will be established, as in the case of some blind workers.

On the board of managers of the new home are: Dr. Lewis A. Conner, chairman, representing the New York Conference on Hospital Social Service; Dr. Frederick Brush and Frederick K. Denman, representing the Burke Foundation, and representatives of the committees of thirteen of the hospitals of Greater New York. The chairman of the Gouverneur committee, with which the idea may be said to have originated, is Dr. N. Gilbert Seymour.

POTLATCH *VS.* SOCIOLOGY

"Potlatch" and the State Sociological Congress, each the first of its kind in Alabama, contended for popularity the same week in Birmingham.

"Potlatch," ordained by the Chamber of Commerce, was a spring festival reviving an ancient practice of the Chickasaws and Choctaws, a semi-carnival akin to Mardi Gras, a general get-together meeting of all citizens. "Bait for all suckers," one too cynical business man called it, "great scheme to sell lots, to boost the stores along." It was named civic enterprise, cost thousands of dollars, and the amusement features drew crowds.

Said one of the speakers at the Sociological Congress, a young Birmingham lawyer and social worker, Isadore Shapiro, speaking against the sound of the brass bands:

"Human rights are grappling with property rights. This very day is witnessing the costly celebration of industrial welfare. They are rejoicing over pecuniary gain; we are decrying human loss. They herald the development of natural resources; we plead for the conservation of human resources."

The effects of the "Potlatch" on Birmingham were probably direct and measurable. But the great significance of the sociological conference lay in the fact that the social spirit of Alabama demanded such a conference. Its effects should be slow but steadily broadening.

"That a sociological congress was actually held here in Alabama—that's the main thing, the great thing, when you sum up all the circumstances," said a member of the Birmingham Association of Social Workers, the organization which issued the conference call.

Just how the city and the state would respond, no one dared venture. The workers in the movement could be counted on the fingers of one hand, and their purse was very lean indeed. The program had been painstakingly worked out. The Southern Sociological Congress was to convene soon after in the neighboring city of Atlanta, Ga., and social workers of national prominence were heading in that direction. This circumstance was, of course, a material advantage to the state congress of Alabama.

It enabled the program committee to muster in speakers far beyond the state's horizon. Alabama did not see Alabama alone. She saw the nation. And the glimpse of the wide horizon helped her to discover her own boundaries and to mark how they merge into those of the country at large. For Alabama's tether, through every stage of her history, has been individualism, denying her even a remote sense of unity with national issues and national work.

The range of the three days' program is shown by the titles of the sessions: the church and the industrial crisis; health and recreation; institutional relief; children; penology, and a final session on the new social conscience at which experts of national reputation told of progress along the lines of industrial insurance, housing reform and the treatment of the social evil.

One of the main facts brought out by the conference was that Alabama lacked the essential of intelligent work, statistics of birth or death. Of more particular lacks S. T. Slaton and B. Wyman of the State Tuberculosis Committee pointed out the need of a state tuberculosis sanatorium as the state, with its susceptible Negro population, has but four private sanatoriums.

The session on penology was of particular importance, and one which touched Alabama

problems so directly that it should be productive of tangible results in state prison reform. So much has been said of late about Alabama prisons, in and out of the state, that the public conscience is waking up. E. Stagg Whitin, secretary of the National Prison Labor Association, spoke of the situation as he saw it—and he was appalled by it. Judge W. H. Thomas of Montgomery urged that the selling of the convict to the highest bidder is a practice which should not be tolerated longer.

The duty of the state to men who have sinned was the subject of an address by Isadore Shapiro. He held that the prison system of Alabama deformed rather than reformed. As a substitute for the present system of simple imprisonment for a fixed term followed by discharge, he recommended efforts at reclamation during the prison term, separation of the single offender from the recidivist and of both from the congenital criminal. He held that a probation system is imperative for Alabama. Finally he demanded that the "damnable convict lease system which weds political corruption to human exploitation" be exterminated.

FINGER PRINTS

THE LITTLE TAILORESS

LEWIS NICHOLS

WHEN I met her first she was a girl of eighteen, an orphan, worikng at making vests for a village tailor. A siege of fever had left her round-shouldered and hollow-eyed, but with the hopefulness of advanced convalescence her face was full of animation and not without beauty.

She had had her dream. But her idol had feet of clay. For that matter, he was all clay, and poor stuff at that. A wife who could make vests was one thing—an invalid was another story and he quit.

But the little tailoress had given her heart, and life became unbearable where she had lived her long dream of happiness. She went away alone. In the great city she made vests for a fashionable tailor, plain ones for a dollar, and fancy ones for a dollar ten. From five in the morning till eleven at night her busy needle kept on with its monotonous toil, and her small account at the bank began to grow. Then the joy of life came to her in a new way.

There was a little deformed brother, too frail of body to do much on the lonely farm where he spent his childhood. He must be brought to the city and fitted for such work as he might do to earn a living. So her wounded heart found its first relief. Then there was a sister to whom she taught her own trade, and together they made it possible for still another brother to start fair.

Her home was in the factory district, and on summer evenings the girls who had worked all day in the biscuit factories must choose between the stuffy tenements and the street. Her work room was large and airy, why not invite them in? So they came, without the formality of knocking, for she was always at home in the corner under the gas light near the window. She could sew and talk, too, so the home of the little tailoress became a center of cheer.

So the winter passed. The spring found her tired and strangely disspirited. She went on with her work as before, but a sudden foreboding made her ask the girls one evening to go and have their pictures taken on the next half-holiday. "Let us all go," she cried. But the picture was never taken. That night she died.

She sleeps in a little garden plot on the hill, the spot marked by a plain head stone inscribed:

Mary Acroyd, Aged 35
Though lost to sight, to memory dear.

The girls in the biscuit factory put the stone there, and were you to pass it on Monday you would find the grave strewn with fresh flowers. It is their weekly tribute of affection. In the great city no name is held in more loving memory than that of the little sewing girl who cast her mite into the treasury—even all she had.

NINA FACES THE WORLD

MARY BROWN SUMNER

SHE was as pink and warm and soft and as confiding as a baby, her mellow Italian eyes peering out from under her dilapidated, fashionable squash hat. The waitress, seeing no tip coming from such a source, paid no attention to her request for another glass of water, so I pushed mine over to her. Nothing more was needed to get on intimate terms.

"She's a disagreeable old thing, isn't she? I wait in a restaurant too, in Childs, and I give satisfaction to the customers. I got 35 cents in tips one day. I'm off today. I'm so excited." She completed the soft smile that never quite left her lips, revealing white baby teeth far apart. "I get six a week now, and more, I think, later on, but I'm not sure. I've only been there three days—on pay, I mean; they make you work two weeks free to learn the prices. No, it doesn't take that long but they're awful independent. They can get all the girls they want. You pay 75 cents for your aprons and strings and collars there. You wash them yourself every two days, but you have them to keep.

"How I got in Childs was because we was all out of work at home. My father's weak and he can't do much. My mother wouldn't let me go to look for a job after I left the laundry.

She says I'm wild and thinks I make a date with every one I meet. My mother's dreadful, the things she says to you. But I don't answer back. I believe in respect to whom respect is due. Anyway, she'd throw anything she could get aholt of at you, if you answer back. She's having me watched now for fear I go out with the fellers at Childs.

"I was telling you how I got the job. I was out on an errand and I stopped in and asked the cash lady at Childs how I could get on as a waitress and she gave me car fare and sent me right down to the place. People's awful nice that way. One day I asked the way off a stylish lady on the street and she gave me car fare and made me take her address and told me to come and see her and she'd give me a grand time. My mother was awful mad about that, but I told her I lost the address. I didn't though, but I only wrote her a letter. I didn't never go to see her. Yes, I know it isn't safe.

"No, the work in Childs isn't too hard. I'm strong for my age. I'm sixteen. This is a cinch on the laundry. I worked there three years, starcher and hand ironer. Yes, I was only thirteen, but my mother put long clothes on me and they don't ask no questions. The first week the boss asked me what I wanted. Four-fifty looked awful big to me, so I said four. I got that for two years. Gee, they was awful hours, 7:30 to 9 every day but Monday and Saturday—up to 11 or 12 before holidays. I was getting seven when I left, and the boss offered me eight if I would stay.

"Yes, I was doing the same work as before. You see, it was this way: The forelady got friendly with me. I was a regular servant to her, running her errands, and she seemed to like me because I never got huffy, but was singing and laughing most of the time. She took me home with her and give me a good time, and she told me that the boss was doing me, so I asked him for seven and he gave it. I turned out a lot of work in that place. I didn't leave on account of the work. My mother didn't like for me to go with the forelady, and I had to keep on good terms with her or quit. She didn't live with her husband and she'd go around with any kind of a skate. My mother don't like people that paints and carries on, and she tells them so, so I had to quit. I could have a good time; you bet, they'd all take me out and pay for me, if she wasn't so fierce.

"Yes, I know she's right. It's awful unsafe to speak to people you don't know. Even the cops get fresh. I had to walk away from one just now. And you mustn't go to a strange person's house. Is this where you live? Maybe I'll come in to see you some day. It's on my way from work, and it's nice to see people sometimes."

EDITORIAL GRIST

PAY ENVELOPE AND MARKET BASKET

SCOTT NEARING
University of Pennsylvania

SINCE general comparisons are never so effective as specific ones, the value of a study of living standards would be greatly enhanced if it were possible to take a specific town, or a specific industry, and contrast the amount necessary to procure a minimum standard of living in that town or that industry with the wages actually paid. One such contrast can be made. While it is not in any sense conclusive, it is highly interesting and suggestive.

Fall River, Massachusetts, was in 1908 the subject of two investigations,—one by the agents of the Federal Bureau of Labor into the standards of living, the other by the state Bureau of Statistics into wages. A typical industrial town, dependent upon one industry, Fall River stands as the only instance of a locality in which acceptable data regarding both wages and standards have been secured. The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics reports that in 1908 there were 29,758 wage-earners in Fall River; of these 24,225 (80 per cent) were engaged in the cotton industry. Fall River is thus almost exclusively a cotton mill town.[1]

The exact wage statistics for Fall River are not available, but the wages of adult males engaged in the cotton industry of Massachusetts are known, and under the circumstances they may be compared with the Fall River standards study. Somewhat more than one-fourth of all of the employes in the Massachusetts cotton industry are in Fall River, or 24,222 out of 90,935.

The statistics of average wages show a comparatively slight variation for cotton mill operatives in the leading manufacturing towns. The average wages of all employes in the four largest centers were:

Fall River	$447.40
Lawrence	437.54
Lowell	444.77
Winchester	433.74
Entire state	439.34

The extreme in variation is $13.66, or less than 3 per cent, with the average for the entire commonwealth midway between the two. The wage statistics of the cotton industry in the state at large may, therefore, be fairly compared with the standards of living established in Fall River. The reader should remember, however,

[1]Statistics of Manufacturing, 1908, Public Document, No. 36, Boston, 1909, P. 4.

that wages in Fall River are slightly higher than those for the entire state.

The same report which gives the earnings of adult males contains the statement that in 1908 the "average number of days in operation" for cotton mills was 269.62 (86 per cent of the total possible working time); and the "average proportion of business done" was 75.92 per cent. Evidently, therefore, during part of the time the mills were in operation they were not running a full quota of employes. Without taking any account of sickness and accident, two inevitable causes of unemployment, it is conservative to say that the unemployment in the cotton industry for this year equaled 20 per cent. In the computation of annual from weekly earnings, a deduction of 20 per cent has therefore been made.

WEEKLY AND YEARLY WAGES OF ADULT MALES IN COTTON GOODS INDUSTRY IN MASSACHUSETTS, 1908.

Per cent	Earned per week less than	Earned per year less than
16	$ 7	$291
59	10	461
97	15	624
99	20	816

Apparently, three-fifths of the adult males in the cotton industry of Massachusetts,—and by inference of Fall River—earned less than $416 per year; nine-tenths earned less than $624 per year; while only three in a hundred earned more than $816 per year. Compare these figures with the $484.41, minimum standard, and the $690.95, efficiency standard, established for Fall River by the federal study,[1] and it appears that the wages earned by the males over twenty-one years of age are, in a majority of instances, insufficient to maintain a minimum standard, and in over nine-tenths of the cases insufficient to maintain a fair standard for a family of three children.[2]

Statisticians will explain that such a comparison is crude. It is crude. They will object that the basis in fact is not adequate to warrant the conclusion. That is true. They will insist that inference has no place in statistical literature. No objection could be more justifiable. Nevertheless, in the face of such valid criticism, the fact remains that the one case in which comparable statistics of standards and wages are available confirms the impression of the general statistics regarding the utter inadequacy of the wages of many adult males to provide efficiency, or even subsistence, for their families.

[1]Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage-earners in the United States. Nineteen volumes. Edited by Charles P. Neill. Volume I. Cotton Textile Industry.

[2]It should be borne in mind that the cotton goods industry is one of the lowest paid industries in the United States. One of the industries in which one would expect to find the greatest discrepancy between wages and standards. See Wages in the United States. Scott Nearing. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1911, Chapters 3 and 4.

HIDDEN RESOURCES

MADELEINE SWEENY MILLER

HAVE you ever thought of the charity of the poor?

Several incidents which have come to my notice recently seem to indicate that it is among the poor themselves that we can best see generosity at work, for here the act of giving is synonymous with self-denial; here charity is stripped of all aspect of benevolence and philanthropy, and revealed in her true character of a generous love, expending her all, if by so doing, she can feed her sick neighbor's child a crust. There is no bombastic display here, no bid for the sanctioning approval of friends. If you have ever seen a wan-faced little mother take her destitute friend's washing into her own steamy kitchen, or bring her babies under the roof which already shelters a clamoring brood, you must appreciate what is meant by the "hidden resources of the poor."

At the Soho Settlement House in the mill district of Pittsburgh there is a mother's club, where members meet once a month or so for a social evening. Sometimes young women from the Settlement Auxiliary Board go down to sing or present a little comedy, but when nothing of this sort has been provided, the mothers are content simply to play children's games. It is a touching thing to see them playing hide-and-seek or drop-the-handkerchief, while their youngest ones creep about on the floor. A very slight attraction is sufficient to draw them out of their miserable dwellings, and away from the cook-stove and wash-tub, away from the seat of groveling poverty, into the Settlement House.

It is not the social evenings here that give them the greatest pleasure. The mothers seem really happiest when, every few months, they fill the circle of chairs in the large front room of the house to make garments and various articles for the sales held there to secure funds to help meet the running expenses. They leave their own toiling and patching in order to help along the work which has actually accomplished such things in the community as the closing of saloons and the opening of men's clubs and Boy Scout divisions in their stead.

The most significant thing about the meeting of the mothers for such a purpose is the positive joy they feel as the result of giving something to someone. They feel a new worth, a new dignity, shall we say, because they are dispensing instead of receiving. So long as they have something to give, they retain a trace of nobility of character, and it is only by appealing to this that we can hope to effect their regeneration. Put them in circumstances where they can give, and the dwindling of dependency will follow. Wherever a grain of voluntary generosity

survives, it should be fostered as a priceless asset in the regenerative process, if souls as well as bodies are to be saved from the sordid death of penury.

Therefore, remember this, social workers, that these resources offered by the poor themselves, although stubbornly hidden, are just as vital and effective as the more patent adjuncts of charity. Even though they cannot be itemized and tabulated in detail, yet they must be recognized as a great factor when the grand total of charity's assets is taken. We can not calculate on them ahead of time, because they have their origin at the same moment as the exigency they attempt to meet. Take for example the great numbers of little Italian mothers who, when left with empty, affectionate arms by the death of a new-born child, volunteer to nurse and care for infants left at the foundling asylums about the same time.

A short time ago, a clean little Neapolitan woman and her husband offered their baby for baptism in a large Methodist church, saying that they had decided to leave their own church because a priest had refused to bury a young child of theirs who had died before baptism was possible. The Methodists made great pets of the appealing little Italians with their great family, and the women's club sent them an automobile full of garments which represented a whole day's sewing. Several weeks later, when the same club and the official board of the church were arranging a gift for their minister on the occasion of his wedding, they were no less amazed than distressed to receive from the hands of one of the little Italian boys a piece of paper in which his parents had wrapped four nickels and a dime. The proud little people felt that this symptom of economic independence raised their level in the eyes of their church brethren and freed them from the humiliation of having received the load of clothing. When the minister heard of the incident, he did not, like the women, grieve because the Italians had impoverished themselves. He remarked that the positive pleasure and help they had derived would do them more good than the two or three scant meals the gift had cost them.

The supreme test of the charity of these destitute people came a short time later when a telegram was handed to them during the Sunday morning service. The wife had been called to her sister's death bed. When she returned she brought back the sister's three children from the stricken home. When the minister went to see her, the little woman, her face as sweet as a Botticelli Madonna, smilingly remarked as she nursed her sister's child, "Yes, we be having a hard time just now, but Luigi says they'll all be grown up some day, and then *they'll* help *us*."

A SETTLEMENT SCRUBBING SCHOOL

JOHN L. ELLIOTT
Hudson Guild, New York

EVERY neighborhood house and settlement is familiar with the unskilled men and women who come begging for work. That the widows and mothers should be compelled to leave their own homes and children to go out and earn money to support themselves and their families is a wretched and shameful condition. Yet under our present laws and social standards it is inevitable.

Many of those applying for work and willing to do "anything" have never been taught how to do "anything." The difficulty of getting a position for such workers is naturally great. The Hudson Guild, therefore, has established a scrubbing school. Every morning the applicants make their appearance at the guild and if they have not credentials, showing them to be trained cleaners, the guild furnishes a class for their instruction. The women come because they need money. All the members of the class are, therefore, paid for taking a lesson. They receive forty cents for each morning's work. The cost of conducting this class is lessened because the scrubbing school has displaced one janitor.

It is not only necessary to train these women but to help them secure positions. For this work the guild has secured Gertrude Stein, a former student of the School of Philanthropy and an assistant of Maude Miner for a number of years. Miss Stein, through advertising in the newspapers, the use of the telephone and personal solicitation has achieved the following results:

	Days work	Amount earned	Steady positions
January	180	$288	—
February	160	$256	—
March	266	$425	15
April	350	$560	18

There were 287 applicants for work during this period and 619 employers asked for women.

The amount earned is not complete because it does not include the sum earned by those who secured steady positions. In some cases this was $6 to $7 a week, or $20 to $25 a month.

Many of those who secure women are so satisfied with their work that they engage them permanently. In this way the school has formed its own clientele of employers.

The scrubbing school applies the methods of efficiency and education to the lowest grade of workers. If a woman must work as a cleaner it is best for her to do a good job and receive the highest pay. Carfare and the best possible wages are always asked for by the school. These women who have had to shift for themselves without the benefit of any union are given some of the advantages of organization.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SMALL INVESTOR

The Pittsburgh Survey raised in new and large ways the question of the responsibility of scattered investors for labor conditions. Perhaps the most definite action was that of Charles M. Cabot of Boston, at whose instigation a stockholders' committee of the United States Steel Corporation was appointed in 1909 and reported a year ago this spring. Its work measurably advanced the cause of the six-day week. But one of its major declarations, that the twelve-hour day was anti-social and should be abolished in continuous processes, has not resulted in reform. At this year's stockholders' meeting an investor requested the Steel Corporation to enlist the co-operation of other companies in joint action toward this end, but was voted down with the sanction of the administration officials, who held proxies for a majority of the stock.

The time seems opportune, therefore, to reopen the whole question, and THE SURVEY publishes three manuscripts which have been in its possession for varying lengths of time, raising the question whether or not some similar organization of stockholders with social vision—a league of small investors—might not be very desirable.

"The following pages are the outcome of my own perplexity accentuated since the Pittsburgh investigation," wrote Miss Clarkson in sending in her writing—"and reflect, I should imagine, the state of mind of many others."

Mrs. Evans writes from definite experience growing out of her individual work as a stockholder in taking up conditions with heads of companies.

The third communication, unsigned, reached THE SURVEY recently from another and quite independent quarter.

HOW MAKE HIMSELF FELT?

Has the investor—especially the small investor—any responsibility regarding the business methods of the corporations whose securities he buys?

If he has, how is he to exercise it?

How can he know what their real character is?

How can he be sure whether a certain high grade railroad stock represents enterprise alone or enterprise tempered with chicanery?

How find out whether the management of one well recommended "industrial" evades the child labor laws and works its men at killing speed, or whether the large dividends paid by another are due to superior patents and processes or to underpaid employes and lack of accident protection?

No prospectus will enlighten him in regard to these particulars.

A large investor has opportunities of getting behind the scenes, but not the small investor, especially if he does not put all his eggs in one basket but scatters his score or so of thousands among half a dozen companies in as many different states. A few companies, a few types of business, have a bad reputation. These he can avoid. But how discriminate among the great mass of the apparently legitimate? His interest he can protect by consulting only the most reputable brokers; but the point is to satisfy his conscience, for he knows well enough that the corporations that most carefully look after the interests of their stockholders are not always fairest in dealing with employes and competitors.

His position, in short, is much the same as until recently was that of the purchaser who did not wish to buy sweatshop garments nor deal with unjust houses. Now the purchaser can join the Consumers' League which undertakes the investigation for which he single-handed is incompetent—and confine himself to their "white list."

Is it Quixotic to hope that some day we shall have an investors' league with its "white list" of securities offering the investor not merely reasonable assurance that his capital will be safe but also that it will be invested in legitimate enterprises, humanely and justly conducted?

Individually the small investor, like the small purchaser, is insignificant. But he belongs to a large class whose holdings aggregate hundreds—perhaps thousands of millions—wealth enough altogether to control the business of several flourishing states. This class own stocks and bonds in public utility and other enterprises all over the country, yet with rarely a controlling vote. With some show of reason, therefore, the small investor can deny his responsibility altogether, because he sees no practical method of making it effective. He must put his money somewhere. So far as he knows, one security is no more likely to represent injustice than another. Whether or not he buys a few shares of the stock that tempts him, the company that owns it will go on with its business all the same. So why trouble himself?

And indeed there is no use in troubling himself, unless he can combine with others in the same position who believe that the investment of money, through the control thereby exerted over men's labor, is an act of no less social importance than the casting of a vote.

The principle that those who contribute to the support of an enterprise have a certain right to

the control of that enterprise has become, we all know, an axiom of politics. In business, it is recognized theoretically by the calling of stockholders' meetings. These, however, owing to the conditions of modern business, can rarely be representative. But the corresponding principle that those who lend their money to an enterprise, obtaining thereby such right of control consequently have a certain responsibility for the conduct of that enterprise, is slower of recognition, though it is gaining ground. It is admitted with regard to the independent employer because his case is plain, and its application to the more complicated ownership of the stock company is only a matter of time.

At present, the obligation of the directors to the stockholders is being thoroughly canvassed. The obligation of the stockholders follows directly upon that; and, just in the measure that the actual accountability of the directors is assured, will the responsibility of the stockholders become patent and the demand for its enforcement arise. What will be the immediate occasion of such a demand, what form it will take, and what methods will be used for giving it effect, only the future can show.

In some shape or other, however, and perhaps a disconcerting one, the demand is sure to come. It might not be imprudent for investors to forestall such a demand by voluntarily facing the responsibility. An investors' league would be such a forestallment. It would be a protest also against the present *laissez faire* attitude of the public which, under present circumstances, it is hard to blame. It would be a reminder to the indifferent and a welcome resource to the scrupulous, an indicator above all things of the direction reform should take. It would attempt gradually to impose its standards on the public exactly as the Consumers' League has done.

Such a society would not attempt to do everything at once. At the beginning there would be no need to gather an enormous mass of information about conditions of employment represented by a long list of securities. It might be sufficient to start by publishing a small and confessedly imperfect list of such railroads and industrials as are generally known for fair treatment of their employes. One of the first services would be to point out the general conditions of employment common to certain classes of public utilities and industrials, the special advantages they offer to the employe or the particular hardships he has to contend with, and the extent to which these are remedial.

Then, just as the Consumers' League, the Child Labor Committee and other organizations from time to time send out suggestions or instructions, an investors' league could guide its members with advice as to what can be reasonably required of a company in the treatment of its employes. It could point out, as they occur, changes which alter the character of a certain line of industrials, proposed laws which may affect railroads, opportunities which may open. Especially it could be of use in focusing the attention of women upon the actual human conditions lying behind the cryptic stocks and bonds from which they draw their incomes. Women, perhaps even more than men, often show surprisingly little imagination where money is concerned. To impress upon them that investments rest upon the labor of individual men and women whose welfare needs consideration as much as that of those who do the work in their own households, would be a valuable task.

In some respects, the work of investigation would be easier than for the Consumers' League, because the conditions in public utilities companies, which absorb so great a proportion of investors' capital, are likely to be better known and more easily looked into than the conditions in mercantile houses. Then, too, the stockholder's right to make various inquiries on his own behalf which would hardly be permitted to the purchaser is generally acknowledged, so that the investor, once interested, may contribute to the work of investigation.

The society would also find efficient help in the repute of other societies, such as the National Child Labor Committee, the American Association for Labor Legislation and others with which it would naturally co-operate. One difficulty it would have to face from the outset—namely, that the market for securities open to its members is spread over the length and breadth of the land. To report upon all or even a large part of them would be out of the question.

Such a society, therefore, could not expect to require hard and fast pledges of its members. Its functions for a long time would be to inform, to guide, to persuade, remind, exhort and warn, but not to dictate. But within the limits of these functions it could be of immense use.

Another closely related point is that the society should seek the co-operation of brokers and directors. For it must be remembered always that co-equal with the power and responsibility of those who put their money in an enterprise is that of those who put their brains in it. The two must act in harmony. If such a society as we are considering cannot at first win the active sympathy of men of affairs, it should at least avoid all needless antagonism. There seems no reason why such a society should not find as much favor among conservative brokers and promoters as the Consumers' League has acquired among merchants and manufacturers. The stamp of approval, the moral tone given to a house by its presence on a recommended list is not a bad advertisement. Moreover, an investment would always gain in reputation for safety by the establishment of a reputation for the good understanding between the men and the management. Many firms which might look askance at such a league in the beginning would later on seek a place on its lists. It would naturally meet with difficulties, but also with unlooked-for support.

And finally—to answer my own question—a project is not Quixotic that is based on the extension of accepted principles and in accord with the country's growing regard for the welfare of all classes.

Mary Emily Clarkson.

PRACTICAL FIRST STEPS

The question of how a small investor can satisfy his conscience as to methods pursued by the corporations in which he may buy stock, raises large issues. Without discussing the more far-reaching aspect of the subject, there are several points that can be suggested.

It is obvious that were there a widespread feeling of responsibility among stockholders, small investors by combining could exercise influence in a way now beyond their reach. At present so few people give a thought as to how their dividends are earned that the need of a stockholders' league, to some degree similar to a consumers' league, is an idea that has scarce been mooted. Before such a thing becomes practicable, the moral consciousness of at least a small group of investors must be awakened. The first step ahead then is to make people think. As to ways:

Take the very common situation of pending child labor legislation and certain notorious mills in opposition. Why not appeal by circular to the stockholders of these mills, obtaining the lists through some ally purchasing stock? More than probably such a course would result in checking at least the overt opposition of the mill officials, so sensitive are their kind to publicity. Should this happen—and it has happened—it would demonstrate the fact that the small unorganized investor even now has a power which he does not use. Apart, however, from possible influence upon directors and officials, a well conceived circular at an opportune moment could not fail to make some stockholders think.

It is an open secret that our public utilities are too often in corrupt relations with the government. When scandals occur, why not attempt to bring home to stockholders the fact that they are beneficiaries of concerns which are trafficing in the honor of their city? At present the thought of themselves as citizens and as investors does not come together in their minds —not even if they are the head and front of a good government association. When once the connection is made—and it can be made—there will be a vast change in the standard of business morality.

As things are now, one can hardly hope to invest only in concerns which are ethically managed. But one can perhaps do even better, if one can help to moralize the enterprises from which one profits. And to that end, one can give a preference to properties which are to some degree within the sphere of one's influence—to real estate whose uses one can control, to public utilities in one's own rather than in some other city. Industrial ownership under modern methods is too often an equivalent of absentee landlordism. Let one's property then be of a kind that reduces the absentee quality to as low a term as possible. Thus can one make one's money subservient to the higher purposes of one's life. To do less is to play the part of Dr. Jekyl and Mr. Hyde—to tear down with one hand what one seeks to build with the other.

The present difficulty, at bottom, lies in this, that a new code of industrial ethics is in process of creation. Intangible property such as stocks and bonds is but the invention of yesterday. The immemorial obligations and sanctities associated with more primitive property relations have not yet accrued to these latest and more disguised forms of mine and thine. The conscientious stockholder then must genuinely believe that the old moralities should be brought to bear upon modern industry, and he must find a way to translate his faith into his deeds. Moreover, he must be touched by the martyr spirit, for many privileges now enjoyed by the propertied class would be curtailed were industry run with a single regard for the common weal.

ELIZABETH GLENDOWER EVANS.

A "WHITE LIST" NEEDED

Is not the time ripe for an organization to do for the investor what the Consumers' League has done for the conscientious consumer, by supplying a list of securities in which those persons who do not wish to take interest earned at the expense of the health and moral welfare of their fellow-beings, can conscientiously invest?

All thoughtful readers of THE SURVEY, all persons indeed who take their Ten Commandments in terms of social righteousness, must have felt the difficulty of selecting for themselves or for those trustees of funds or individuals who turn to them for advice, investments which they can rest assured are building up industry and the welfare of the worker together. To accept dividends, produced at a cost to human welfare which no humane individual would for an instant tolerate, seems a curiously unimaginative performance for those whose hearts are yearning for social betterment.

Many conscientious investors, and it must be borne in mind that the individual who deposits one dollar in a savings bank is already an investor, take great pains to place their savings where they will help and not hinder real progress. But most of us have not the time nor ability to decide this question. We need a white list of investments. It would be a satisfaction to think that public opinion would demand gradually of all reputable securities that they should qualify for such a list. It is easy to see many difficulties in the path of the undertaking, yet it does not seem an impractical one.

A READER.

PERSONALS



JOHN H. FINLEY

The New York State Board of Regents has unanimously chosen Dr. Finley for state commissioner of education. It is generally believed that he will accept.

A YOUNG man and a vigorous one is John H. Finley who has been appointed state commissioner of education in New York. For ten years he has been president of the College of the City of New York, the top rung in the school system of the second largest city west of Suez. City College has graduated its big men, but chiefly it is the college for immigrant boys. Germans and Irish and Scandinavians in their day, and now the Jews, make up the bulk of its classes. Great numbers earn their way through, many of them lads born in the Pale with a tense passion for the learning denied them abroad.

At a time when all the forces of education are simmering with new plans to make the schools fit boys and girls for life and labor, Dr. Finley takes the state helm. The growing movement for industrial education in New York state, the latest indications of which are shown in the recommendation of the Factory Investigation Commission, will undoubtedly receive warm support from him. It is understood that he will make a study of the present common school system, with a view to its adaptation to the needs of pupils, and will follow this by recommendations to his board, especially in regard to vocational training.

Dr. Finley's background is much broader than City College. He was graduated from Knox and from Princeton, was a professor at Princeton and at Tulane, and was Harvard exchange lecturer at the Sorbonne, Paris. He is an ex-president of the American Social Science Association, and was secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association during the time of its strenuous agitation for state care of the insane, who were at that time housed in the county almshouses. He is the author of substantial volumes on Taxation and The American Executive, and a contributor of prose and verse to many magazines. He has been editor of *Harper's Weekly* and of *McClure's* and—be it modestly noted—of the *Charities Review* which was merged with *Charities* which became *Charities and the Commons* which was rechristened THE SURVEY.

To all these scholastic and literary and social accomplishments Dr. Finley has added a reputation as a long-distance walker. Many know him for the charming reports of his favorite tramps clean around the outskirts of great cities like New York and Paris. It was characteristic that when announcement of his appointment was made he was out of reach—far off on a hike through New England.

When Weston started his recent walk from New York to Minneapolis it was President Finley who saw him off. And his message to Weston was the message with which he starts his City College boys on vacation: "Take a long walk, read a good book, make a new friend."

* * *

ORTON E. DARNALL is returning to business life in California after seven years as superintendent of the National Training School for Boys at Washington. When Mr. Darnall went to the Washington School seven years ago it was a penitentiary, the children wearing stripes and living behind bars. Under the supervision of Mr. and Mrs. Darnall it has become a training school, not as in the old days, says the Washington *Post,* for criminals, but for men. The *Post* thus describes the system of life and education carried on at the institution by Mr. Darnall:

"The school is a beehive of industry in which each one of the 500 boys spends half his time with his books and half his time learning a trade. Under efficient supervision they cook their own food, wash their own dishes, do their own laundry work, run their own heating plant, make their own clothing, mend their own shoes, raise their own vegetables, work their own farm, raise their own stock, grade and care for their grounds, do their own blacksmithing and plumbing, and make their own furniture. They even build their own buildings and make the brick from which they are built. In short, the school is a nearly self-sustaining group."

PERSONALS



LILLIAN D. WALD

Founder of the Nurses' (Henry Street) Settlement, Miss Wald has been first in peace as Florence Nightingale was first in war. She has lived for twenty years on New York's East Side.

THE newspapers have told the story of the pageant and parades in Henry Street that celebrated the twentieth anniversary of the rebirth, in a very real sense, not only of that historic thoroughfare but of the whole crowded, suffering, once forgotten East Side, when Lillian D. Wald came to make her home among its people.

Twenty years, is it? It seems but yesterday that I met her at her work there, a young girl, barely out of the hospital school where she had fitted herself to become a nurse, gasping with horror at what she had seen in people's homes, but without an instant's doubt that the call was to her.

I can hear her yet telling of the rear tenement in Henry Street to which she went in search of one of her mothers whom she had missed at the demonstration in her class, and of what she found there. She had come out of her guarded, happy life into one of the lowest of the poverty-stricken hovels of New York's Ghetto. She did not shut the door and go away to report the case to the Board of Health; she did not call a policeman as one being used to such scenes. She went straight to work to do what she could for the sick woman with what she had, and labored over her with aching heart and tears streaming down her face till she had done all that could be done.

Then she went—not back to the school; not that way lay the path of duty she had seen through the grime and misery of that hour.

"It all seemed so academic, so remote," she told me. And then and there she gave her life to her fellowmen, her life as a nurse and as a woman.

The other day we happened together upon the old times and I saw that when she recalled that first day's experience, she had tears in her eyes yet. Those tears told the source of her power. Henry Street had cause to rejoice; so has the East side, so has New York. I was not mistaken when I wrote once in the guest-book at the Nurses' Settlement: "The heart and the wise head of New York are here."

From the very start its poor became "her people." She took them to her heart and they gave her quickly their unstinted confidence and trust. No woman, since Josephine Shaw Lowell, has been able to do what she has done. They trust her absolutely, trust her head, her judgment, and her friendship. She arbitrates in a strike, and the men listen; she sits as one of the Board of Sanitary Control in the cloak and suit trade that has wrought such wondrous great good for the workers, and her judgment stands. When she pleads for housing reform, for playgrounds, for a united stand against child labor, her words carry authority. When politics make for better government, the Nurses' Settlement is a recruiting station; when push-cart peddlers are blackmailed by the police, she will tell the mayor the truth, for she knows. In the plotting and planning and winding ways of life on the East Side there is one pilot whose chart can be trusted—Miss Wald knows.

In the strife that rages forever around our public schools her feet are planted on solid ground. She pleaded for cooking and housekeeping schools and got them; she believes in vocational guidance. She labored for medical school inspection and when it did only half of what was expected of it, it was Miss Wald who put life into it by giving the doctors backing. Perhaps nothing she ever did gives one a better grip on the woman and her work.

Coming out of a tenement from a visit to a patient, she met on the stoop a boy who at that hour should have been in school. When she asked him why he was not, he ducked his head and showed her a running sore. "Teacher sent me home," he said. She took him in charge at once, and while she sat on the step with his head between her knees, cleaning and bandaging the sore, she heard the every-day story of his being on the street. He was not wanted in school as he was; at home nothing was done to cure him. So he ran wild and was growing up a hoodlum to his own and the community's hurt. While she labored and listened, the whole scheme of school-nursing took shape in her mind. She laid it before the Board of Health and the

Board of Education. They smiled at her earnestness; were not the visiting doctors enough?

No, said Miss Wald, they could not follow the children into their homes, and did not. In fact they were specifically forbidden to do so lest it interfere with "private practice," the great stumbling block in the path of getting medical common sense into the management of the schools. She offered to prove her case by letting one of her nurses do volunteer duty in them for a month. Before it had come to an end the city authorities employed twelve to do the work of the one. There are today nearly, if not quite, two hundred nurses in the public schools, and that end of it is secure at all events.

It is Miss Wald's extraordinary combination of mind and heart, of the executive talent that looks to results and gets them because it always looks along safe and sane lines, with the woman's sympathy, that accounts for her power.

Of the achievements which that power has wrought for the good of New York we have been told. They are great, and the East Side celebrated them fitly. They were, I suppose, more or less in the minds of the invited guests who sat and looked on; but in the ranks of the paraders, who had lived next to her a full score of years, I doubt if what she had done except in the individual case had even a small place alongside of what she was. Said one to me who has been close to her long: "There never was a woman with her power of loving people."

That is the real story of Lillian D. Wald, and lucky is New York to be able to tell it.

JACOB A. RIIS.

* * *

ON June 1, John Daniels became general secretary of the Social Service Corporation of Baltimore. Last November, Mr. Daniels resigned as extension secretary of the North American Civic League for Immigrants, and since then has completed, under the auspices of South End House, Boston, a book on the Negro problem. This is now in press for publication in the fall.

The Baltimore Social Service Corporation was announced by Robert Garrett in THE SURVEY for January 20, 1912. Mr. Garrett explained that it was based on the theory that the greatest efficiency of organization is needed in the social field, just as it is in business. The distinguishing marks of an efficient organization, he stated, are (1) centralization of authority with elasticity of operation; (2) a strong staff of experts to whom is committed all, or nearly all, the active work of the organization; (3) small boards or committees, composed of men of social experience and wide horizon, acting largely in an advisory capacity.

Since this announcement was made the work of the organization has gone steadily forward gradually becoming more intensive in character. While the community was at first a little skeptical as to the feasibility of the plan, it seems to have commended itself more and more. So far the corporation has been handicapped by the lack of a permanent general secretary.

Looking ahead it is thought that perhaps the most important next step is a thorough survey of the community, both extensive and intensive. It is hoped to cover in this survey every subject relating to the welfare of the people, taking perhaps four or five years of steady work on the part of experts in the many fields to be studied.

* * *

GRACE ABBOTT, director of the Chicago Immigrants' Protective League, has been appointed executive secretary of the Massachusetts Immigration Commission, of which Bernard J. Rothwell is chairman. It is expected that the work will extend until January when the commission's report is due. During this period Miss Abbott is on leave of absence from the Chicago Immigrants' Protective League.

* * *

SHERRARD EWING of Pittsburgh became secretary on June 1 of the Chamber of Commerce of Reading, Pa., now in process of organization. The new chamber has over 600 members and an assured budget on a three-year basis. The directors hope to develop civic and commercial activities side by side.

Mr. Ewing served on various Pittsburgh newspapers for several years and later was assistant secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission. One of the distinctive lines in which he made good was as secretary of the Pittsburgh Housing Conference. In the past year he has been secretary of the Pittsburgh Inter-Collegiate Committee for Social Service. In a way, Mr. Ewing illustrates at one and the same time two rather distinct trends—the newspaper man who breaks into social work and the social worker who goes into one of the commercial organizations which has heard the call of civic obligation.

COMMUNICATIONS

OF WAYSIDE SPRINGS

TO THE EDITOR:

During a hot day recently my train made a five- or six-minute stop in a mid-state city. A water-man with his cart of ice, ice-pail, and spouted cans of drinking water operated beneath my window. The smirchiness of cans and pail, and the blackness of the leather glove with which he handled the ice were not calculated for the fastidious.

But this was forgotten when a gray-haired man, who looked like an American gentleman, came along and carefully washed his hands in one of the cans, all being wide-open and unlabeled. The water-man, who had been filling our tank, returned, took up the wash-water, and put it in the drinking-tank of the car in front. While he was attending to this, in the happy sequence of events, a Negro came along, who, seeing the open ice-cart, thrust in his hand and felt around for a small piece of ice.

Then our train started on, so the story is cut short.

It was very gratifying to notice that all of our cars were supplied with sanitary drinking-cups. But why?

FLORENCE CROSS KITCHELT.

Rochester.

FOR JERSEY PRISONERS

TO THE EDITOR:

I thought you would be interested to know, that through the charity organizations of this county (Union), particularly of the city of Plainfield, and the progressive jail committee of the Board of Freeholders at Elizabeth, prisoners are now permitted to smoke in the corridors of the jail and chairs have been provided for the male prisoners to sit at their meals. This privilege had been accorded to female prisoners heretofore, but not to males. The tin mess pans have been displaced by wooden plates, like the pie plates, earthenware cups and saucers have been provided and it is now proposed to employ the prisoners on the county roads and on the county farm.

WILLIAM JEFFERY.

[President Board of Trade.]

Plainfield, N. J.

MANUAL TRAINING FIELD MEET

TO THE EDITOR:

Governor Lister of Washington has given industrial education in the high schools a boost by offering to give a "governor's trophy" to the high school entering the best team of three in carpentry, sewing, and cooking at the state-wide children's fair to be held in Spokane next October. The work is to be done publicly in booths on the fair grounds.

The most significant feature of the first state-wide boys' and girls' agricultural and industrial contest in Washington is the community center organization under the leadership of Josephine Preston, the state's first woman superintendent of schools. A market center, or small town or village, with a graded school, forms the central unit and the surrounding rural schools, together with this central graded school, make one supervisory district. The principal of the small graded school is supervising principal of the surrounding school as well as of his own.

At these community centers preliminary children's fairs will be held from which the winning exhibits will be taken to the county fairs, and from the county fairs to the state fair. This is the first year of the contest, yet there will be over 200 local fairs by the boys and girls.

Mrs. Preston believes in co-ordinating all lines of rural improvement work, so she has worked out the community center plan because it readily lends itself to the social center idea, rural supervision, the development of rural high schools with vocational courses. These results have come from the plan as she worked it out while county superintendent in Walla Walla county.

CALVIN C. THOMASON.

[Field organizer, Department of Public Instruction.]

Olympia, Wash.

RACE SEGREGATION

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read several articles in recent numbers of THE SURVEY on race segregation.

In this discussion one salient fact should be borne in mind. In the case of the segregation of the Negro race that has been accomplished in many southern cities and which is being sought by many people in Baltimore, the movement has had in view to obtain for the poor and moderately well-to-do, through some sort of legal restriction, that which the wealthy obtain individually by means of their wealth. I have seen the names of eminent men enlisted in opposition to race segregation. I know of the location of the homes of many of them and I feel sure if you take the trouble to inquire, you will find in practically every instance, they live in sections effectually restricted against residences of the Negro. Perhaps some surviving inferior frame structures that are little better than shanties, awaiting destruction to give place to houses in keeping with the neighborhood, may be found near the homes of these gentlemen opposed to Negro segregation as a principle.

Still the fact remains, segregation is almost universally sought by white people in southern communities. The rich readily accomplish their wishes in a way quite as effectual as the poor are attempting to do by means of some legal restriction.

This is not intended to be interpreted as a discussion either pro or con of the problem of proposed segregation.

CHAS. E. KERN.

[Manager Bureau of Corporate and Financial Information.]

Washington, D. C.

TAX PRISON MADE GOODS

TO THE EDITOR:

At a recent conference of social workers an address was drafted to President Wilson urging him to promote legislation dealing with contract convict labor.

The means whereby the national government has in the past proposed to deal with the question is through a law affecting interstate commerce in prison-made goods. May I suggest that this question can be approached from a different angle? Why not use the taxing power granted in the Constitution instead of the interstate commerce clause?

A bill regulating interstate commerce in prison-made goods failed to pass in the last Congress, in spite of the fact that it appeared to have the approval of all parties. This measure, known as the Booher bill, after having passed the House of Representatives by a practically unanimous vote, died in the Senate Committee on the Judiciary. It is chiefly on the ground of unconstitutionality that the Booher bill was opposed. The utilization of the taxing clause of the Constitution will obviate this objection.

The taxing clause has already been used in effecting a similar social legislation. I refer to the [illegible] By this measure,

so heavy a tax was levied on matches manufactured according to methods which were noxious to the health of those employed in the work that commerce in them was soon abolished. Why not lay a heavy internal revenue tax on prison-made products?

I submit this suggestion with the hope that it may invite discussion as to whether the taxing clause of the Constitution is not after all the most effective way of dealing with the prison labor situation from a federal standpoint.

MAXWELL M. GEFFEN.

New York.

PREVENTING INDUSTRIAL OUTBREAKS

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit a word of appreciation from a former worker in the industrial center of St. Louis of John Fitch's article on the I. W. W. in THE SURVEY of June 7.

Mr. Fitch, with a splendid combination of passion and fairness, exposes the underlying causes of our social unrest of which the Paterson situation is today's most apparent illustration.

Can there not be set in motion, especially in all our industrial centers, plans for conferences in which representatives of business and labor, church and state, school and police, shall have a part?

Let there be a frank facing of the issues which have come to a head at Paterson and elsewhere and such a measure of confidence and understanding established as shall prevent any such crisis as has happened at Paterson.

Can not social workers at Seattle next month seek in some way to inaugurate a nation-wide movement which in no doctrinaire way shall promote the prevention of this outbreaking industrial disease?

The above suggestion if locally promoted and democratically initiated can not fail, I believe, to be of some real good in this direction.

WILLIAM MOLL CASE.

[Chairman Religious Education Committee, Boise Presbytery.]

Caldwell, Idaho.

"YOUTH AND THE RACE"

TO THE EDITOR:

Some time ago I noticed in THE SURVEY[1] a review of Prof. Edgar James Swift's Youth and the Race, which he calls a study of the psychology of adolescence. The reviewer took Professor Swift to task as an overcritical protestant against current educational methods, and hardly left the reader in a frame of mind to examine Professor Swift's message further.

I have just finished reading the book and have found it one of the most stimulating messages on the "educational renaissance" that has come to my hands.

For persons dealing with children in big cities, and especially for probation officers, attendance officers and those who have to deal with public school activities, it has a wealth of material, telling illustration and helpful criticism, such as I have not seen elsewhere. Professor Swift deals not only in the theory of applying the natural instincts of children to school life, but in the abundant facts of the last ten years' work, which are blazing the way for an entirely new freedom in education, the final breaking down, let us hope, of that burden of childhood, born of the doctrines of original sin and natural depravity.

The book should be earnestly commended to social workers with children who want the benefit of the latest facts and comment by an expert who sees the new light.

ROGER N. BALDWIN.

St. Louis.

[1]See THE SURVEY of January 25, 1913.

RESTRICTING IMMIGRATION

TO THE EDITOR:

In THE SURVEY of June 14 there is an article entitled A New Expedient for Restricting Immigration which contains a number of errors that demand correction.

The author, Max J. Kohler, in discussing the literacy test and the proposal to check our present enormous immigration by limiting the number admitted annually says: "These tests were not approved by the Immigration Commission in its report to Congress." On the contrary, the commission, on page 48 of the first volume of its forty-two volume report to Congress, under the heading Recommendations, says of the seven suggested methods of restriction, two of which are "limitation of the number of immigrants arriving annually" and the "exclusion of adults unable to read and write in some language": "All of these methods would be very effective in securing restrictions. . . . The commission as a whole recommends restriction as demanded by economic, moral, and social considerations," and "A majority [eight of the nine, that is every member except one] favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting undesirable immigration."

Mr. Kohler also states "The high figures of 1907 have not since been equaled and are not likely to be." In 1907, 1,285,347 aliens entered the United States, that number being the culmination of the immigration tide that started in 1897, the year Cleveland vetoed the literacy test, when only 280,832 entered. While it is true that the tremendous influx of 1907 has not been exceeded since, still the average for the past ten years has been over a million, and the retiring commissioner general, who I understand has prepared the annual report of the Bureau of Immigration for the fiscal year ending June 30 of this year, says "there will be approximately 1,375,000" this year.

Mr. Kohler's statement that "immigrants come to this country chiefly at the instance of resident relatives or friends," does not coincide with the finding of the Congressional Immigration Commission, or with the expert opinions of our immigration officials, who attribute their coming chiefly to the artificial stimulation carried on by the foreign steamship companies which have

agents scouring southern Europe and western Asia for the most profitable traffic and the cheapest labor.

Likewise it seems to me that his statement that "we cannot declare one race desirable and another undesirable" is open to exception. The United States discriminated against the Chinese, and excludes them for racial reasons. So too the United States has by international agreement brought about or is supposed to have brought about the exclusion of the Japanese.

JAMES H. PATTEN.

Washington, D. C.

TO THE EDITOR:

James H. Patten's strictures on my recent article "A New Expedient for Restricting Immigration" have my attention. It is only on the assumption that the *only* factor to be considered in passing on the value of such legislation is the supposed desirability of restricting immigration, that the Immigration Commission may be said to have "approved" these methods, particularly the new race test. In fact, both Senator Dillingham and Professor Jenks have publicly denied that the commission "recommended" any of these tests.

Mr. Patten, curiously enough, ascribes the high-water mark of immigration in 1907, 1,285,349 arrivals, to Mr. Cleveland's veto message of the literacy test of ten years previously, and ignores the fact that the high immigration of 1905 to 1907 was due to the economic demand for more labor in this country during this prosperous period, which was followed by the voluntary emigration of 395,073 aliens during the first year of the ensuing panic period, ending June 30, 1908.

This year's figures, too, are abnormally high, immigration having been stimulated by the war in eastern Europe, and a general demand for labor all over this country at present. Mr. Patten in his concession that "the tremendous influx of 1907 has not been exceeded since," should have substituted the words "not equaled" for "not exceeded," the average immigration per annum from 1908 to 1912 having been only 858,597. Mr. Patten categorically denies my statement that "immigrants come to this country chiefly at the instance of resident relatives or friends," and contends, on the contrary, that the Immigration Commission has confirmed the claim that "their coming is due chiefly to the artificial stimulation carried on by the foreign steamship companies." As Mr. Patten has even ventured to invoke the findings of the commission in support of his claim, and not mere unbridled imagination, the following statements from the commission's reports are quoted, conclusively refuting his assertions:

> "It is entirely safe to assert that letters to friends at home from persons who have emigrated have been the immediate cause of by far the greater part of the remarkable movement from southern and eastern Europe to the United States during the past twenty-five years. . . . The importance of the advice of friends as an immediate cause of emigration from Europe is also indicated by the fact that nearly all European immigrants admitted to the United States are, according to their own statements, going to join relatives or friends. The record shows that in the fiscal years 1908 and 1909, 94.7 per cent of all European and Syrian immigrants admitted were destined to relatives or friends."[1]

These figures are most important, for they show why such an infinitesimally small number of immigrants become public charges, but, on the contrary, thrive here, relatives and close friends looking after nearly all the newcomers in their new homes. While employing anew this exploded claim that the great bulk of our immigrants are stimulated to come over by the steamship companies, Mr. Patten overlooked my argument that this new expedient of arbitrarily limiting the number of aliens of each nationality per annum would itself artificially increase the immigration, especially in the first part of each year, and play directly into the hands of the steamship runners and smugglers we both refer to, instead of letting nature, the advice of resident relatives and economic conditions here, continue to exert their salutary influence.

The immigration of Orientals like the Chinese and Japanese is not under consideration, the Dillingham bill and other general measures expressly excepting them and continuing in force subsisting laws. Both our Chinese and Japanese exclusion provisions were based on special treaties and arrangements negotiated with those particular countries. There is therefore no occasion to go into the special and peculiar attempted economic justification for these provisions.

Mr. Patten and other advocates of the enactment of such race distinctions as applied to European immigrants would, however, find little comfort in the only scientific, comparative study of race values of resident immigrants thus far published. This study, based on investigation and not mere assumption and prejudice, is Bushbee's Ethnic Factors in the Population of Boston,[2] which places the assimilative value of the English and Irish immigrants relatively low, compared to several nationalities included in the "new immigration." In fact, the alleged non-assimilability of the immigrants of eastern and southern Europe is largely an unwarranted assumption, overlooks our actual experiences with these immigrants during the past twenty-five years, and ignores the wonderfully potent and comprehensive agencies for Americanization and assimilation now at work, undreamed of at the time of the "old immigration."

MAX J. KOHLER.

New York.

[1] Volume I, pp. 187, 188.

[2] Published by the American Economic Association, 3rd Series, Volume IV.

JOTTINGS

SCHOOL FOR RURAL SOCIAL WORKERS

The Massachusetts Agricultural College is carrying on this month a two weeks' School for Rural Social Workers. Courses are given with special reference to particular callings such as librarians, teachers, ministers and others, and covering also the whole field of rural welfare—agricultural, educational, social, and religious. Following this, July 29 to August 2, will be held the Conference of Rural Community Leaders.

CORRECTING AN ERROR

A curious error crept into the paragraph in THE SURVEY of July 5 describing the record of one of President Wilson's nominees for the Industrial Relations Commission, John B. Lennon. It was written that he had been "fearless in presenting the cause of temperance among labor men." The phrase came out "preventing"! The compositor who set up the word was a union man in good standing, but what his habits are we do not know.

SOCIALIZING THE TARIFF

By request of the National Child Labor Committee Senator Borah has introduced an amendment to the pending tariff bill prohibiting the importation of any goods "manufactured wholly or in part by convict labor; or by children under 14 years of age; or by children under 16 years of age employed for more than 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week; or by boys under 18 years of age or women over 16 years of age employed for more than 9 hours per day or 54 hours per week." There was immediate protest from Germany, where the minimum age is thirteen, and from England, where it was stated that the proposed tariff plank would debar all Lancashire textiles from the United States.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

AUGUST CONFERENCES

EDUCATION of Dependent, Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children, National Conference on. Buffalo, N. Y., August 26-28, 1913. Sec'y, E. L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

FOODSTUFFS, International Congress for the Fight against Deterioration and the Adulteration of. Ghent, August 1-3, 1913. Sec'y, M. Antony Neuckens, Hotel de Ville, Brussels.

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, THE AMERICAN. Fifteenth annual conference, Boston, Mass. August 26-29, 1913. Sec'y, Dr. John N. E. Brown, superintendent Detroit General Hospital, Detroit, Mich.

INFANT MORTALITY. English-speaking conference on. London, England, August 4 and 5, 1913. Under auspices of the British National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, London.

PROBATION ASSOCIATION, NATIONAL. Buffalo, N. Y., August 26-28, 1913. Sec'y, Arthur W. Towne, 105 Schermerhorn Street, Brooklyn.

SCHOOL HYGIENE, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

STUDENT CONFERENCE FOR YOUNG WOMEN, Central States. Auspices of National Y. W. C. A. Williams Bay, Lake Geneva, Wis., August 22-September 1, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing conference registrar, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York.

STUDENTS ("Corda Fratres"), Eighth International Congress of. Ithaca, N. Y., August 29-September 13, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing the Cornell Cosmopolitan Club, Ithaca, N. Y.

TOWN PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF MUNICIPAL LIFE, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, summer 1913. General Sec'y, Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

LATER MEETINGS.

INTERNATIONAL.

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, June, 1914. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE CONFERENCE, International. Antwerp, Belgium, September 26-28, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing Miss Pauline Goldmark, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

FARM WOMEN, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

HOUSING, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe, director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, England, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

PURITY CONGRESS, Seventh International. Minneapolis, Minn., November 7-12, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing World's Purity Federation, La Crosse, Wis.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association on. Ghent, Belgium, September 3-6, 1913. American Section Secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23rd Street, New York.

NATIONAL.

CONSERVATION CONGRESS, National. Washington, D. C., November 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, Thomas R. Shipp, Indianapolis, Ind.

FIRE PREVENTION CONFERENCE, National. Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 13-18, 1913. Chairman Fire Prevention Commission, Powell Evans, Philadelphia, Pa.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Seventh annual convention. Grand Rapids, Mich., October 19-25, 1913. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Washington, D. C., November 14-17, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, AMERICAN. Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. March 5-8, 1914. New Haven, Conn. Sec'y, Henry F. Cope, 332 So. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

SETTLEMENTS, Conference of. Pittsburgh, Pa., September 24-26. Sec'y, Robert A. Woods, 20 Union Park, Boston.

STATE AND LOCAL.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Fourteenth New York State Conference of. Buffalo, N. Y., November 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, Marcus A. Beeman, 105 East 22nd Street, New York.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Northampton, Mass., October 21-23, 1913. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston.

EXHIBITIONS

INTERNATIONAL.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, Washington, D. C.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION. San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

SAFETY AND SANITATION, International Exposition of. New York, Dec. 11-20, 1913. Director General, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York City.

SCHOOL HYGIENE, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL.

CONSERVATION EXPOSITION, NATIONAL. Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

VOLUME XXX, No. 18 WEEK OF AUGUST 2, 1913

THE SURVEY

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Constructive Work Before the Industrial Relations Commission

A Symposium

By George Burnham, Jr., Allen T. Burns, W. J. Burns, John Collier, John R. Commons, Edward T. Devine, Edward A. Filene, Hugh F. Fox, William D. Haywood, Robert F. Hoxie, Florence Kelley, Paul U. Kellogg, Louis Levine, Samuel McCune Lindsay, Charles S. Macfarland, John Mitchell, Henry Moskowitz, H. F. J. Porter, Edward A. Ross, F. C. Schwedtman, Henry R. Seager, and Lincoln Steffens.



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THE COMMON WELFARE

TAMMANY AND THE FACTORY FIRE LAWS

A factory fire which was responsible for the death of 150 was the cause of the appointment of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. Another factory fire with a death list of over fifty has come more than two years later to mark a hitch in the going into effect of the laws which were passed last February as the result of the commission's two years' work. On July 22 the Freeman Overall Works of Binghamton, in which 125 girls are said to have been working, was gutted by fire in twenty minutes, leaving according to latest figures fifty-one dead or missing and ten injured.

After two years' work for fire prevention in New York the account of the fire in the Freeman works reads almost word for word like the Triangle or the Newark fires. In all three the workers were clustered on the top floor and in all three the exits were inadequate in number, size and structure to empty the building in the two or three minutes before the flames had turned it into a furnace, with the result that sidewalks and blackened timbers were strewn with dead and maimed.

There are also points of contrast. In the Triangle fire the inflammable contents of the building alone was enough to give the flames sufficient vigor to lick up all living creatures throughout the building; in Newark both contents and non-fireproof structure fed the flame. In both these earlier fires there is some doubt whether all the provisions of the laws were complied with and in both, panic, which it was maintained fire drill would have prevented, added to the slaughter.

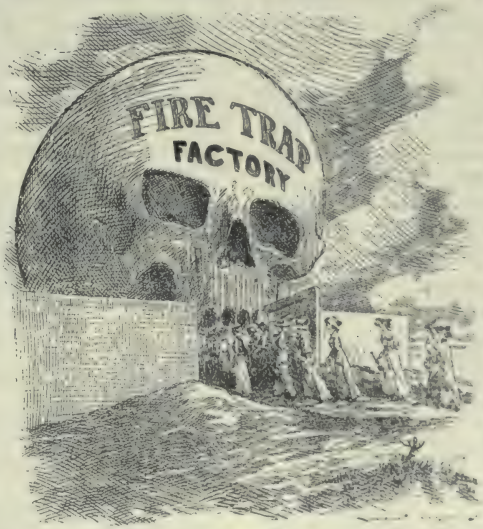
In the Binghamton fire a special investigation of the New York Committee on Safety gives the factory a clean bill of health so far as compliance with laws now in effect is concerned and speaks of its care in the carrying out of the new laws in respect to the disposal of rubbish, prohibition of smoking and other precautions.

Frank S. Nash, the local factory inspector, is reported by the New York *Evening Post* as bearing out the Safety Committee's statement that the factory complied with the law in every respect even to putting steps before windows leading to fire escapes, and installing a fire drill in anticipation of a law which is to go into effect October 1. Strangely enough the fire drill itself proved a stumbling block in the way of rapid exit, as the girls did not believe the alarm was for fire and responded languidly to the irksome drill practice.

Mr. Nash states that under the requirements of the new fire laws, whereby exits must be proportioned to the number of inmates, a new system of fire escapes had already been ordered installed October 1; the fire came too soon to try the efficacy of new exit requirements, and furthermore, critics are calling attention to the fact that one of the most important of the exit laws proposed by the commission, that calling for fireprof enclosures for nonfireproof stairs, was defeated by real estate interests to whom it would have meant expensive reconstruction of old factory buildings.

However, the industrial board created last February which took office immediately could have ordered such reconstruction on its own authority.

But Tammany, against the Sulzer administration, has held up the appointment of a commissioner of labor since January, with the result that some of the most important provisions of the Factory Commission's laws could not become effective. Chief among these provisions was that creating the Industrial Board which was appointed with the expressed object that "all factories, factory



Macauley in New York World.

GOING TO WORK

buildings and mercantile establishments shall be so constructed, equipped, arranged, operated and conducted in all respects as to provide reasonable and adequate protection to the lives, health and safety of all persons employed therein, and that said board shall from time to time make such rules and regulations as will effectuate the said policy and intent."

But the commissioner of labor is chairman of that board, and without him no money can be used and no action taken. So, in spite of the fact that the board has wide powers to improve upon safety laws without the necessity of legislation—

"To make, alter, amend or repeal rules and regulations for guarding against and minimizing fire hazards, personal injuries and disease with respect to the construction, alteration, equipment and maintenance of factories and factory buildings,"

—it has been helpless to prevent the wholesale slaughter in Binghamton. It will remain helpless to order necessary structural changes in the hundreds of other factories throughout the state, constructed and equipped like this Binghamton factory, so long as politics comes before the safety of the workers in factories.

An appeal to the president of the predominantly Democratic Senate by Paul Kennaday of the American Association for Labor Legislation, to hold up action no longer on the governor's appointments is addressed, by the irony of fate, to the very senator, Robert F. Wagner, who fathered the Factory Investigating Commission. Surely, says Mr. Kennaday to the man who is largely responsible for the passing of the commission's law,

"Surely, the appointment of a commissioner of labor, 'friendly to the organization,' who will dispense acceptably the patronage of his office, is not of more importance to you than the appointment at once of a commissioner who will protect the defenceless against locked doors and inadequate fire escapes, against industrial diseases as unnecessary as, under present lack of foresight, they are inevitable, against the employment of women and little children in a manner forbidden by that law of the land which you are under special obligation to uphold."

HOW SHANTYTOWN WENT OUT WITH THE FLOOD

"Shantytown came with the flood of 1884 and goes with the flood of 1913," was the solemn statement of an old resident. For twenty-nine careless years squatters huddled together in their miserable shacks and eked out a shiftless, barbaric existence.

The dwellers of Shantytown evinced their artistic nature by locating on the banks of the Ohio River above one of its beautiful stretches of scenery just below the Southern Bridge at Cincinnati. But they ignored the laws of sanitation by locating at the mouth of Mill Creek, the great open city sewer, foul and stifling during the warm seasons.

"For twenty years Shantytown has been the bane of my life and a continued source of trouble to our teachers," stated Professor Vorhees of the Oyler School. "The water line was just above the children's wrists and many went for months without a bath, being breeders and spreaders of vermin and disease."

The lessons of morality, civility and decency taught during the day were annulled by home influences over night and during vacations. The task of making good citizens under such difficulties was hopeless.

The Visiting Nurse Association, the Associated Charities, the Juvenile Court and all agencies brought in touch with the dreadful conditions were overwhelmed with the difficulties constantly arising. Shantytown was the harbinger of petty criminals, licentious men, besotted old women, and the shiftless, lazy derelicts of humanity. These in the main were the sort of people who possessed the land—whose land, nobody really knew.

Before the flood, with the cordial urging of other social workers and the assistance of Jean Wood, the West End agent of the Associated Charities, S. D. Watts, superintendent of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, made a survey of Shantytown. There were forty-six old shacks constructed of old boxes, boards, scraps of tin and like rubbish. These miserable structures were packed together so closely that it was difficult to get to and around them as they formed a perfect labyrinth, a veritable fire-trap. Just one privy was found, which had absolutely no sanitary precaution, not even a vault. The ashes, garbage and waste material of all sorts were dumped wherever convenient. A great unsightly rubbish heap, a junk pile with cans of stagnant, foul-smelling water lay at the front door of Shantytown. The only water available for drinking and domestic purposes was a quarter of a mile away.

Thus within a great modern city lived these people under the most primitive conditions. The census enumerated one hundred and eighty-nine persons. There were sixty-five children under fourteen years of age, thirty-eight of whom attended the Oyler School. In one shanty nine persons occupied one room, in another six occupied one room, in three cases eight occupied two rooms, and in three cases seven occupied two rooms. Thus congested, degeneracy in every form prevailed and continually increased.

After considerable search the owner of the land was found. Meanwhile, the Health Department and the commissioner of buildings searched their codes for authority to assist in improving conditions, but to no avail. The coal company that leased the land consented to issue orders

of eviction to each resident. The social workers were to follow this by trying to persuade the people to move to better quarters.

All these carefully laid plans were swept aside by the flood. Mr. Watts and Miss Wood were the first on the scene on Saturday, the day the water threatened to cover Shantytown. A call for volunteer wagons was sent out, to which some twenty-four responded. Social workers secured room for Shantytown folks, in many cases paying rent, and all were moved out. The police patrol wagon was the last resort in removing a few.

The waters prevailed from Saturday until Monday. During this time Mr. Watts, who was stationed at the Oyler School, warned the people that they must not think of returning to Shantytown as the shanties were going to be destroyed by the coal company. He appealed to the manhood and womanhood of the people and insisted upon their assuming the obligations of decent citizens. The coal company would not assume the responsibility of wrecking the shanties but was finally persuaded to turn the land over to the Associated Charities and the City Department of Charities and Correction for two weeks to do with as they saw fit. The co-operation of the city department of charities, police, fire and engineering were secured, and every shanty was burned to the ground.

Many of the inhabitants were glad thus to be forced on their feet. Men who had not worked regularly for years have accepted steady jobs. The agents of the Associated Charities are keeping in close touch with the families, friendly visitors will be secured and every effort made to lift them to better standards of living.

When the flood subsided Shantytown was gone.

CUPID AND THE CHERRY WIDOWS

So many Cherry mine widows have remarried that all the calculations for the pension fund have been upset. Of the $100,000 originally appropriated by the Illinois Legislature, $43,000 remained unexpended and reverted to the state treasury, but this year's Legislature reappropriated the money.

When the Red Cross worked out the pension scheme, the national director, Ernest P. Bicknell, estimated that of the 114 widows, whose average age was twenty-six years, half would marry again in the first two years, that at the end of five years a still larger proportion would have remarried, and that those who did not remarry by that time probably never would remarry. Others, including the members of the Cherry Mine Commission, thought that Mr. Bicknell greatly overestimated the part which marriage would play in relieving the pension fund from the care of these widows and their families. The money which Mr. Bicknell thought adequate for the fund they considered far too little, but they finally accepted his calculations and set aside the sum he suggested. Now it has turned out that even Mr. Bicknell should have had more confidence in Cupid.

At the end of three years no less than fifty-six of the pension widows had married. The number was further depleted by removals, eleven to Europe, two deaths and nine granted Carnegie pensions, so that only thirty-six widows of the 114 were receiving pensions July 1.

At a meeting July 10 the commission decided to transfer the twenty beneficiaries of the second class, called allotment families, to beneficiaries of the first class, or pension families. The plan under which the commission began its payments, provided for two classes of beneficiaries—a pension class, where all the children in the families were under fourteen years of age, and an allotment class for the payment of certain pro rata allotments to families where some of the children were over fourteen, or to widows without children. Under the original plan the commission decided to pay pensions only until the oldest, or perhaps in some cases the two or three oldest children, were fourteen. But at the meeting of July 10 it decided to grant pensions until the youngest child reaches fourteen. Thus every Cherry family will be pensioned until the youngest child is of legal working age. Moreover, at the termination of the pension the widow will be paid a lump sum of one hundred dollars, which will be increased as the state of the funds permits. In this way an elastic sinking fund will be provided out of wnich payments can be made from time to time to the widows, until the fund is exhausted.

POLITICS AT ALBANY MUTINY AT SING SING

It looks as if politics may be in part responsible, not only for the Binghamton factory fire, but for the state of mutiny which has existed for over a week among the prisoners at Sing Sing.

On July 23, fire broke out in the prison mat factory, spread rapidly to paint and wagon shops, taking in a third of the prison shops and the north gate of the prison in its course. Incendiarism was suspected from the beginning, and this suspicion was confirmed by the threatening and obstreperous conduct of the prisoners, as well as by the fact that in the course of the three succeeding days two fires broke out in other parts of the prison. Meanwhile the 213 prisoners dispossessed of their work in the mat shop, refused to be kept in their cells, took their stand in the yard after the dinner hour, ready to fight, but were finally allowed by the warden,

J. N. Clancy, to remain in the yard on promise of good behavior. This promise they kept till supper time, when they voluntarily withdrew to their cells with their bread and coffee, but used the pieces of hard bread as missiles to throw at the warden when he came out to inspect the ruins, breaking two hundred cell window panes in the process.

The next day showed that, whatever the grievance, there was evidently a concerted revolt among the 1447 prisoners, for about one hundred men in the shoe shop struck in sympathy with the idle mat workers, who were that day kept in their cells. On the same day, the tailor shop was set on fire, though this fire did little damage.

The following day saw sixty men, judged to be ringleaders of the "arson squad" removed to Auburn Prison, and 350 confined in their cells, from which they shouted threats of fire and other vengeance. Their threats were later borne out by the discovery of a fire in one cell and of dangerous home-made weapons of various sorts in others. On this day also workers in the shoe shop broke all the shop windows and it is said that a general jail delivery was planned but prevented on the information of a prisoner. Fears of disaffected guards and of friends on the outside helping the prisoners have made the mutiny more alarming. The removal of more prisoners is expected.

The warden's attitude toward the mutineers has been conciliatory and characterized by a sincere desire to find out their grievances rather than to exact punishment for their insubordination.

As yet the causes of the outbreak are uncertain. The recent revelations in regard to bad conditions in the cell house and in prison discipline led to a change not only of warden but of several minor officials and it is stated that some of the new men are not popular.

More serious still, it is said that guards who were friendly with the officials removed have stirred up trouble among the prisoners in order to discredit the new prison administration. Another suggested explanation lays the responsibility at the door of the Legislature, which has refused to confirm Governor Sulzer's appointment of J. D. Riley as superintendent of prisons.

This has held back the use of funds and the necessary transfer of 125 men from this overcrowded prison to Auburn is said to have become known and resented by the prisoners. The very fact that Sing Sing is in bad odor with the public is in itself almost enough to account for a condition of unrest among the prisoners. Only investigation by the warden—it is even rumored that the Legislature will take a hand—will, however, get to the real bottom causes of the outbreak.

PENSIONS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

The question of pensions for social workers got down to practical terms when the conference of Jewish Social Workers passed the following resolution:

> Resolved, that this meeting of the National Association of Jewish Social Workers desires to record its approval of the plan of annuities proposed by the committee on pensions, and be it further
>
> Resolved, that the incoming executive committee be authorized to continue the present committee, or to appoint another committee for the same purpose, whose duty shall be to communicate with Jewish social workers to ascertain how many of them may desire to join such a fund, and shall also be authorized to communicate with non-Jewish social workers in order to secure their co-operation in the plan, and further to take any other such action as may be necessary to institute the fund so soon as five hundred persons or societies shall have indicated their desire to join, and in general to take all action that may be necessary to provide for the establishment and organization of the fund through the executive committee of the National Association of the Jewish Social Workers.

Discussion at the conference, which was an informal gathering, centered largely around more effective use of the settlement as a means of making the new world an effective melting-pot. "We wanted the melting-pot to melt the immigrant quickly," said Oscar Leonard of St. Louis, "but we have learned that those who melt too quickly do not add much to the finished product. The melting-pot—yes, but let it melt slowly and carefully so that the best elements may be preserved and fused to bring forth the best possible product."

Toward the newly arrived Jewish immigrant and the adolescent Jewish girl it was felt that the settlement was not fully meeting its responsibility—was not, among other things, adapting itself sufficiently to Jewish traditions to give it a hold on the Jew and bring him to an understanding of American traditions and his rights on American soil. The subject, which was discussed in various aspects by C. S. Bernheimer of Brooklyn, Bernard C. Richards of the New York Kehillar, Oscar Leonard and Sadie American, was considered of sufficient importance to vote it a session for further discussion and report at the next meeting of the conference.

A topic which represented the latest development in the Jewish immigration problem was the Oriental Jew for whose protection and Americanization the Federation of Oriental Jews was organized not long ago. Joseph Gedalecia, the

president of this association, introduced the discussion.

The human engineering side of industrial activities, federation of charitable agencies, social work of the synagogue and of the hospitals, after-care of institutional cases, the inefficient, family desertion, the training of social workers and their pensioning at old age were among the other topics discussed. The resolutions on some of these subjects embodied interesting suggestions. Among other measures urged were after-care for children discharged from institutions, the opening of clinics and dispensaries during evening hours, for the benefit of working people, and extension of such statistical study of the inefficient as that now being made by the United Hebrew Charities of New York.

The officers, all re-elected, are Morris D. Waldman, president; Blanch Hart, vice-president; Dr. Sidney Goldstein, treasurer; Philip L. Seman, secretary—all New Yorkers, except Miss Hart of Detroit.

CAPITAL AND THE I. W. W. JOIN AT SAGAMORE BEACH

Sagamore Beach is common ground. For seven years it has afforded the place for a "get together" sociological conference of people holding widely different views. They do not agree, but they try to see and understand and respect each other's faith and purpose.

Capitalist and syndicalist did not enact the role of lion and lamb, but at this year's conference, July 1 to 3, George W. Perkins and Arturo Giovannitti found it possible to discuss their divergent beliefs and programs in good nature and fellowship. And there was enough of a truce in the clash between the American Federation of Labor and the I. W. W. for a baseball game in which "put yourself in the other's place" seemed one of the main rules, for A. J. Portenar pitched for the I. W. W., while Giovannitti performed for the A. F. of L.

The striking feature of the conference was not in what was said—the same things have been said many times before. It was in the occasion and manner of saying. Mr. Perkins does not, perhaps, voice the entire sentiment of the steel trust, but he does represent a large and constantly growing point of view on the part of the employing class. He gave a vision of labor and capital dwelling in an era of mutual confidence and understanding. Giovannitti, with equal frankness, condemned the planting of dynamite, whether at Los Angeles or at Lawrence, while claiming as a proper and efficient weapon the full doctrine of sabotage, an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, "a dishonest day's work for a dishonest day's pay."

Another aspect of the labor question was discussed by Robert G. Valentine, "labor counsellor," and Miner Chipman, efficiency engineer. Both emphasized the question as a human problem, whether from the point of view of the employer, the bondholder or the laborer. Efficiency was declared to be sociological rather than economic. The audit which the sociologist makes of the whole labor situation in any industrial concern is nowadays as valuable, they said, to banking concerns selling securities of those concerns as any investigation of plants or auditing of books.

A noticeable human touch was given to the conference by the participation of Helen Keller, who at one time remarked that she was neither a capitalist, a labor leader, nor a strike breaker. Charles Rann Kennedy was constantly the center of a group discussing his plays.

Just as in the Ford Hall meetings in Boston, the spirit of George W. Coleman pervaded the Sagamore conference. He and his wife have been the sole hosts of the gathering, but this year a few others insisted on sharing the financial burden. His emphasis on fellowship and good will, which he himself personified, characterized all in the effort to find the common ground of faith in and service to humanity.

THE RAILWAY CONTROVERSY

Last week the members of the new railway mediation board met in New York and entered actively upon an effort to bring the railroads and the conductors' and trainmen's brotherhoods to an agreement as to arbitration.

As stated in THE SURVEY last week there was danger that the arbitration plans might fail on account of the list of "grievances" submitted at the last moment by the railway managers. Another complication was the withdrawal of the Erie Railroad from the conference committee of managers, which is handling the controversy for the roads, with the understanding that it would not be party to any arbitration proceeding.

It was the latter phase of the matter to which the conciliation board gave first attention. On July 23 they were able to announce that the Erie had withdrawn its objections to arbitration, and that it would abide by an arbitration award.

The board was then able to turn to the more vexing question of the demands of the managers. It is believed now that the outlook for arbitration is very hopeful.

The board of mediation, as at present constituted, includes Commissioner William Lea Chambers, Assistant Commissioner G. W. W. Hanger and Judge Martin A. Knapp. The appointment of Louis F. Post, assistant secretary

of labor, as a member of the board was found to be invalid. He was appointed to his position by Secretary Wilson while the text of the arbitration board law calls for two government officers who were appointed to their positions by the President.

Last week the President appointed Royal Meeker, professor of economics in Princeton University, commissioner of labor statistics. It is probable that he will be named as the fourth member of the board.

FINGER PRINTS

THE PRIZE APRON

SCOTT NEARING

FARMER Burton set his square jaw and for the fourth time in two years undertook a campaign against the local school teacher. She was lazy; she was mean to the children; she did not mind her own business.

Farmer Burton had a reputation as a fighter, derived from a long life of constant bickering with everyone who did not agree with his point of view.

The three teachers who had held the position during two years, accepting Farmer Burton on his reputation, had given up the fight before they began it. But the fourth teacher had no such intention. She was somewhat of a fighter herself, though her pugnacity followed different channels. When the county superintendent gave her the post, she told about Farmer Burton, his opposition to all schools in general and this school in particular, his indifference to the education of other people's children as well as his own, and his general disposition to make it as disagreeable as a prominent citizen in his position could make it for the successor of the three unfortunates. So this teacher went in determined not only to beat Farmer Burton at his own game, but to beat him so badly that he would eat from the hand of educational authority.

The little white schoolhouse in which teacher number 4 taught, held, among other children, a daughter of Farmer Burton, with the same sandy hair and the same square jaw which had made her father the terror of the educational neighborhood.

Teacher number 4 decided to pit the daughter against the father. Since she was younger and unhampered by other cares the odds seemed to be unfavorable to the father.

Over at the county seat there was to be a contest in December, at which all of the children who cared to do so might exhibit products of their handiwork. The boys took axe handles, model chicken coops, seed corn, and sugar beets. The girls exhibited pies, preserves, and needlework. The teacher saw in the county exhibit the weapon with which Farmer Burton's square jaw would at last be shattered.

Up to that time no member of Farmer Burton's family had ever taken any interest in county exhibits. Why should they when their father so thoroughly disapproved of the schools? This year, however, after a little urging, the sandy-haired, firm-mouthed daughter agreed to make an apron and exhibit it at the county contest in December. True to her paternity, having once made up her mind that she was to engage in the contest, she settled in her own mind as a matter of course that she should take first prize. She always did things that way. In the face of home opposition, laughed at by brothers and sisters and sneered at by her father, the girl made her apron and sent it among the other exhibits from the school. Among nearly three hundred aprons, this one took first prize.

It was nine o'clock at night when the judges finally reached their decision, and someone 'phoned out to tell Farmer Burton's daughter that she had beaten the county at apron-making. The next morning she came to the exhibit at seven o'clock, with her lunch in a basket, and all that day she stood by the apron listening covetously to the generous comments which her beautiful sewing and her blue ribbon elicited from the passing crowd. At eight, mother and the other children arrived, also with a lunch basket, to spend the rest of the day in admiration before the successful apron. At ten, Farmer Burton himself strode into the hall. Pushing aside the people who were in the way, he marched proudly up to his daughter, exclaiming in the hearing of the county superintendent, the daughter, and all of the assembled multitude: "Molly, I want you and Fred (her brother) to go just as far as you like in school, and remember that I am back of you as far as you want to go."

When night closed on that notable day, and the Burton family, overwhelmed with congratulations, proud beyond compare of its sandy-haired, firm-mouthed daughter, and tired of jostling with the moving crowds, clambered into its buggies, a mighty force had been added to the educational spirit of the county. Teachers no longer dread to take the school in Farmer Burton's neighborhood, and when the county superintendent wants a particularly effective man to help in a tight place, it is Farmer Burton who is always called for the work.

Farmer Burton needed socializing; the school did the work. From a father who took a prodigious amount of interest in his farm, and little enough in his family, he has been converted into

a man with intense family enthusiasm, and a firm conviction that whatever else may be wrong in the world, his children and what they do are certainly right.

Not through carefully written books or theories initiated in grandiose language, not through drastic teaching of any sort, but in such simple ways are the rural schools becoming socialized.

DAUGHTERS OF AESCULAPIUS: AN ALLEGORY

JOSEPH D. HOLMES

WHEN the two daughters of the wisest physician known to history came of age, they thought long and deeply of how they should bring their father's precepts into use to benefit mankind. The younger daughter, fair, sanguine and enthusiastic, started first. She found fields for her benevolent activity on every hand—medicines for the sick, bandages for the wounded, words of cheer for the down-trodden and distressed. These and all other good works followed her steps and radiated from her beautiful example. It was hers to cool the brow of fever, to meet the pressing needs of the widow and orphan, and sometimes to care fittingly for the bodies of the dead.

As her activities became known and appreciated, so the demands upon her widened. Much that she saw was the result of neglect, often of wrong. Streets must be swept, drinking water filtered, milk for infants sterilized. And all the while new needs appeared until she found much of her time given to appeals for help, calling on those of like spirit to give of their time and their means to alleviate the condition, while they helped to dispel the suffering of mankind.

Her fame grew as her followers multiplied. Statues of her were placed, sometimes with the added wings of an angel, before foundling asylums and orphan homes, so that often her cult, which was large and growing, was confused with that of "Charity."[1]

Meanwhile, the other sister sat at home most of the time thinking. She was plainer of face, somewhat stern of feature, but with a noble brow. And if she lacked the transparent beauty and grace of the younger, no one who looked at her carefully could miss the true benevolence of her mind and heart.

At last she set forth. Straight up the hill to the capitol she went and broke in upon a session of the Senate which was listening to a classical oration on the proper symbols with which to do reverence to the heroes of the past. She interrupted their deliberations. With a short introduction she began to rehearse with burning words the deeds which had made her sister so admired; while at the same time she placed the causes which were responsible for them at the door of their system of laws, some neglected, many obsolete.

"Of what use, O Senators," she cried, "to place temples for the worship of my father on the salubrious hill sides, while you allow his precepts to be neglected in the streets and slums below?" And, in well-ordered and clear terms, she placed before them her plans. Clean water, clean air, clean earth, with these alone would life in Athens be tolerable. Without these was it not becoming a city of shame? So the aqueducts must be pure at the source, and the water need not be filtered; the milk supply pure, so it need not be sterilized. The streets must be kept clean, and they must be laid out wide, and straight, and smooth; and slums and back alleys wiped away.

And as they listened and agreed (for who could gainsay her?), she broadened her theme.

"But O, ye Senators, before all ye must be just," and she spoke of the taxes so laid as to be a clog on enterprise; unequal, hampering opportunity, but favoring the covetous. She spoke of the land, with its opportunity for youth, neglected, while the prosperity of the city was sought in barter and sale. She spoke of education and its lack of that moral basis which in old times had made the nation great.

And while she spoke and the wisdom and learning and art of Athens listened, all the soul of the people revived, all that had made it great returned with a high resolve that the beautiful city should once more stand for all that was highest and most worthy in civilization.

And the younger sister is named *Panacea*, and the elder is *Hygeia*.

[1]See Giotto's *Karitas, Fors Clavigera*, Vol. I, Ch. VII.

BY BREAD 'ALONE

V. M. MACDONALD

IT was six o'clock on a winter evening when the district nurse turned from the street filled with a hurrying home-seeking army of lower East Side workers into the gloom of an Italian tenement. Inside the feeble gas jet seemed only to intensify the darkness. From floor to floor she went, knocking at every door. No one could say where to find the Petraglia family.

Once more the nurse drew from her bag the postcard appeal for her care. "Please come. My brother's face too fat. Guiseppe Petraglia. No. —— Elizabeth St."

Yes, this was the right house. As a last chance she appealed to a ragged, rough-looking man in the lower hall. "Yes, me Petraglia. Come."

Small wonder that she had a momentary shiver of fear when he led the way down a dim, narrow stair to a mouldy basement. He opened a

door and disclosed a small kitchen. A weary woman stood with her little brood around her. In a few moments the nurse learned that the "face too fat" was a case of mumps. She gave simple directions, told how to get a doctor, and paused for a few friendly words in her limited Italian, the "dialetto di Spring Street."

What part of Italy had they come from? "From Sicily." The nurse had spent a winter there.

"Davvero? Did she know Palermo?" drawing nearer with growing interest. Yes, and it was very beautiful.

At that the chairs were pulled closer. Father and mother glanced at one another.

"Of course, the signorina did not know Girgenti?" Yes, she had been there. Then with shining eyes the two broke out into little staccato phrases: "how molto bella was Girgenti"; "how bellissima the old temples"; "how sweet the flowers smelled"; "how lovely the almond-blossoms!"

As the chorus of "molto bella" grew, the baby crept over the floor cooing, and the cat purred and rubbed against the visitor's dress.

Then, with a look of sadness, "Italia all beautiful, but no good for job. Rich people there no make job. America good for moneta, but not si bella; look!"—and the scenery of America as they knew it was shown through the tiny window—a gaping cavern where through long days great shovels and buckets tore and shifted the reeking soil, as the city of their adoption strove with one of its mighty subterranean problems.

Here—stench and noise and ugliness. Across the sea—flowers and art and peace and beauty. But "Italy no good for moneta. America good for job."

"JUST FOR A RIBBON"[1]

GERTRUDE SEYMOUR

"JUST for a ribbon!" but that was enough to threaten a girl's whole future.

So pretty she was as she stood before us, and so daintily dressed! Careful brushing and pressing had kept in the cheap suit a stylish air; the inevitable lace collar was small and of a pretty pattern; the light curly hair was fashionably coiffured, and three artificial curls dangling behind her left ear added a coquettish touch pathetically contradicted by tears in very frightened eyes.

The watchful depot matron had seen the child sitting alone in the waiting room, looking very serious and counting her money. Here were familiar symptoms of trouble, and the matron at once proceeded to diagnosis. Without much difficulty she gained the truth—money enough to get to Omaha; not enough to live there while finding work. A mis-calculation somewhere. This much we learned through the telephone. In the office, the child told the rest of her story.

The core of the trouble was a step-mother. A stern, practical woman she had small sympathy with "frills." They were to her "silly extravagances," not evidences of an awakening esthetic instinct that needed to be wisely gratified. So, the girl's weekly salary went for household and family expenses, merely enough allowed her for carfare and lunches, not a penny for belt, or hat feather, or hair-ribbon. The woman's sternness seemed to focus on the girl; to the other children she was at least sometimes generous. The big boys paid their board and kept the rest of their earnings. Such an arrangement the step-mother would not make with May. The father had buried himself in business after his first wife's death and, taking the new wife simply to care for his house and children, insisted upon leaving details of management to her. So there was no help for May save in her own ingenuity.

And her own ingenuity took her far on her way. She did extra work for months, receiving extra pay which she most carefully hid till she had $18. Then, at the last moment she took $2 from her step-mother's purse, borrowed $5 from the grocer, and started for Omaha—*via town*. (Hence the lace collar, the coiffure, and the three little curls). One of her office friends had married someone who lived in Omaha. She could get her help in finding work,—then she would be independent. Yes, she had the name and could easily find the address when she got there. She must have spent a little more than she thought in town, and was making up her cash account when the matron spoke to her—but she must get to Omaha; for there were five other girls who felt as she did about their homes, and were going to follow her as soon as she found work for them out there. She took from her nearly empty little satchel (her only baggage) a paper bearing their names and addresses, and blushed as she showed, too, a letter to one of the beauty columns of a city paper—she thought the cow-boy style would be more becoming to her, and wanted to know how to make her curls into bangs—she was going to mail it when she knew her Omaha address! Everything was planned; everything was all right—except the money!

Her story proved true in every detail. The father, shocked at the revelation, quickly arranged for May to live with an aunt in another part of the city, and to go for a time to school, for he was neither poor nor at heart indifferent. And so, pretty May is not walking the hills and facing the winds of Omaha, looking for friends and work. A safer way has been found to the home and pretty things which are her desire and her right.

[1]Drawn from the records of the Juvenile Protective Association, Chicago.

MEMPHIS TODAY

FRANCIS H. McLEAN
General Secretary American Association for Organizing Charity

The last six years have given us the beginnings of a "new South," or may one say "a newer South"? The economic growth, the advance in the development of certain political tendencies, as typified in the term the "new South," have been followed by a growing interest in intensive social development in the larger cities.

The South was by no means uninterested in social legislation prior to the last six years. The child labor movement and the educational movement long preceded that time. Yet both of the movements undoubtedly suffered because outside of the two interested groups there were not many inevitable points of contact beyond the propaganda work itself where the uninterested were being forced to realize the individual results of social forces. There can be no doubt that the absence of growing intensive work and of social thinking were handicapped therefore.

The "newer South" may be illustrated from the history of a number of southern cities, such as Atlanta and Jacksonville. One of the most striking illustrations would be Memphis, and because that city is to have the 1914 National Conference of Charities and Correction, it may be interesting to note a few facts regarding it.

Memphis is the commercial center for the central southwestern section of the country. With the single exception of Atlanta, no other southern city presents so imposing an area of modern business buildings. But only within the last few years have municipal politics been considered aught else than a useful field in which to play state politics, and politics in Tennessee *is* politics. In 1907 there was only one modern social agency in Memphis, a playground association. Today there is commission form of government with many strong departments.

One of the strongest is a Department of Health which has an appropriation approaching 10 per cent of the total income of the city. There is a progressing Juvenile Court. There has been great development in medical and nursing service. A remarkable Associated Charities is gradually extending its activities. Clearing the ground somewhat encumbered, mendicancy has been brought under control.

A baby welfare department with city aid is most completely organized. An obstetrical nurse does prenatal work with the mother, nurses mother and baby, and then the baby is brought once a month to the department, which has a complete service, with medical aid, special diet, etc.

There have also been established in the same way dispensaries for eye, ear, nose, throat, tuberculous, orthopedic, nerve, mental and skin disease service.

In family rehabilitation, a special department for Negroes has been established.

Child caring is beginning to loom up as a duty and housng is fast becoming a practical issue with the strong Health Department.

Development is along those sensible lines which are characteristic of southern cities. Once started in the field they have allowed no consideration of social panaceas to turn them from the building up of the primary and essential agencies, public and private, necessary to any well-rounded development. Their sympathies and interest are extending rapidly because of a rapid but rational growth.

When the National Conference of Charities and Correction goes to Memphis next spring it will find a splendid seed ground for all sensible programs, and a splendid forum for touching vast areas of the southern field, eager, ambitious, and finally courageous and generous. It is a field which has taken some of the best of our social workers and which bids fair to show amazing achievements in the next ten years.

GOOD, BAD AND "DADDY GEORGE"

WILLIAM R. GEORGE
Founder of the George Junior Republic

A school superintendent out in Mansfield, Ohio, by name Harlan E. Hall, has stirred up a lively controversy among some of the most prominent men of our country as to whether Good should have given information against Bad when the teacher asked the question, "Who broke the window in the school house?" It seems that Bad (whether or not he should have been called that name is an open question) told Good (a name likewise debatable) he was going to do the job, and straightway proceeded to carry out his declaration.

Replies from the eminent men in *The Outlook* showed that they were principally divided into two groups: the smaller group declared that Good should have told, the larger group declared that he should not have told, the words "snitcher" and "boy code" appearing occasionally in their replies. The men of the latter opinion evidently went back, for the time being, to their boyhood days whence scenes similar to the incident between Bad and Good came to their minds afresh, and unhesitatingly they declared that Good should not have told and that the teacher actually did wrong in asking the boys individually the question.

In all probability 75 per cent of the red-blooded business men of the nation would likewise declare that Good should not have told; that the boy world hates a "snitcher" and that the "boy code" will not tolerate it for a moment.

I charge that this universal acceptance of the fact that youth from fourteen to the time of their majority must be given the opportunity of having their peculiar world to themselves, although it be filled with acts of violence against the property and person of law-abiding citizens, is the thing which is playing the mischief with our social conditions.

Yes, the world generally maintains this attitude, and so do all the boys, whether they take part in acts of violence or not. As a result many strong-minded boys are declared by society to be criminals when really, if given responsibility for what is known in legal phraseology as the "civil code" instead of the "boy code," they would very soon become leaders for law and order. But the general public does not seem to realize that boys can be made useful in upholding the "civil code" and at the same time get the same fun out of life as they do in upholding the "boy code."

Under existing conditions, life is not what it should be to boys like Good. Although they do not belong to Bad's gang, they are always more or less conversant with the lawless things that Bad's gang are doing. They realize that the "boy code" extends even to them and that they must not "snitch" because the world not only implies, but upholds, the idea that they are not yet old enough to assume any sort of responsibility.

Therefore, when good people are making frantic endeavors to find out what boy in the community committed some lawless act, young Good must remain absolutely quiet and not for an instant harbor the thought that he has any duty in the way of bringing the ends of justice to pass. As a result, from day to day as he approaches his majority, he gets in the habit of seeing wrongs unrighted, and each day the belief crystallizes that these wrongs are no affair of his, until finally when he arrives at full citizenship he joins the large company of unspeakable nonentities who are afraid to have a mind of their own. In the same connection it is interesting to note that some of the lawless young fellows who were labelled Bad, upon reaching their majority, throw all of the energy which had been used in pranks on the side of law and order, and become leading and honorable citizens.

Yes, I should arrange to make the "boy code" and the "civil code" coincide. I should have youth given the opportunity of exercising responsibility. Would I have a boy as young as Good actually attempt on his own part to regulate Bad? Most certainly. In the Civil War we find that a considerable number of lads fourteen years of age actually performed the military service of men in their country's cause. With this thought in mind, let me submit for consideration a parallel "question of conduct."

Good is a soldier fourteen years old on the picket line close to the enemy, and as we understand from old soldiers, pickets of opposing armies sometimes forget they are at war with one another and become a bit chummy. In quite a matter-of-fact way young Good comes near the pickets of the enemy and suddenly discovers that the member of the enemy's soldiery nearest him is a lad of his own age, and that his name is Bad. They exchange such courtesies as are tolerated by the rules of pickets when there is a lull in actual warfare. Suddenly Bad says to Good: "I can see over in your camp. I can see that general of yours sitting on his horse. I am a crack shot and I am going to bring him down." What should Good do? How absurd the question!

In all this controversy of Bad, Good, the window light, the teacher, I should never have had the matter come to the teacher at all. I should have had Good say, "Bad, don't you do it!" Then if Bad had attempted it, I would have had Good say, "Bad, if you do that, I will smite you in the face"—or more probably he would have used the term common to boys, "I will smash you one in the jaw." And then, if Bad had carried out his intent and broken the window, I should have had Good carry out his declaration as well as his physical condition would permit.

Perhaps this may not sound like the best sort of ethics, but I do not hesitate for an instant to line it up for comparison with the two rules of conduct which have already been suggested. It is a lot better than either "snitching" or, that which I feel is nearly as bad, standing idly by, having the knowledge that a base act has been performed, yet quiescently saying or doing nothing to aid the cause of justice.

To sum it all up, I should attempt to solve a lot of our problems with youth by giving them a hand in their solution. If it is recognized that boys can assume the full responsibilities of manhood in time of war to the great advantage of the nation, they ought to be given at least some measure of responsibility in time of peace, both for the good of the nation and their own education. Self-government among youth may not be the panacea for all the ills of society, but it will certainly solve the window-smashing proposition in a jiffy. Let Bad be brought before the boy judge by the boy policeman, let this judge prescribe a punishment fitted to meet the crime, and then let the youthful dignitary who has been selected by his peers to carry out the decree of their court do so without fear or favor. Righteous citizenship will thus be advanced 75 per cent, and the boys, aside from the salutary training they are receiving, will get just as much fun out of the whole affair as they would in committing lawless acts against a peaceful community.



THE NEIGHBORHOOD WITHIN THE CITY

GREENWICH VILLAGE IN LOWER MANHATTAN

MORNAY WILLIAMS

The observance last May of Old Home Week in Greenwich Village has called attention to a side of our urban life which in the busy rush of so cosmopolitan a city as New York is likely to be overlooked. It is the persistence of the small unit—the neighborhood entity—within the bounds of the larger community.

While it is easy to press the generalization too far, it is true that localities persist, in spite of a complete change in the personnel of the inhabitants and their character. Tyburnia is a section of the London of today, severable and distinct, though the fashionable life which characterizes it gives no suggestion of the gallows hill for which it was named; and, though an American pilgrim would find no traces of the Fleet ditch, which was one of the boundaries of that Alsatia so vividly described in Scott's Peveril of the Peck or Ainsworth's Miser's Daughter, and though the inhabitants of the ancient sanctuary have passed away as completely as the ditch, Alsatia exists.

The landmarks go. New streets and new avenues, and sometimes, God be thanked, new playgrounds change not only the aspect of the place but the character of the population as much as do the vicissitudes of the years—death and emigration—but the neighborhood continues.

And it is well that it is so, for the tradition of the small locality has, in the life of the people, an office cognate to that of the folk tale and the proverb. It is a community memory. It embalms the moral lesson of forgotten happenings. Historically it may be as inaccurate as the myths of a primitive people, but sociologically it has something of the charm and the power of a fairy tale.

The old dresses, the old stories, the old songs and the old dances that were the visible reminders of the old days to the present-day denizens of Greenwich Village lost none of their charm because most of those present-day residents had never known the old village, nor, for the matter of that, had their parents. It is a habit of men to seek to associate personality with locality. In more than one nation it has had a good deal to do with bad land laws. Long before the Christian era it was observed that, "Wise men die, likewise the fool and the brutish person perish, and leave their wealth to others. Their inward thought is that their houses shall continue forever and their dwelling-places to all generations; they call their lands after their own names. Nevertheless, man being in honor abideth not; he is like the beasts that perish. This their way is their folly; yet their posterity approve their sayings."

Now, one of the peculiar characteristics of a city is that it tends to break up the large holdings of land by single individuals and the handing of them down in families. The rule has notable exceptions in both London and New York, but the rule holds, and the tendency of public opinion is clearly to extend it. And it is here that the neighborhood tradition seizes on what is natural and desirable in that almost universal human tendency on which the Hebrew Psalmist animadverts. Without the ruthless selfishness of the private landlord, without the pride of family or race, the neighborhood cherishes traditions, and, with the naivete of a Plutarch, is quite as apt to record the evil as the good achieved by its heroes.

Another advantage of neighborhood persistence is the humanness of the record it keeps. Neighborhood tradition is not a thing of dates, nor even, alas! always of sober fact. A haunted house is as dear to it as the mythical birthplace

of a great man. The historian may scoff, and the statistician may groan, but just here is the human value of neighborhood traditions. The Cock Lane ghost never walked in reality, but its footprints are firmly imbedded in English literature, and the imaginary has a permanent effect on life in many instances. This it is which popular memory holds, even as popular fancy initiates.

The stories which Mr. DeForest's nurse told to him in his Greenwich Village home may have no very substantial foundation in fact, and it might be difficult to substantiate the legend of the capture from the old Brush house in Grove Street of a young white girl by the Indians, but the life, of which they are but the fossil remains, as it were, was once real and vital, and the local tradition is its preservative, making it possible for us, in another day, not indeed to revivify the ancient monster, but to construct a model of it.

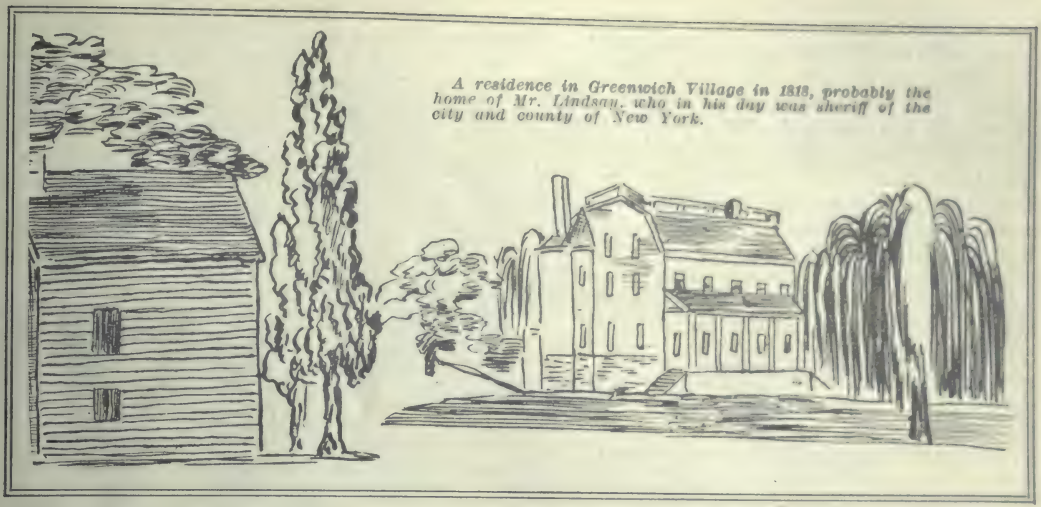
Cities, especially modern cities, tend to divide territorially into racial groups. In a time when the intercourse between nation and nation is so untrammelled, and in a country, like our own, where the gates are open to all comers, it is inevitable that the port cities should quickly acquire areas devoted to nationalities, to which such sobriquets as "Little Italy" or "Chinatown" will be applied. This tendency, while it may seem to the casual observer to militate against the integrity of neighborhood entity, in fact makes its persistence more important for two reasons: first, for the influence of the old history on the newcomer; second, for the preservation of the record of the alien life in the new land to the more homogeneous community that is to follow.

Many of these considerations are illustrated by the history of Greenwich Village itself. Starting, literally, as a village, to the northwest of the original settlement of the Dutch on the lower end of Manhattan Island, it was first scarcely more than a collection of small farms abutting upon one another. Such a farm, for instance, was that on which Elbert Haring died in the latter half of the eighteenth century. On his death it was divided among his children and in 1794 we find a portion of it, covering the lands along the present Grove Street, then known as Columbia Street, sold to Elbert Roosevelt and broken up into building lots. So the old pasture fields and orchards gave way to streets and detached houses, first of wood and then of brick; the old brooks or water courses, like Minetta brook, were led in more confined channels or conduits and gradually buried out of sight, as in still earlier days had been the brook, or rivulet, which flowed down the winding course of what is now known as Maiden Lane.

As the village grew it became, not indeed, a



ST. LUKE'S CHURCH
Now a chapel of Trinity Parish, the old edifice in Hudson Street has stood unchanged since it was built in 1821.

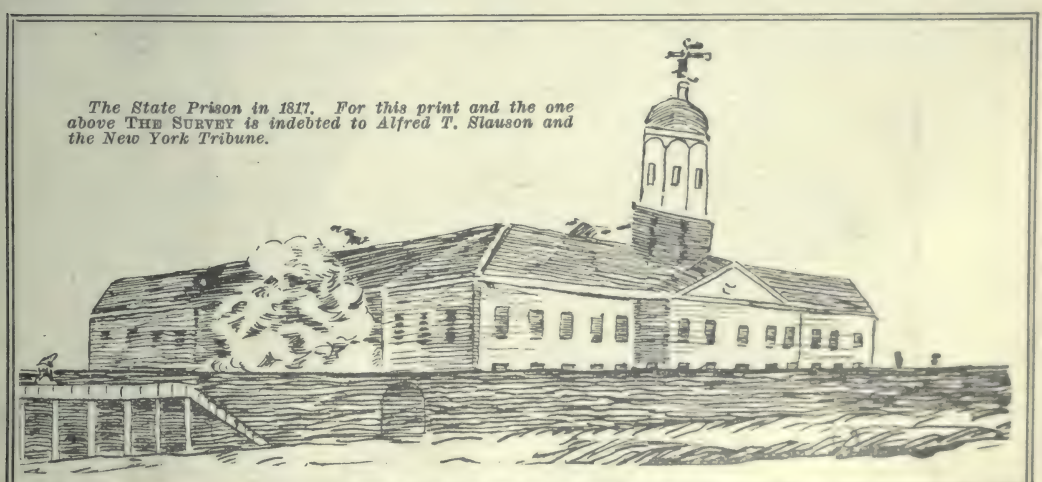


A residence in Greenwich Village in 1818, probably the home of Mr. Lindsay, who in his day was sheriff of the city and county of New York.

fashionable neighborhood, but the residence place of many good and substantial citizens. Many of the streets as they were laid out received the names of the vestrymen of Trinity Parish, which had holdings in the vicinity, and thus Barrow, and Varick, and many another came into being. One local peculiarity of the village was that it early became the residence of a number of men engaged in trucking, then a substantial business. Each man had his own residence, and, on the same or a nearby lot, his stable, where he kept his horses and carts, and the goods-transportation of the rapidly growing city was largely done by these independent truckmen. With the changes in business the trade has largely gone out of existence, just as the small two-story houses which were the homes of these independent workers have given place to the five-story tenements that now rise up on either side the narrow streets.

With the change in the homes and the work came deeper social changes. When there were still rose gardens behind some of the houses in Greenwich Village, and the straight brick fronts had not yet elbowed out all the old wooden buildings that spoke of colonial times, there was room and to spare for the children to play; and the village street, while perhaps neither as satisfactory nor as safe as the back garden, was at least permissible, for the staid truck horses like their masters were sober and substantial personages.

But the days changed with the buildings. Tall brick apartment houses and factories succeeded the two-story gabled house. With the passing of the trucks and the old-fashioned omnibus, came clanging cars and rushing motors. Instead of the little groups of children, whole hosts poured out of the fifteen- and twenty-family tenements, till as the streets grew darker



The State Prison in 1817. For this print and the one above THE SURVEY *is indebted to Alfred T. Slauson and the New York Tribune.*

from the towering tenements, the pavements grew blacker with the thronging masses of the children. The children were as pure and true as those earlier groups. They had the same longings for sun and air, for fun and noise, the same inalienable right of childhood to play, as any who had preceded them—but the village was gone. And the mothers who loved them not less than the earlier mothers had loved their children, could not give them the same indoor playrooms, for, alas, even the bedrooms were workrooms with them, and these mothers spoke another language than that the children heard in the streets. And the children learned the new speech rapidly and the mothers slowly, so the parting grew between parent and child by imperceptible degrees, and the old tragedy of the stranger in a strange land repeated itself on the stage of Greenwich Village.

Now these phenomena of the later days in Greenwich Village were not peculiar to the locality. They were and are, being repeated in many places in New York city and elsewhere, and were as novel to the locality as the old history of the village is to its present-day denizens. Viewed from one aspect alone, the locality, Greenwich Village was the theater in which the old comedy or melodrama had been played out and had given place to the sordid tragedy of the little mother and the street Arab. To such an observer, life's a show and what does it matter? The old actors are gone, the scenery shifted, let the new actors play out their brief season and clear the boards.

But life is more than a drama, and human beings are not mannikins, jerked by the wires of an invisible fate. Life has continuity, in spite of its fragmentary appearance; and the association of personality with locality, of human experiences with particular places, has not only a permanent interest but a permanent value. The affection and reverence which have come from the association of great deeds and great names with particular shrines have been effective agencies in the building of great cities and great nations. Men do not visit the Sinaitic peninsula today because it is an agreeable place of residence, but because it is, tradition says, the anvil on which a servile race was forged into a conquering army. The wolf that suckled Romulus, and the gulf in the Forum that swallowed Curtius, were both mythical, but ancient Rome built part of her most stable foundations on those yet more ancient fables. And so, if the observance of Old Home Week in Greenwich Village with its pageants and parades fired the imagination and kindled the enthusiasm of the boys and girls in that part of our city today with a new interest in the ancient home and a new love for the municipality itself they were well worth while.

But that is not all. Today will soon be yesterday, and because it is not the same with our old yesterdays, it is none the less important, and tomorrow will so regard it.

> "Each age is a dream that is dying,
> Or one that is coming to birth,"

and for the most part, birth and death are going on all the time. Greenwich Village today, though it has lost all the characteristics of a village, is not less interesting, not less vital, not less heroic than the Greenwich Village of fifty or a hundred years ago. Forms have altered, customs have changed as costumes have changed, but human life continues and the locality continues. The record, therefore, of today is just as valuable as the record of yesterday; it has as much of human pathos, as much of human heroism. The slaughter of the innocents is great under those old Herods of indifference and neglect, but the wise men who follow the star will still find that Christ is born in Bethlehem, though the slum be worse than the manger, and to the little ones, with whom the Christ identifies Himself, must be brought the ancient offerings, gold, frankincense and myrrh—gold, what men have of power; frankincense, what men have of inspiration; and myrrh, what men have of repentance.



DYDE'S TAVERN
Near the corner of Mercer and Sixth streets in the year 1818.

Courtesy, Aldine Club.



THE CONSTRUCTIVE WORK
BEFORE THE
INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION

A SYMPOSIUM WITH INTRODUCTION BY

PAUL U. KELLOGG

LAWRENCE and Little Falls, San Diego and Muscatine—the bare names are enough to put before the mind social conflicts which have commanded national attention since December, 1911, when the movement for a federal survey of industrial relations was initiated. The silk workers of Paterson, the timber workers of Louisiana, the miners of West Virginia, the conductors and trainmen, engineers and firemen of the eastern railroads, the garment workers of New York, Buffalo, Boston and Rochester, and now the copper miners of northern Michigan have all been at loggerheads with their employers in struggles which have shown the need for greater publicity as to the facts, deeper search for causes, more careful scrutiny of our machinery for adjustment and the laws that apply to them.

There is no reason to believe that there will be any dearth of similar laboratory material ready to the commission's hands during the next three years. The light which its hearings throw on such strikes may of itself bring about settlements; but its work is other than that of adjusting particular conflicts, however important. It is concerned with the conditions and forces that underlie all conflicts.

The appointment by President Wilson of the members of the new commission is taken advantage of by THE SURVEY to present a symposium on the field of work ahead. The contributions are indicative of the closeness and stern expectancy with which the work of this new body will be followed. Seldom has there been a national legislative movement which has progressed with such speed or enlisted the support of more divergent interests.

The letter which a group of New York men and women addressed[1] to President Taft close on the heels of the McNamara confessions, calling for a national inquiry into the underlying causes of industrial unrest, was followed rapidly by the organization of a campaign committee[2] under the chairmanship of Edward T. Devine, by President Taft's message commending the project to Congress, and by the introduction of the Hughes-Borah bill in House and Senate. A hearing by the House Labor Committee under Congressman Wilson (now secretary of labor) mustered union leaders, manufacturers and social workers from all parts of the country. In the summer, after six months' service by Mr. Devine, Samuel McCune Lindsay took the chairmanship of the campaign committee; and throughout the period Allen T. Burns, secretary

[1]Jane Addams presided at this meeting, and appointed as a drafting committee Stephen S. Wise, John Haynes Holmes, Lillian D. Wald, Henry Moskowitz, J. Howard Mellish and Paul U. Kellogg.

[2]The committee numbered 53 in all—ministers, lawyers, journalists, professors, civic leaders—for the most part, neither employers nor employes. An executive committee consisted of Edward T. Devine, Stephen S. Wise, Charles S. Macfarland, Lillian D. Wald, Henry Moskowitz and Paul U. Kellogg. At the outset, Adolph Lewisohn gave $5,000 to carry on the campaign, and later gifts were made by Mrs. Emmons Blaine and Julius Rosenwald, of the Chicago committee, which co-operated in the middle West.

of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, spent practically his entire time at Washington, canvassing representatives and senators. In August, 1912, the bill was signed. It called for a commission of nine members, three employers, three representatives of labor, three of the public, and appropriated $100,000 for the first year, with the prospect of a total of $500,000 to spend in three years' work. It was not until December that President Taft sent his nominations to the Senate, and these failed of confirmation. On June 26 President Wilson named the following:

REPRESENTING THE PUBLIC: FRANK P. WALSH, chairman, attorney Board of Public Welfare, Kansas City;

JOHN R. COMMONS, professor of political economy, University of Wisconsin, member Wisconsin Industrial Commission; colleague Pittsburgh Survey;

MRS. J. BORDEN HARRIMAN, member National Civic Federation, New York City, chairman of the women's committee of the Democratic national campaign.

REPRESENTING EMPLOYERS: FREDERICK A. DELANO, Chicago, receiver and former president Wabash Railroad;

HARRIS WEINSTOCK, San Francisco, merchant, vice-president Weinstock-Lubin Company, appointed by Governor Gillette of California to investigate and report on labor legislation in New Zealand, and by Governor Johnson to investigate the disturbances over the I. W. W. in San Diego;

S. THURSTON BALLARD, Louisville, Ky., member of the Louisville Manufacturers' Association.

REPRESENTING ORGANIZED LABOR: AUSTIN B. GARRETSON, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, president of the Order of Railroad Conductors;

JOHN B. LENNON, Bloomington, Ill., treasurer of the American Federation of Labor;

JAMES O'CONNELL, District of Columbia, vice-president and head of the metal trades department of the American Federation of Labor.[1]

The scope of the inquiry, as suggested in the original letter to the White House, and as again set forth in the creating act, is published on adjoining pages. The contributions to the symposium exhibit in still greater detail the breadth of the field that lies before the commission, and from which it must carve out its work. Their recommendations bank up in ways which may prove suggestive to this end.

Foremost of all, of course, they emphasize the commission's function in getting at the facts. There is evident anticipation that here at last we have a body equipped with resources and authority that will be able to uncover situations which now reach us only after they are long past, or through the criminal courts, or by exposure of private correspondence. Let us study the lessons that have been hammered in by the great strikes, suggests the former vice-president of the Baldwin Locomotive Works. "I found that the facts converted even the most conservative employers," writes Edward A. Filene, former chairman of the Industrial Relations Committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce.

But in the opinion of different writers this search for facts should be modified in three directions. The original draft of the law confined the commission solely to the discovery of industrial relations. In Congress, the bill was amended so as to include industrial hygiene and safety, and the incoming of Asiatic workmen. There is evidently a prevailing sentiment among the contributors that the commission should limit itself so far as possible to labor relations and not scatter into a general and superficial review of labor conditions. It would, of course, be extremely pertinent for the commission to do what Professor Ross suggests—compare the wages and hours current under different phases of industrial organization; but that would be a very different thing than to spend a large share of its money on questions of ventilation and accident prevention. As Mr. Porter points out, these are being taken up by other agencies.

The second modification of the search for facts is that stated by Mr. Steffens, who wants the commission to follow the line of human understanding, to listen to all the witnesses who think that they see the sources of evil—"to Anarchists, Socialists, single taxers, to 'Christians,' to the workers themselves, and even to 'business men.'" "In general terms," writes Louis Levine, whose analysis of syndicalism is probably unmatched, "the task of the commission is to lay bare the psychology of modern industrial life."

The third modification is that pointed out by Professor Hoxie, that it is not enough to assemble the facts in the existing labor situation, or draw out the conflicting notions of right and justice held by worker and employer. "They but act as the inherent conditions and forces of the modern industrial system imperatively dictate." What the public wants from the commission, he holds, is to get at these causes, and even more to do it as a sound basis for remedial action, looking first to the eradication of the industrial evils that beset the working people, and second, to the ridding of American society from industrial warfare. As Mr. Devine points out, it was by carrying conviction that this was to be a commission which would deal with "definite and manageable problems in a sensible way" that the creating legislation was carried through Congress in less time than has been consumed in appointing its members. "There may be," he says, "no secret proprietary remedies in social relations, but there may be neglected and undervalued remedies." In bringing them out lies opportunity for a strong practical trend in the commission's work. Professor Commons, in a statement written before he knew of his appointment on the commission, brought its opportunity home in another practical direction by arguing that it overhaul the functions and practices of state and federal labor departments, and further, that the commission present its conclusions not merely in bulky volumes, but in drafted bills for presentation in Congress and state legislatures.

II.

While the spiritual unrest which characterizes our industrial relations would scarcely lend itself as pabulum to a bill-drafting bureau, there are many objective phases of those relations which to the minds of various contributors to the symposium would repay accurate definition and study.

Industrial relations begin when a man gets a job. A consideration of the articulation of

[1]For further descriptions of personnel see THE SURVEY of July 5, 1913.

FIELD OF WORK

AS ORIGINALLY SUGGESTED IN THE COMMUNICATION TO PRESIDENT TAFT

PRESENTED AT THE WHITE HOUSE
DECEMBER 30, 1911

We appeal to the federal government to create a commission, with as great scientific competence, staff, resources, and power to compel testimony as the Interstate Commerce Commission:

1.—To investigate (and on this point make a preliminary report within six months) conditions of labor during the last six years in the structural iron trade, including in the study the organizations of employers and employes, the methods and purposes of each, and the relations of each to the other.

2.—To gauge the break-down of our machinery of industrial government by tracing the trend of law and judicial decision through state and federal courts with respect to labor causes (the boycott, the picket, the injunction, the strike); and to examine the exact economic and legal status of the union, the union member, the non-union man, the strike-breaker, the tenant of a company house.

3.—To investigate the economic and social cost of strikes to employers, to workmen, and to the public.

4.—To examine and review the rules and records of trade unions and employers' associations in their relations to each other; the conditions of the trades in which unions are strong and those in which no unions exist.

Nor should such a commission's work be limited to these negative lines. It should be commissioned:

5.—To study and make report on the scope and methods and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor to the end that they may meet permanently those responsibilities which through the work of such a commission would be more adequately defined.

6.—To make special and exhaustive study into the practicability and working principles of schemes of economic government such as the trade legislature in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry, the joint arbitration board which for seven years controlled the New York building trades, the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, the Canadian Industrial disputes acts, the minimum wage boards long established in Australia and recently introduced in England.

the individual workmen to industry would bring before the commission certain phases of vocational education, of unemployment, and labor circulation—such as suggested by Mr. Collier; of the pressure of immigration, and of the effects of workmen's compensation statutes and other legislation which may tend to dislodge the older men—such as suggested by Mr. Fox. When the industry is unionized, what are the rights and chances of the boy or outsider who wants to get into it?

This leads to questions of tenure and legal status of those engaged. In the last five years we have erased from our conception of the unwritten contract of hire certain assumptions of risk on the part of the workman. Are other changes needed? How far can statute law limiting the freedom of contract in the matter of hours and wages be used to advantage? "How long will it be before we, too," writes the secretary of the United States Brewers' Association, "will have to face the need of social insurance [as an element in the contract of hire] against the hazards of sickness, old age, and unemployment?"

But it is after all a consideration of the group relations of industry with which the commission is primarily charged—the different stages of industrial organization among employers and employes, ranging from despotic unorganized employments to the highly developed mutual schemes of economic government in the garment trades referred to by Mr. Moskowitz. What are the comparative conditions under these various stages of control? "How does the course of wages in unionized industries compare with those where men simply take or reject what is offered?" asks Professor Ross. Thus is broached the whole question of what the bargain is about—such a relative study as Mr. Burns suggests of output, costs of production, and profits as will help clarify the contending claims put forward with respect to them.

Similarly the commission will be looked to to bring out the actual process of industrial bargaining, not only in the negotiation, mediation and arbitration of big strike settlements between strong bodies of employers and employes, but in the tactics they employ toward each other between times; in the routine work of conciliation and grievance boards; in the clash between superintendents and shop committees; and in the every-day adjustment of rates and tallies which go forward under the rapid changes of the highly specialized modern industries.

At every point where the public enters into industrial relations, either as employer, as third party, or as law enforcer, the commission is counted upon for searching and constructive work. Two writers call for rehabilitation of our state labor laws and methods of enforcement, and Mr. Mitchell raises the national problem of variations between the states. Unlawful arrests and the suppression of free assemblage at Paterson and in West Virginia call for a weighing of the relative merits of deputy sheriffs, pri-

vate detectives, city police, constabulary and militia, as industrial peace officers, and of the applicability of old laws of order to times of industrial conflict. "Let the commission either show," says Professor Seager, writing of the injunction, the boycott and the application of the Sherman law to labor combinations, "that our present laws are unfair in their application and recommend modifications, even constitutional modifications if necessary, or let them defend these laws by reasoning so cogent that it will convince thoughtful wage-earners of the error of their views."

Such reconsideration of the application of governmental authority—legislative, administrative, judicial—to our industrial relations will bring the commission, as it has brought the contributors to this symposium, to a question not merely of the machinery needed to help settle strikes but of the social framework which would more adequately serve our industrial life in normal times. Here we have the parting of the ways. Thus we have Mr. Schwedtman, picturing "industrial peace based on equitable co-ordination and subordination, as exemplified in a beehive," and Mr. Haywood maintaining that "there can be no solution as long as the distinction between capitalist and worker exists." Mr. Moskowitz sees the emergence of a new society based on collectivity; as a beginning he advocates the development of the new federal Department of Labor as a force for production along the lines of the Department of Agriculture. Like him Mr. Porter believes that in the scheme of economic self-control in the garment trades—grievance, sanitary and rate-making boards—we are breaking ground already for a structure of industrial government which, like our civil society, will be framed to meet the demands of democracy.

Dr. Lindsay carries the discussion into other and lofty associations by his prognosis of the coming of industrial constitutionalism. Professor Ross brings it back to the individual and to elementary personal rights when he asks the commission to turn a steady searchlight on questions of bargaining between corporations and their employes. These suggestions are in line with a fundamental conception of the work before the commission which the committee that secured the creating legislation ever held to the fore in challenging public attention. And it may be in keeping to restate here the problem of "work-relationships and the democracy" as it was then brought out.

III.

The growth of industry has in fifty years changed the face of the country. That is but half the story. The growth of industrial corporations in which industry has taken shape has in turn thrust new problems of individual rights and public responsibilities deep into the working life of Americans.

Revolutionary as has been this trend among us from agriculture to corporate manufacture, its bearing upon human relations may be stated simply. Modern industry offers few openings for the lone prospector. It is team-work from the beginning. We make or find employment in groups ranging from a shop of two or three men to a trans-continental railroad with tens of thousands of employes. Since the 90's we have seen trade enterprise merge the mills of a dozen states. We call these big human teams, corporations—industrial corporations; and in our political capacity we charter them in the name of the general welfare, grant them immunities, vest them with large powers, and safeguard the capital and profits of their stockholders. Through them we produce useful goods which in bulk, ingenuity, and cheapness match anything the world has known.

But, above all else, we work in and through them as a people. They are becoming the permanent basis on which much family life and citizenship depend. This is truer today than it was ten years ago, truer ten years ago than it was twenty, truer in numbers of people so engaged, and in the size of these industrial units. It will be truer ten years from now than it is today.

We have not as yet squarely faced this mighty shifting in the economic foothold of the democracy. For the most part we proceed on the happy-go-lucky policy that wherever and whenever there is quiet, there also is justice and right dealing; that wherever and whenever there are clashes the parties in dispute will settle them in some way between themselves, and there also reason and progress rather than strength will prevail; and that wherever and whenever the general welfare is threatened either by a disintegrating peace or by a destructive warfare, there the public, by some catch-as-catch can assertion of authority, will defend its interests.

From time to time, and from place to place, we pay the penalty of this Simple-Simonism. We pay it in bitterness and disheartenment, in disrupted industry, in vast money loss, in bloodshed and in mute and obscure suffering.

The purpose of the new federal commission should be, in the last analysis, to survey the relations which we as free, self-governing people thus bear to corporate forms of work. On these industrial relations hangs the progressive development of our manufacturing resources; on them hinge the chance in life, the liberties, and the measure of happiness of the citizens of the United States who look to these new and massed forms of employment for their livelihood.

In exploring the means for bringing greater justice and order into the dislocated structure of our industrial life lies the opportunity for a great work of internal statesmanship and invention. It is a situation repeated in the older countries of the world, where industrial relations have become encrusted with class distinctions or are bound down by political tyranny. In so far as the American commonwealth, in our generation, ignores or lays hold of this opportunity will mankind form its opinion as to whether, after all, it has meant very much for the race to have a new continent to spread out upon and to try out upon that continent the strength of republican institutions.

SCOPE OF THE COMMISSION

AS STATED IN THE HUGHES-BORAH ACT CREATING IT

THE COMMISSION shall inquire into the general condition of labor in the principal industries of the United States, including agriculture, and especially in those which are carried on in corporate forms;

Into existing relations between employers and employes;

Into the effect of industrial conditions on public welfare and into the rights and powers of the community to deal therewith;

[Into the conditions of sanitation and safety of employes and the provisions for protecting the life, limb, and health of the employes];

Into the growth of associations of employers and of wage-earners and the effect of such associations upon the relations between employers and employes;

Into the extent and results of methods of collective bargaining;

Into any methods which have been tried in any state or in foreign countries for maintaining mutually satisfactory relations between employes and employers;

Into methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations;

Into the scope, methods, and resources of existing bureaus of labor and into possible ways of increasing their usefulness;

[Into the question of smuggling or other illegal entry of Asiatics into the United States or its insular possessions, and of the methods by which such Asiatics have gained and are gaining such admission, and shall report to Congress as speedily as possible with such recommendation as said commission may think proper to prevent such smuggling and illegal entry].

The commission shall seek to discover the underlying causes of dissatisfaction in the industrial situation and report its conclusions thereon.

NOTE: The sentences in brackets were added to the original draft of the bill during its consideration by Congress.—Ed.

SYMPOSIUM

IN THE WITNESS CHAIR. BY EDWARD T. DEVINE, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE WHICH SECURED THE LEGISLATION.

LET IT BE distinctly understood that this is to be a new kind of commission—not one to pile up bulky statistical reports, or to go on useless and expensive junkets, or to "muck rake," or to "pull wool," or to "whitewash," or to do any of the other conventional and futile things which commissions are popularly, and often wrongly, supposed to do. This commission, at any rate, is to be one which will get early and reliable results; which will deal with definite and manageable problems in a sensible way; which will go so thoroughly into the subjects which it is directed to investigate that its report will long remain valuable material for the economist, and yet will state its findings and conclusions so tersely and clearly that it will make good copy for the daily press, so legibly that the man who runs—and we are all running—may read.

Something like this was said hundreds of times in the winter of 1912 to Senators and Representatives who professed to be sceptical about the value of "commissions"; and because they believed us, the bill was passed in much less time than it has since taken to secure the appointment and confirmation of the commission. Will the commission, now that it is duly appointed, be able to make these promises good? Certainly it will if its members are inspired, as there is every reason to assume that they are, by the same underlying motive as led the social workers to propose, President Taft to recommend, Senator Borah and Congressman Hughes to introduce, and Congress to enact, the far-reaching and drastic, and yet perfectly simple and uncomplicated measure which now constitutes the charter of the commission.

The conception which lies behind this measure

has often been stated in the columns of THE SURVEY; but it will do no harm to state it again. It is not a partisan, or hysterical, or revolutionary conception; but it is radical and searching and uncompromising.

That conception is that at the present moment there is profound dissatisfaction and unrest in the industrial world; a feeling that courts and governments are often either hostile to labor or else inadequate to the demands made upon them by existing conditions and problems; a feeling that new plans must be devised, or, if they are already anywhere in operation, then discovered and more generally adopted for preserving harmonious relations between employers and workingmen, on a basis of full and exact justice to all who are engaged in industry. The commission is expected to inquire into the causes of this unrest and dissatisfaction, and examine the actual working of existing statutes, here and elsewhere, and the actual operation of existing governmental machinery at home and abroad for dealing with industrial disputes and with industrial grievances, and to discover what plans, voluntary or official, do actually make for industrial peace and stability.

It is fundamental that the commission must not be exploited in the interest of any "movement" or "cause." The assumption underlying its creation is that peace is to be preferred to strife; but that, in so far as strife is to be eliminated, there must be adequate peaceful means to securing for workers not only recognized, existing rights, but also an equitable share in all the new privileges and pleasures which progress makes possible.

The principle of industrial democracy, that workers are entitled to some reasonable voice in determining all the conditions under which they are to work; that the great industrial corporation, if that is to be the type of employers, must be balanced by an equally lawful and recognized organization of workingmen, whether on craft lines or industrial lines, which genuinely and adequately represents the views, the interests, and even the fears and prejudices of the regiments of workers—this principle is probably accepted in substance by most of those who were instrumental in securing the creation of the commission. But whether they accept that principle or not, all certainly agree that the time has come for a new and dispassionate scrutiny of present methods—governmental and voluntary—for preventing unnecessary disputes, for safeguarding the public interest when disputes are in progress, for settling disputes when they arise on a just and permanent basis, and for redressing real grievances without resort to violence and riot.

If, anywhere, men have been wise enough to devise new methods of accomplishing these desirable results, let us find it out. There are no secret, proprietary remedies in social relations, but there may be neglected and undervalued remedies. If, anywhere, a philosopher has solved even a small part of the problem of industrial relations, let us bring him to the stand and listen with humility and open minds to his teaching. Here, as Plato dreamed, philosophers are kings, whenever we begin to heed them. If, anywhere, a federal, or state, or municipal bureau has perfected a piece of mechanism which could be generally applied, let us find it out and be grateful. If any judge has cracked the nut of precedent and found the sweet kernel of social justice, let us be even more profoundly grateful and exalt his name. If any employer has learned how to reconcile his interests with those of his workers up to the point where they must actually make their final bargain, and has learned how to make even that bargain somewhat in the spirit in which a man divides household responsibilities with his wife, let him be cross examined searchingly by the commission, for his testimony is valuable. If any economist has had the wit to discover how the principle of industrial democracy may be reconciled with efficiency in industry, with that degree of generalship which seems to be essential to economic prosperity and social progress, let him make his contribution. If any labor leader, finally, uncorruptible, unselfish, loyal to death—and there are such—can be found to lay bare the unspoken aspirations of the great body of the industrial workers, so that we may more nearly understand what they think, what they would like to have us do, what they find unendurable and would change, then let him be the last witness. Let him be heard in silence, with an open mind; and let his be the last word before the members of the commission take up their task of telling us the truth.

LESSONS OF GREAT STRIKES. BY GEORGE BURNHAM, JR., FORMER VICE-PRESIDENT BALDWIN LOCOMOTIVE WORKS.

THE COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS created by Congress has ample powers and a comprehensive charter, so to speak. It is directed to inquire, as might be expected, into the general condition of labor in the principal industries of the United States; into the conditions of sanitation and safety of employes; into methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes, etc.; but it is also to inquire into "existing relations between employers and employes" and "into the growth of associations of employers and of wage-earners and the effect of such associations upon the relations between employers and employes."

This part of the work of the commission is more difficult than the former, but is, it seems to me, of even greater importance at this time. What has been the real result of the long struggle between employer and wage-earner? What have both parties learned in the contest? To what extent has it been hammered into them, employer and employe, that they have duties to perform as well as rights to protect? If the commission can bring such facts out authoritatively it will have accomplished much.

Nothing can be more misleading than to look upon the contest between employer and wage-earner as a battle in which one party must fall and the other survive. Contest it is, but one in

which, if the outcome is not improved relations and co-operation between the two parties, society itself must suffer. I have on my desk a small pamphlet widely distributed by a public service corporation. In the latest issue the public is informed of the pension system adopted for the benefit of its employes, and the pamphlet contains further a detailed report of a committee composed of officers and employes of the company for a sick benefit fund sustained by equal contributions of the men and the company. This company had a long and serious strike a few years since. Without giving up their organization the men repudiated certain leaders who appeared more anxious for the fight as fight than for the objects to be attained. Is this a case where both sides have really learned something? I do not know, but if the new commission can wisely scan such happenings throughout the country and give us the real facts, it will do a great service.

MINIMUM WAGES vs. BONDS. BY ALLEN T. BURNS, SECRETARY PITTSBURGH CIVIC COMMISSION.

HOW CAN EMPLOYER and employe be brought into a relation of mutual confidence, effective co-operation and equitable division of the product of labor and capital? This is the difficult question to be faced by the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. The question cannot be answered by protracted and extensive hearings, but by careful examination of present industrial conditions, practices and agencies. Some of the necessary inquiries are here suggested.

A comparison between wages and return on investment in representative industries should be made, *e. g.*, in mining, lumbering, steel manufacture, textile works, railroad construction and operation, building trades, garment-making. As wages are the most frequent cause of industrial discontent, this discontent would be largely counteracted or justified according to the results of such a study.

What factors determine wages in various industries? Does the law of demand and supply control? Have organized capital or organized labor interfered with this law? Have other forces interfered—unrestricted immigration, tariff, control of natural resources, for example? Can or should any interference with supply and demand be eliminated and this law be the only determining factor?

Can a minimum wage be made as reasonable and recognized a requirement of industry as the interest on bonds or other loans? The minimum wage is established in certain industries in Massachusetts, England and Australia. Its operations can be observed. Whether it reduces or raises wages generally is not a matter of campaign argument but of fact. A thorough investigation of a minimum wage's result will therefore be imperative.

What is the relation of wages to cost of production? Is the lowest paid labor cheap or expensive? Different employers in the same industry would show wide divergence in wages paid and in cost of production. From this source much light would be thrown on the relation of the two. Do they rise and fall together or vary inversely?

Thus far the inquiry would deal with the question whether there could and should be readjustments in wage contracts, and if so, the direction of the readjustments. There remains the question of an effective agency to bring about any desired changes.

Is compulsory arbitration of labor disputes the method? Arguments and facts available from New Zealand are used both pro and con. They must be thoroughly studied. Will collective bargaining of organized capital and organized labor be more satisfactory, each being fully assured of its right of organization? The claims and experience from this method will necessarily be examined. Recitals of opinion will be of little value. Actual conditions of investments, labor and service of the public under each device must be concretely defined.

Between these antipodal systems are governmental conciliation boards or officers whose services are accepted only voluntarily by the disputants. Many states have such agencies and the federal government has a board available for railroads. Do these or could these with increased strength meet the entire need? Much data is available, if compiled, to answer this question.

The gathering, arranging, sifting and judging of the exact information on the lines mentioned as well as on many others is a task for the ablest, most broad-minded, experienced and hard-working commission. Such is needed to help in the solution of the country's most baffling problem of just industrial relations.

INDUSTRIAL UNIONISM AND SOCIAL UNREST. BY JOHN COLLIER, PEOPLE'S INSTITUTE, NEW YORK.

FOR THE INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION there are three lines of inquiry which are not necessarily the most important but which need to be emphasized:

1. The bearing of industrial education on the labor problem. This includes the question of efficiency methods in industry and of whether these methods are to be used to emancipate labor or to increase profit by a refined speeding-up and overcrowding process. Shall our schools invade the labor problem with a program of teaching which will aim to liberate the worker from the tyranny of the specialized occupation which has no outlet? Shall government attack the all-inclusive problem of vocation, the dissemination of information about employment, and the facilitating of labor circulation from factory to factory and from trade to trade?

In this question are involved, among many others, the subjects of minimum wage, legally-prescribed work-hours, scientific tariff and the right of trade unions to limit the labor supply.

2. The question of industrial improvement cannot be separated from the question of leisure-time opportunities provided for the industrial worker. The two have been very generally separated in America to the great hurt of the nation. Continuous industrial education; preservation of the family of the workingman; the freeing of the workingman from the drink slavery and the political slavery—all these and many other pressing needs can be met only through a program of leisure-time improvement, pursued largely through federal, state and municipal initiative and provision.

3. It seems probable that the industrial commission will not have on its membership a representative of the industrial unionism movement or any one who sympathetically comprehends that movement. This is unfortunate and paradoxical, for the Industrial Workers of the World have largely helped in creating the situation which has produced the industrial commission.

Many students believe that industrial unionism has come to supplement and perhaps ultimately to absorb trade unionism. In any case, it is a growing force, and its method and philosophy are distinctive. It has changed the focus of the labor movement in certain European countries. What does this movement signify, viewed sympathetically? How shall government view the philosophy of direct action? Shall direct action in labor disputes continue to be dealt with as personal crime, or must it be recognized as a form of political action? If the industrial commission does not grapple with these questions it will fail to do a prophetic work.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES.[1] BY JOHN R. COMMONS, University of Wisconsin, Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

The most important service of the Industrial Relations Commission, I should say, would be to bring about a better organization and co-operation of all state and federal agencies that deal with labor problems. We have already had two great governmental investigations of labor: one made in 1884, and the other that of the Industrial Commission in 1900. Each of these seemed to be merely an opportunity for all interested parties to get their opinions published, and it is difficult to locate any constructive work that these investigations accomplished.

The present commission has a big list of topics set up for investigation, but does it not seem that all the state and federal bureaus of labor, statistics, health, arbitration, and the like should have made the most of their investigations in the course of handling the problems themselves?

I should say the commission should start off by calling in heads of departments and their chief subordinates that have to do with labor problems, both state and federal, and find out why they have not taken care of their work. What are the obstacles in their way? Do they overlap? Are there gaps? Are they competent? Do they waste time on routine that could be given to essentials? What would they suggest to make their investigations and administration more effective?

The commission might also send competent investigators to such foreign countries as France, Belgium, Germany, England, Australasia, to find out whether they have better organization and staff for this work, and whether they have anything which could be adopted by our American labor and health departments.

If the commission at the same time had a bill-drafting department connected with the excellent document division of the Library of Congress, then its conclusions could be drafted into shape as it proceeds with its investigations, for presentation to Congress and the state legislatures. The publication of its findings and recommendations, followed by hearings, would attract the country's attention to the supreme importance at the present time of the administration of labor laws. We have been living in a fool's paradise of labor legislation without giving enough attention either to the enforcement of labor laws, or drafting them so that they could be enforced.

These seem to me to be the first things to do—investigate the investigators, and get them to cover many of the subjects set up for the commission. Since appropriation is made for only one year, the commission ought to bring something to a head before the year ends, and something, too, that would last after the commission is gone. It, of course, should take up other important subjects assigned, but not to the detriment of this fundamental one, on which the others depend for execution.

[1]Professor Common's statement was written last fall, when he had no idea of being a member of the Industrial Relations Commission. Several of the contributions to this symposium were gotten together at the time in advance even of the announcement of ex-President Taft's appointments.

INDUSTRY OUTLAWRY.[1] BY WILLIAM J. BURNS, who ran down the dynamite conspiracy in the iron workers' union.

Unquestionably such an investigation would be a splendid move for the purpose of ascertaining, as nearly as possible, the existing relations between employers and employes. But I would suggest that the commission provide for inquiry into the recent McNamara depredations to learn whether or not organized labor or any members thereof were cognizant of the warfare carried on by the McNamaras and others, which resulted in the blowing up of the Los Angeles *Times* and the killing of twenty-one innocent persons, each the head of a family. This provision should extend equally as well to cover the employers of labor.

Inquiry should fully cover the Industrial Workers of the World, and determine whether or not it is in conflict with the laws of our country.

[1]Recast from a letter on the bill into the form of a statement as to the commission.

TRUTH CAN FREE US. BY EDWARD A. FILENE, INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE, BOSTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

WE EMPLOYERS need to realize that our employes outnumber us by fifty or one hundred to one, and that the prevailing industrial unrest is the outcome of their sense of wrongs endured, unfair divisions of profits, and unjust industrial relations.

There is relentless logic in the belief to which they are rapidly coming that industrial democracy is as much a part of democracy as political democracy. The power they have been able to obtain over the laws under which they live has led them to demand also an adequate voice as to conditions under which they labor, and their supreme political power can be used to enforce their industrial demands. Unless we can materially improve our relations with them they will be governed in enforcing this demand more by a desire to avenge their wrongs than by a desire for the common good.

The new Federal Commission on Industrial Relations can help us make the momentous changes necessary to meet this demand by a careful study of the past experiences of this and other countries. For after all, it is facts we need. My experience forces me to believe this. For instance, as chairman of the industrial relations committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, I found that facts converted even the most conservative employers. As the result of a proper accumulation of facts we were able to report a draft to the Legislature which has resulted in the present workmen's compensation act of Massachusetts. It took two years to convert some of that committee, but the facts finally did it.

One of the members, when we had finally come to an agreement, said to me: "If anyone had told me two years ago that I would agree to such a bill as this and hustle for it, I would have told him that he lied."

The prescribed limits of this article do not allow a comprehensive expression of all the ways in which the new commission may help us to get the facts. But the most important things we need to know, it seems to me, are the facts and experiences as to causes and results of industrial disputes:

Organization on the part of employers and employes.

Variation of industrial legislation between different states.

Administration of laws relating to industrial relations.

Immigration in its bearing on industrial relations.

Employment of women and children.

Hours and conditions of labor.

Housing and living conditions of employes.

Representation of employes in the management.

Industrial education and vocational guidance as remedies.

We need to know the truth, and the truth can make us free. The Federal Commission on Industrial Relations can help us to know the truth.

UNTILLED GROUND. BY HUGH F. FOX, SECRETARY UNITED STATES BREWERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE FIRST THING for the Industrial Relations Commission to do is to get its bearings. Unless there is some emergent call for its services, it ought not to undertake any investigation or constructive work until its members have saturated themselves with all the available information on the industrial situation and have a common understanding as to what are the industrial problems. The commission should utilize, and not duplicate, the work of existing private organizations and official bodies. There is nothing to be gained by going over the ground that has been so well covered (in respect to women and children) by the commissioner of labor, the National Child Labor Committee, and the Consumers' League. It would be equally futile to re-investigate conditions in the steel industry after the Pittsburgh Survey. The various federal and state commissions that have been studying industrial accidents in connection with workmen's compensation have, no doubt, covered this field of inquiry adequately.

Primarily the commission should study methods of settling labor disputes and preventing strikes. The National Civic Federation has probably had more actual experience, and given more objective thought to this subject than any other voluntary organization. Testimony should also be taken from organized labor and from large employers of labor.

The labor question has been studied principally from the standpoint of the manufacturer, the contractor, the mining and transportation interests, and their employes. The question of farm labor has been largely neglected, and the subject of seasonal farm labor has received almost no consideration.

I need not, of course, point out to SURVEY readers that we are from ten to twenty years behind most European countries in our knowledge and treatment of occupational diseases and in our provisions for vocational education. The attitude of labor organizations toward apprentices and vocational training needs special and thorough consideration.

The gradual establishment of the eight-hour day and the federal enactment of workmen's compensation laws are putting a premium on physical efficiency that will eventually raise new problems; or, rather, magnify present problems with which the relief agencies are so much concerned. What is to become of the large number of under-vitalized men who cannot stand the physical test that may be imposed as a condition of their employment, and, still more important, what will become of the men of middle age who can no longer keep up the pace that is set, under the new conditions of industrial competition? How long will it be before we, too, in this country, have to face the need of social in-

surance against the hazards of sickness, infirmity, old age and non-employment?

There is so much untilled ground for the Industrial Relations Commission to cover that it would be deplorable if it were to waste any of its time and energy in duplicating the work of other bodies.

WORKING CLASS COMMISSION OF THE WHOLE.

BY W. D. HAYWOOD, INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.

THE COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS is a tragic joke, perpetrated by legislative jugglers. The questions submitted to the commission for inquiry and investigation involve problems of such importance that every member of Congress should be an active member of such a commission.

The matters to be inquired into, as set forth in Section 4, are fundamental problems which remain unsolved, though philosophers, statesmen, employers and workers of all the world are wrestling with them. There are those of us who believe there can be no solution as long as the distinction between capitalist and worker exists. A dollar should never be allowed to breed another dollar. Sterilize the dollar and there will be few criminals and no strikes.

The great wrong in society is rooted in the fact that some men are protected in the process of exploiting others. As long as the wage system continues to exist, profits and human life will be in the balances of justice.

Improved machinery disinherits the workers and crowns the profit mongers kings.

These are questions of far too great importance to be submitted to a commission. Congress itself with all its legislative power can not solve these problems. It rests with the working class to find the solution.

If, however, the work of the commission could be confined to publicity along the lines of the Pittsburgh Survey, there is unlimited material for such effort. The silk industry and conditions of the silk workers suggest a starting point.

SPRINGS OF CONFLICTING ACTION.

BY ROBERT F. HOXIE, PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, CHICAGO UNIVERSITY.

THE NEW COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS is charged by the law of its creation with the determination primarily of the facts in the existing labor situation. The mandate is specific and inclusive. It directs the commission to inquire into the most vital objective aspects of the labor problem, including labor conditions generally, the individual relations between employers and employes, the growth and methods of unions and employers' associations, the effect of these conditions, relations, and associations on public welfare, the methods for avoiding labor disputes and maintaining satisfactory relations between employers and employes, and the methods, rights and powers of the community in dealing with the labor problem. If the commission responds to this mandate vigorously and carries out this investigation of objective facts and effects thoroughly and with accuracy, it will doubtless perform a useful social service.

But if it goes no further than this, it will fail signally of meeting the most vital want of the community and the demands of those who wrought most intelligently for its creation.

What the intelligent public wants, as indicated by the general sentiment which led to the enactment of the commission law, and what it really needs, is a sound basis for remedial action looking mainly, first to the eradication of the industrial evils which beset our working people, and second, to the ridding of American society from industrial warfare, signs of a new and most alarming growth of which are to be seen especially in the McNamara incident and in the rise in this country of syndicalistic organization, ideals and methods.

To meet this need we must have not only thorough knowledge of the objective facts called for by the act creating the commission, but also a profound study of the causes of these facts. If employment is scarce and variable, wages low, conditions of employment onerous, shop sanitation bad, life and limb insufficiently protected, we must know why.

We must know what it is that causes employers to cut wage rates when productiveness increases, to attempt to lengthen hours and speed up machinery beyond the point of safety to workers, to insist on the sacred right of the individual laborer to work when, where, for whom and on what terms he "pleases." We must know what it is that leads workers to organize, to limit output, to attempt to monopolize the trade, to fetter the effective action of the employer by a hundred and one minute regulations and restrictions.

It will not do to attribute such conditions and actions to ignorance, selfishness or perversity on the part of employers or workers, and to assume that we can make effective any remedial measures that please our fancy by simply insuring a knowledge of the objective facts, by moral suasion, or at most by the punishment of offenders. Employers as a class are not by inclination oppressive. They but act as the inherent conditions and forces of the modern industrial system imperatively dictate. Trade unions are in the most literal sense pragmatic in their genesis and character. The rules of action which they attempt to enforce on the employer and the public are the means which they have found through experience necessary and effective to protect their members from pressing industrial and social evils. The bitter controversies between employers and workmen which result in strikes, boycotts, blacklisting and violence, are due largely to contradictory notions of rights and justice, which inevitably develop in the diverse industrial environments created for worker and employer by modern machine industry.

In brief, the causes of our evil labor conditions lie deep down in the character of our modern pecuniary and industrial system, and no effective

remedies for them can be reasonably expected except as we understand these causes and act upon them.

If the commission, then, is to render the service that is demanded of it by our social need, it will not be satisfied by merely assembling objective information, but will place chief emphasis upon that portion of the law which directs it to "seek to discover the underlying causes of [the present labor conditions and of] dissatisfaction in the industrial situation." In short, it will conceive of its work as a social problem to be solved.

Otherwise we shall have another bulky report which will indeed furnish abundant material for propapandists and students, but which will leave the public little wiser for effective action than it is at present.

COURTS AND THE WORKERS. BY FLORENCE KELLEY, SECRETARY NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE.

THE FINAL TASK confided by Congress to the Commission on Industrial Relations is, in the act creating the commission, summed up in the following words:

> "The commission shall seek to discover the underlying causes of dissatisfaction in the industrial situation and report conclusions thereon."

All the other tasks of the commission are clearly subsidiary to this one. The act itself sets forth the most constructive line of work open to the commission, *i. e.*, the quest for the underlying cause of dissatisfaction.

For success in this quest, the first step is, I believe, a dispassionate study of the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, and the state courts of last resort, now in effect and controlling industrial relations.

These highest courts are the ultimate lawgivers. They interpret the constitutions and the statutes. They can and do read into both meanings not expressed in the words of the instruments. They have power to declare that a statute is not a law though it may have been in force many years.

There is a rooted conviction among wage-earning people, organized and unorganized alike, that the courts of last resort are the all-powerful instrument of the employing class, selected among its members, and biased in its favor in regard to all fundamental industrial relations. Wage-earning men and women generally believe that the courts of last resort are hostile to them and wholly beyond their control. This belief holds equally whether a particular court is, like the Supreme Court of the United States and the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, appointed for life, or whether it is, like the New York Court of Appeals, elected for a long term of years. This belief is rooted in the daily experience of wage-earning people under those decisions, for instance, which arise in relation to injunctions. For thousands of citizens these are causes of "dissatisfaction in the industrial situation" to this day.

Other decisions cause dissatisfaction by denying to American workingmen such compensation for industrial injuries as foreign governments assure to foreign workingmen both in England and on the continent. Especially irritating among these cases is the reason assigned in the Ives case—that the statute provided for taking the property of employers without due process of law. The ever-recurring loss of life, limb and health by wage-earners since the promulgation of that decision is a source of widespread, bitter, abiding dissatisfaction in industrial conditions.

Other decisions forbid effective restriction of working hours as, for instance, that in the Williams case where the Court of Appeals of New York once prohibited the establishment of a closing hour at night for women employed in manufacture, though all the fourteen nations of Europe have conferred this benefit upon wage-earning women, and three American states—Massachusetts, Indiana and Nebraska—have followed the example of Europe.[1]

No other single, continuing influence affects so many diverse elements as the law, civil and criminal, under which people live and work.

There is no final remedy for "dissatisfaction in the industrial situation" save justice. The sense of injustice is widespread among working people, organized and unorganized, women as well as men, skilled and unskilled alike.

No group of citizens can more dispassionately study and interpret the relations between existing judicial decisions and the dissatisfaction in the industrial situation.

No more constructive task awaits the commission than a faithful effort to contribute to the establishment of industrial justice.

PSYCHOLOGY OF INDUSTRY. BY LOUIS LEVINE, AUTHOR OF THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN FRANCE.

IN GENERAL TERMS, the task of the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations is to lay bare the psychology of modern industrial life. When stated in specific terms, this task may be subdivided into a number of problems, the most important of which are:

(1) The causes of industrial conflicts.

(2) The methods of industrial war (particularly in relation to the nature of the industry and to the racial composition of the working population).

(3) The social cost of industrial war.

(4) The moral effects of industrial conflicts.

(5) The methods of industrial peace (arbitration, conciliation, etc., studied in a concrete manner in places where they have been applied sufficiently long to justify conclusions).

In connection with these problems it would seem helpful to make a detailed study of two groups of industries, one of which should be

[1] Fortunately this issue is to be brought up again for decision by the New York Court of Appeals, a new night-work law having been enacted by the New York Legislature last spring.

noted for the comparative peaceful relations that prevail in it, while the other should be typical of those industries the normal life of which is disturbed by frequent and acute conflicts.

It seems hardly necessary to point out that the task of the commission is mainly analytical. Any attempt on the part of the commission to be prematurely "practical" and "constructive" will result in quack remedies which can cure nothing. The real facts of our complex industrial life must first be ascertained and their meaning fully grasped. Any and all constructive suggestions that may be formulated will follow logically from the facts themselves as soon as they are thoroughly understood.

The task of the commission is by no means an easy one, but it may be carried out properly if the commission approaches its problems with an open mind and is ready to lay its fingers on all the weak spots of our industrial organism no matter how painful that may be.

MORAL IDEALS AND ECONOMIC SYSTEM. BY CHARLES S. MACFARLAND, COUNCIL CHURCHES OF CHRIST.

THE FEDERAL COUNCIL of the Churches of Christ in America, representing in large degree the churches of the nation, unhesitatingly responded to the request for co-operation in securing this measure.

The leaders and the thoughtful pastors and laymen in our churches clearly realize that, in dealing with social unrest, we are now under obligation to go far back of its effects and the means of redemption to its causes with provision for prevention. It is becoming clear that there is a vital and intimate relation between social wrong and social wrongs.

When we get back to the causes of social unrest we find ourselves face to face with the confused ethics of industry. Still more than this, we are discovering that the problem is not the simple one of bringing the persuasions of the Gospel to bear upon modern industry, because such a multitude of economic elements enter into the situation. In other words, we have to deal not only with moral ideals, but with an economic system.

The duty of the church is to bring her moral idealism to bear, and the business of the state is, so far as possible, to bring about such economic conditions and environment that the idealism of the Gospel may have as clear and fair a field as possible. It is this that justifies the church, not in entangling herself in economic machinery, but in turning to the state for a co-operation which will enable her to do her work. Not only is this the expression of her human sympathy, but it is also prompted by the instinct of self-preservation, inasmuch as the progress of the church is increasingly hindered by the limitations of the present social and industrial order.

The profound restlessness of industrial workers is largely caused by their feeling that they find in neither church nor state means of moral self-expression. The whole industrial situation is veiled in a mysterious darkness. We have little means of knowing the real proportion or disproportion between dividend and wage; between selfishness and human sacrifice. It is time for the church to say to the state, in the name of her Master: "There is nothing covered that shall not be revealed, and nothing hidden that shall not be made manifest."

The church has been criticised for her neglect in this situation. This is largely because she has failed to adjust herself to a new environment, which came upon her unawares and which as yet she has not been able to comprehend.

This commission has, therefore, not only an economic but a great moral task. Its economic diagnosis may bring great light to those who are seeking to apply the moral remedy.

INTERSTATE RELATIONS. BY JOHN MITCHELL, VICE-PRESIDENT AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

UNDER OUR DUAL SYSTEM of government it is difficult for the citizens of one state, without hampering the industries of that state, to enact legislation which will protect and promote adequately the interests of the wage-earners unless in all other states, in which the same lines of manufacture are engaged in, laws of the same character are enacted. On this account the states whose people are most progressive and humane are either restrained, so far as legislation is concerned, or are competitively handicapped by the states whose people are least progressive and humane. Therefore, it seems to me that the Commission on Industrial Relations should give serious consideration to the subject of the advisability of recommending legislation by the federal government which would, in some measure, equalize in point of labor cost the competitive relationship of manufacturing enterprises between the various states. Concretely, the Commission on Industrial Relations should consider the practicability of legislation by the federal government prohibiting the interstate shipment and sale of goods made in whole or in part by children of less than sixteen years of age; by persons working more than eight hours in any one day; by women employed at night work; by convicts.

EMERGENCE OF A NEW ORDER. BY HENRY MOSKOWITZ, MADISON HOUSE, NEW YORK.

NOW THAT the Commission on Industrial Relations has been appointed, our thoughts are naturally directed toward the big job which confronts it as an epoch-making opportunity. With John R. Commons as one of its members, social workers and serious students of the labor problem can be assured that their suggestions will receive sympathetic and discriminating attention. The overwhelming importance of the problems which this commission must face is challenging, not alone to thoughtful men and women, who rightfully regard the labor problem

as world-dominating in its pressure, but also offers a unique opportunity to the members of this commission to make substantial contribution in the field of industrial statesmanship.

The scope of the commission's activities is so broad and ramifying in its relations that it will be compelled, even with a large appropriation of $500,000, to restrict its inquiries to a limited field. The commission should direct its attention to the fundamental issues involved in the struggle between industrial democracy and industrial oligarchy. In the minds of students of the labor question a new society, based upon collectivity, is emerging. Through travail, suffering, violence, hate, and bitterness a new industrial order is being born.

We are passing through a period of transition characterized by signs of disorder. Fortunately it is also a period of rich experimentation in the field of labor relations. These experiments should be studied. Such innovations as the preferential union shop, the joint board of sanitary control in the cloak and suit industry, and the wage scale board in the dress and waist industry are examples of social invention based upon recognition and representation of the organized workers in industry.

One of the obvious tasks before the commission is a study of the relation of our state and federal machinery to industry. The studies made by the Department of Agriculture in scientific and practical farming have been of incalculable value to the agricultural interests of the country. They have helped to increase the crop output and to raise crop quality. Without disparaging the splendid work of the Federal Bureau of Labor and appreciating its efforts to the full, I do not hesitate to say, that it represents only the beginning of what the federal government can do in the matter of industrial relations.

The new Department of Labor, with an additional cabinet officer at its head, offers the commission a rare opportunity to submit, after careful study, an enlightened and modern conception of the tasks which this important department must undertake. Such recommendations will be particularly helpful in the near future, as the department, I understand, is awaiting the congressional appropriation before its organization can assume the dignified proportions of a separate department in the federal government. The commission's report would have, under present circumstances, very practical significance, and if it succeeded in driving its conception home to Congress an adequate appropriation answering its recommendations ought to follow; and the commission would help to lay a foundation of what must very soon become one of the most important, if not the most important, department in the federal government. Such a result would represent the first substantial fruit of the commission's labor.

The commission will, doubtless, direct its attention to some of the most fundamental causes of strikes—such as recognition of the union, the adjustment of wages, forms of arbitration and mediation acceptable to both sides and other democratic institutions which have been constructively developed by the labor movement. They may be termed the partial fruits of the struggle, but the commission must direct its attention to the struggle itself, and the workers' weapon in the war—the strike.

Careful study of the strike has been made by revolutionists and trade unionists from the standpoint of strategy in the class war. The commission must study the strike from the standpoint of the community; this will necessarily lead to a consideration of the organized workers' relation to our judicial and political system, particularly the former. No aspect of the commission's study will interest lovers of free institutions more.

We should like to know how far striking workingmen are permitted to stop work without interference from the police, soldiers or judges. We are eager to learn how far the workers are justified in accusing judges of being biased protectors of property interests. The study of judicial decisions in connection with important strikes will throw light both upon the bias of the judges and upon the theory of industrial relations which underlies their decisions. We are eager to ascertain whether judges are alive to the need of adapting our judicial system to modern industrial conditions and how far judges have taken cognizance of these new conditions in their conception of justice.

These are but a few of the tantalizing questions which trouble some inquiring minds, and which, among many others, the commission will be asked to answer.

INDUSTRIAL STRUCTURE NEEDED FOR DEMOCRACY. BY H. F. J. PORTER, SECRETARY EFFICIENCY SOCIETY.

I NOTE that the commission is instructed to investigate the causes which have brought about "the relations existing between employer and employe in the industrial field," and if those instructions are intelligently and faithfully fulfilled by a competent commission, there is no doubt in my mind that the result will be timely and far-reaching.

It is to be regretted, however, that coupled with this investigation of causes are instructions to study effects. I refer especially to the instructions to the commission to inquire into the conditions of sanitation and safety of employes in industrial establishments. These are so well known that there is no need for such an inquiry. It is always so easy to dabble with conditions as we see them that we are apt to spend time and money in that direction instead of hunting for the measures which will prevent them.

I have recently seen an instance of this in the work of a state commission which was the outgrowth of a demand, following the Asche building fire in this city, to investigate the fire hazard in factory buildings throughout the state and recommend a remedy for it. This commission received explicit instructions to make this specific investigation, but with them were coupled instructions to inquire besides into conditions affect-

ing the health of the employes engaged in work in those factory buildings. The result has been that the fire hazard end of the investigation was largely lost sight of, and the major portion of the investigation was devoted to unhealthful conditions in factories.

The unfortunate feature of the situation is that an investigation of this latter kind can be carried on indefinitely, and photographs of bad conditions can be obtained *ad libitum*, and reports of gigantic proportions can be printed, all of which make a very impressive showing. But when one looks carefully into the details of the investigation, it is seen that there is absolutely nothing new presented, or that has not been found in hundreds of similar investigations previously made. The result of this mistake, in this particular instance, has been that although at the time of the fire an extremely hazardous fire condition was pointed out as existing in practically all the factories of the state and a peremptory demand was made for its correction, yet now, after two years have elapsed, practically nothing has been done in that direction although many thousands of dollars have been spent in sanitary investigations.

I am afraid that, as the same opportunity has been afforded by the instructions to this commission, the tendency will be to take advantage of it to make a showing and thus enable the commission to perpetuate its existence indefinitely without accomplishing anything in the direction for which it was intended.

If these investigations are to be made, they should be separate and distinct. One requires historical research by men who are familiar with the subject of political and social science and economics; the other simply an inspection of existing conditions by experts in sanitation and industrial hygiene. The latter should not be confused with the former, as, in reality, it has nothing to do with it. If now these two functions can be differentiated and emphasis be laid upon the first and important one, and the latter be left to the hundred and one organizations for betterment which are at work in this field, some really valuable results may be obtained.

This nation was made a democracy and its constitution framed when it was an agricultural and trading nation, exporting foodstuffs and raw materials and importing finished products. Its Departments—Interior, Agriculture, State, War, and Navy—were intended to meet the requirements of the time. The political organization was composed of federal, state, county and town groups. The last was the smallest group, the only other existing being the family. The man in the family was the unit, politically considered, whose house was his castle and could not be entered by the government.

In those days the family supplied the man's and its own needs which consisted of "the homespun, the comestible and the tallow dip." The political organization conceived and drafted by our forefathers was adapted to these conditions.

But changes took place during the next fifty years which greatly modified these conditions. The inventive faculty in man developed machinery and the steam engine. He added a lean-to to his house installing this equipment in it, invited his friends to operate it and started the industrial group. This was in his castle, however, and what he did there was his affair. Then came the locomotive and the steel rail and the industry moved to the site of the raw material and grew to the proportions of the municipal group, but it was still privately owned and it carried the castle tradition along and any interference with it was resented.

Now we are an industrial nation, but we have no Department of Industry and our industrial group is not yet politically recognized. The majority of the people are working in one or another industrial group under the absolute control of one man during the greater number of their waking hours. Although they are supposed to live in a democracy they exist actually in conditions indigenous to a monarchy. Although the man is free to express his choice under the democratic procedure, for the head of the federal group, and of the state, county and town groups, he has nothing to say about who shall be over him in the industrial group which dominates and directs his daily life. It is useless to tell a man he ought to be happy and satisfied because he is in a free country if he is actually working in a condition of servitude.

It should be realized, also, that in the majority of cases the men in control of these industrial groups are not equipped with the knowledge necessary to make them competent to meet the responsibility of control. The demand for hundreds of thousand of managers, superintendents and foremen has caused a draft upon the rank and file which has been met as best it could. There has been no school where the principles of industrial organization and management could be taught; consequently, the men in control have had to evolve methods of their own, and, when they were not successful, force was applied to make them so. Some of these monarchs were tyrants.

Here are two of the inconsistencies and causes to which are due some of our present troubles, and there are others. It will require different men to unravel them than those who like to nose around in factories for bad conditions, plenty of which can be found in the best, and which can be bettered by simply educating the owners and energizing the existing local departments of health and labor to do their duty.

CORPORATIONS AND THEIR EMPLOYES. BY E. A. ROSS, Professor Sociology, University of Wisconsin.

What I most desire from this Commission on Industrial Relations is that it shall turn a steady searchlight on questions of bargaining between corporations and their employes. Just here centers the shadow of doubt.

Do workingmen who bargain as individuals—that is, do not bargain at all but simply take or reject what is offered them—obtain in wages a diminishing share of the wealth they produce?

Suppose the workingman has no union to speak

for him—what are the forces that will insure his receiving the true market value of his labor?

How does the course of wages in the unionized industries compare with the course of wages in the non-unionized industries?

How do wages after the unionization of a plant or industry compare with the wages before?

How do wages after destruction of the unions compare with wages before?

How necessary is the labor union to the economic salvation of the wage-earners under big corporations?

What a help honest, intelligent and authoritative answers to these questions would be to the multitudes of perplexed people who put the welfare of labor first, but who are hesitating between the logic of unionism and the pleas for "industrial freedom"!

MILLIONS FOR PREVENTION. BY FERDINAND C. SCHWEDTMAN, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS.

THE COMMISSION can be made a very constructive factor to American industries. In its inquisitorial power are placed the phases of our national life which make for international success or failure.

The commission's reports and recommendations may give a twentieth-century interpretation to the precious inheritance of American citizenship, the free pursuit of life, liberty and happiness—and suggest to what extent humanity and *zeitgeist* demand the subordination of personal freedom and individual independence to the general welfare and the command to be our brother's keeper.

If the committee's reports and recommendations are based, as is to be expected, upon facts and principles; if it has the energy and ability to get to the bottom of things, and the courage to base its findings upon all the facts without fear or favor; if its work is constructive in the true sense of the word; if its recommendations are on lines of prevention of future ills, then its creation will be entitled to a permanent record among the important events in our nation's history. But if half-baked theories are at the bottom of its work; half truths its findings; policy its standards and muckraking its prime effort, then we will all live to regret the day of the commission's birth.

Correct standards, based upon sound principles applied to facts, are the only arguments required to make the large majority of human beings do their duty, and the club of the law is needed only for the small minority. This rule holds good with employers as well as wage-workers; professional people as well as day laborers; men as well as women, and it should never be forgotten.

In many of the commission's proposed activities correct standards in keeping with twentieth-century progress do not exist or they are comparatively unknown. It is to investigate and report upon conditions of labor in the industries, including agriculture; the relation between employer and employes, sanitation, health and safety of wage workers; collective bargaining; industrial unrest and strife; arbitration and conciliation and illegal entries of Asiatics. Surely every one of these problems is important, but the most important task given into the committee's hands is "the effect of all these on public welfare and the rights and powers of the communities to deal therewith."

Every thoughtful individual, who has had the opportunity to study at first hand the fearful results of labor disturbances in England, France and Germany in recent years, knows that millions of dollars expended in preventing similar conditions in the United States would be the best possible investment from a business standpoint, and this is as nothing compared with humane, civic and patriotic considerations.

We have set many a world record. Here is a chance to excel in the greatest of all efforts. Progressive employers want industrial peace, based upon equitable co-ordination and subordination, as exemplified in a beehive. They do not want the industrial peace of the grave, which seems to be exemplified in Australia.

Let us apply the Panama Canal lesson. De-Lesseps failed utterly because physical and moral diseases annihilated men and money faster than France could supply them. The United States succeeded because it eliminated moral and physical ills by prevention. Only by prevention, based upon the study of facts and conditions, by a competent commission, are we enabled to complete the greatest industrial feat of centuries at Panama.

Only by prevention, based on the study of facts and conditions by a competent commission, can the United States hope to retain and increase its present industrial supremacy over the world's nations.

LAWS, COURTS AND INDUSTRIAL BITTERNESS. BY HENRY R. SEAGER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

THE COMMISSION was created to investigate the causes of the prevailing bitter feeling between employers and employes and to recommend measures for its abatement. A certain amount of antagonism between employers and employes is, of course, no new thing. Their interests, when it comes to the division of the fruits of their common thought and toil, are necessarily opposed. So long as the share of the employes depends on their ability to make favorable bargains with their employers—that is, so long as the wage system itself endures—some sense of antagonism must continue.

There is, however, a new element in the situation, and this, in my judgment, is a widespread sense of the injustice of the conditions under which the wage contract must now be made. By this I do not mean that any very large proportion of wage-earners has come to accept the doctrine which Socialists teach—that the whole product of industry is due to labor and ought of right to go to the workers. The revolt, as I

interpret it, is not against the wage system itself but rather against the legal restrictions which in practice hamper wage-earners at every turn in their efforts to improve their condition without putting any corresponding restraint on their employers.

A few illustrations will make my meaning clearer. The injunction process has been found a highly efficient means of breaking a strike. It can be used by employers against their employes because they can nearly always persuade a court that damage suits against these employes, after they have committed unlawful acts which are destructive of property, will prove ineffective. It can rarely, if ever, be turned against employers because it can usually be urged that they will be able to respond in damages, and that, therefore, there is no need for this extraordinary means of compelling them to respect the property rights of others. A legal remedy which may be used by one side in an industrial dispute and not by the other, naturally seems to the other unfair.

Again, wage-earners know that to succeed in strikes for higher wages or shorter hours they must control a sufficient proportion of the available workers in the trade to bring it home to the employer that they are necessary partners in his business. From their point of view, therefore, efforts to strengthen their unions, through strikes to prevent the employment of non-unionists, or "scabs," are as necessary and proper as efforts to secure higher wages or shorter hours directly. When the courts tell them that they may strike for better conditions, but if they strike to strengthen the union they are guilty of conspiracy, they feel that the law is illogical, arbitrary, and designed, while seeming to concede to them the right to united action, really to prevent their united efforts from being effective.

Another distinction the law draws, which seems to them unfair, is that between strikes and boycotts. One way in which the obdurate employer may be made to respect the right of his men to organize is by inducing his customers to withdraw their patronage unless he treats his employes in a manner that seems to these customers fair. Trade unionists see no reason why, feeling as they do in regard to the right of wage-earners to organize, they should not refuse to patronize an employer who denies them this right. To make such refusal effective they think that they should be allowed to publish the names of "unfair" or "we-don't-patronize" employers in their union journals. The view that this constitutes a conspiracy seems to them to involve a denial of their liberty to patronize whom they choose. When this view of the boycott crystalizes in an injunction, for the alleged violation of which such a widely revered labor leader as John Mitchell is threatened with fine and imprisonment, it becomes, to their minds, an intolerable instrument of tyranny.

Finally, the application of the federal anti-trust act to labor combinations strengthens wage-earners in their belief that for whatever purpose a law may be framed the courts will be certain to turn it against them rather than against their employers. Under that statute the United Hatters are liable to pay damages to the amount of $240,000 for acts which their consciences fully approve, while the Standard Oil Company, the trust most frequently referred to when the act was under consideration in Congress, has escaped with an order to dissolve, obedience to which has served only, so the wage-earner argues, to enhance greatly the value of its constituent properties.

It is these anomalies in our law as it applies to wage-earners which are, in my opinion, chiefly responsible for the bitterness which American workingmen feel toward their employers, and the readiness with which they turn from lawful to unlawful and even criminal means to secure their ends. Nothing is so fatal to a law-abiding disposition as a conviction that the law itself is unjust or that its administration is unfair.

Let the Industrial Relations Commission study sympathetically our law with reference to what wage-earners may and what they may not do to better their conditions. Let them compare it with the law of the United Kingdom, from which we got the common law principles which our courts are trying to apply. Let them investigate the reason for the British Parliament itself deliberately superseding these principles, so far as they affect the relations between employers and employes, by the trade union acts of the seventies and the trade disputes act of 1906, and find out what have been the results of this liberal legislation. Finally, let them either show that our present laws are unfair in their operation and recommend modifications, even constitutional modifications if necessary, or let them defend these laws by reasoning so cogent that it will convict thoughtful wage-earners of the error of their views. This seems to me the most important task of the commission.

THE LINE OF UNDERSTANDING. BY LINCOLN STEFFENS WHO BROUGHT THE MCNAMARA CASE INTO THE OPEN.

THE COMMISSION will seek facts, of course—find them, and report them. And, of course, there are facts to get—new facts, useful facts. And it may just be that the truth is in the undiscovered facts. But what we need is understanding, not only facts. We have facts. We have been nearly drowned in facts. And we don't know how to swim. We have had so very little interpretation of facts; so little of truth.

This commission might seek the truth.

We have dealt with facts as we have with men. We have gone after them, sicked detectives on them, run them down and then—jumped on them in our murderous, impatient, unscientific, helpless rage. We should deal with facts as we should deal with individuals. We should understand them. And this commission might do that.

This commission might take the facts we have, grasp and understand them, and then follow them back to their cause or sources.

We do not need judges and umpires. We have had enough of them, too. Judges try to find out who is to blame or who is most to blame, and then they punish him. Everybody is to blame, or nobody is to blame. So the judges with their judgments and penalties have brought us nowhere. They are even bringing the law into contempt by showing its hopelessness, its insistance on evidence, its avoidance of breadth and understanding.

And as for the umpires, most of them try to adjust differences that are fundamental with a compromise that is as superficial as a coat of paint. They are the practical men who are the merest theorists of our day. They "settle" a strike on a foundation of starvation, fraud and murder. We must continue to have umpires, I suppose, and so must we continue to have hunger, lies and riots. But they ought all to be abolished together. And they can be abolished.

We have dealt with labor troubles as we have with political troubles, and as we used to deal with diseases and epidemics—we have treated the symptoms. We have broken the strike (with law and order) as if it were the disease and not merely a symptom of a disease. We have prohibited saloons as if they were an evil, instead of a mere result of an evil of which the Prohibitionists are only another like effect. We suppress, we try to cure everything. And we believe in force (on our side, which is the right side, we think; especially those of us who are wrong and on the wrong side).

We should try to prevent evil. We should try to prevent labor troubles, political graft and all our other social sicknesses as we do certain diseases. It's all right to send a doctor and, better still, a nurse to attend a sick individual. But we should also send an inspector up the river to see what is contaminating the stream from which the patient drank in the germs of his sickness. And it isn't so bad in social crimes to kill the fellow that actually planted the dynamite if, having had our vengeance, satiated our murderous instincts and tasted blood, we will then go out and see that the motive for that crime is removed. In other words, we may kill the mosquitoes, but only on condition that we will afterward find the pond which germinates them and fill it up; or, if it is private property, and therefore more sacred than human life, put oil on the face of the waters thereof.

This commission might do this with the labor disease. It might seek the cause of low wages, poverty, misery, vice and crime and recommend their removal. It can find out what the causes are.

There are plenty of economic detectives who can give the commissioners clues and lead them right up to the tree of knowledge and pick off apples for them and us. But when they do that, they will relieve not only Adam and Eve of all blame; they will exculpate the serpent, also, and Satan. They will convict the apples and the Garden of Eden in which so many of us live; this fool's paradise of ignorance and sin in which some of us are rich and unhappy at the cost of poverty and misery for most of us. I don't expect the commission to do this. The commission is organized on the lines of the class war. All I am trying to say is that off there in the direction of causes is the line of understanding and service.

In a word, let this commission listen. Let it look first at the facts, but finally let it listen to all the witnesses who think they see the sources of evil: to Anarchists, to Socialists, to single taxers, to Christians, to the workers themselves who may know something about their condition and what they want, and why they can not get it; and even to the business men who buy and sell labor. For they are beginning to notice that labor is not merely a commodity, but citizens, also—human beings and consumers. Let the commissioners listen to these tales, let them hearken humbly to all ideas upon ways and means, not to compromise with the right, but to prevent the development of wrong.

INDUSTRIAL CONSTITUTIONALISM.

BY SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY, PROFESSOR COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

THE COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS was conceived in a spirit of practical idealism by those who took a long look ahead in American industrial democracy. It will be an instrument of far-reaching constructive statesmanship or it will fail to realize the high hopes of a large group of the ablest students of labor problems in the United States. The men and women who have fathered this project do not look upon it as a bit of diletantti sentimentalism nor as an ordinary formal governmental inquiry.

It must first of all plan its work as that of a deliberative body that proposes to deliberate and reach conclusions that will carry conviction and compel action on the part of legislatures, administrators of the law, and those who guide and inspire educated public opinion.

We need new knowledge about existing relations of employers and employes as well as about those of the consumers of their products to both employers and employes. Somehow the arguments that are current on the public platform, in the church, club and classroom, in the labor union and the employers' associations and in the public press have come to have for those who think and who observe the undercurrents of American life an air of unreality about them, not to say insincerity, because we seem to be reasoning on an assumed basis of facts which are not the facts of our industrial life today but rather those of a generation past, of conditions that might as well be those of a foreign country, or those of the era prior to the introduction of steam power machines so great have been the changes in business organization from year to year. Indeed this process of change in business organization is going on so rapidly that those engaged in industrial enterprise can scarcely realize themselves their significance or effect upon their respective interests. As soon as one adjustment is made, others that are just as necessary by implication, lead to further conflict.

The commission, therefore, it seems to me, ought to approach its work from a desire to collect the data required to interpret present problems both in the light of the past and also in that of the future, paradoxical as that may sound. I mean that we need not only to know much more about actual present-day methods of business management both in small and large business undertakings but also to understand the meaning of these arrangements and relations and therefore we must be able to look at them when accurately described in the light of past history and with a profound appreciation of tendencies that are working their way through a whole epoch; which means following them into the future and forecasting their logical development.

I am sure it is already clear to every thorough student of labor conflicts that we have entered upon a well-defined era of industrial constitutionalism just as political constitutionalism took shape in the western world in the eighteenth century. The era of industrial relationships "affected with a public interest," to borrow a legal phrase, has been enormously expanded during the latter half of the nineteenth century and it would be a bold man today who would venture to say where this expansion will stop. Perhaps the commission can fix some limits that will serve as a new basis upon which to revise our law on (1) the labor contract; (2) strikes, lockouts and boycotts, direct, sympathetic or otherwise; (3) rights, duties, privileges or immunities of labor organizations, and of organizations of capital, so as to secure the highest achievement of efficient government, the strongest possible feeling of security and fair play on the part of its citizens. Only such work will give definiteness to our understanding of that crude and often irrational groping after what I have called industrial constitutionalism. Social development is altogether too organic in character not to be deeply affected by sympathetic nerves, or by induced currents, so to speak.

The tremendous significance and utility of constitutionalism in English and American life during the past two centuries and of the common law which is simply another aspect of the same thing, for many more centuries, notwithstanding the very evident desire for an easier method of amending the former and the fact that statute law has seriously limited the scope of the latter, is evidence enough that in industrial relationships it is high time for us to study and seek to formulate the fundamental and mutual understandings which ought to lie back of statutory regulation, and be recognized as more permanent and fundamental, whether they are actually embodied in written constitutions or lead to the radical amendment of those we now have.

The new Commission on Industrial Relations will achieve something of more than national import if it nails this aim to its mast and accomplishes even a fragment of what it portends. I hope it will concentrate for the first year at least on three main divisions:

(1) *A Bureau of Business Organization and Management,* which will examine real labor contracts with respect to hiring, discipline, discharge, promotion, wages, hours, health and safety, education and efficiency, retirement and pension provisions;

(2) *A Bureau of Labor Law Enforcement* which will study all governmental agencies affecting the relations of employers and employes to each other and of both in their organized capacities to the general public;

(3) *A Bureau of Standards* which will work out in detail for groups of industries standards of compensation for labor, of health and safety, of compensation for industrial accidents, disability and old age, for periodic adjustments to the economic changes in the cost of decent living without the losses incident to industrial warfare, of competition with alien labor, and of many other standards without which there is no scientific basis for constitutionalism in American industrial democracy nor for statutory regulation of its aimless striving for better conditions of life and labor, and without which there is no hope for the conservation of the human waste in American industry which is more alarming today than the prodigal and lavish use we have made of our natural resources.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE: PROSPECT AND RETROSPECT

GRAHAM TAYLOR

COMPARISONS are nowhere less invidious than in the goodly fellowship of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The sections of country in which it meets and the cities which are its hosts leave something distinctive upon each session which quite clearly distinguishes one from another. These distinctions are the joint product of the effort which the Committee on Organization makes to adapt each program to the needs and opportunities of the region where the session is held, and of the local coloring and emphasis given to the discussions. Thus the conferences held in New England and in the South, in the middle states and on the Pacific coast, in the Central West and in Canada, have an atmosphere of their own, which, however, is to be more clearly recognized by those in attendance than by those who read the proceedings.

So cities leave their impress upon the conferences which they not only entertain, but more or less mold. Our memories of conference programs are registered not by a particular volume in the long series of the proceedings, but by Denver, Boston, Toronto, or Grand Rapids, and, not less emphatically, by Seattle.

There, for instance, the conference may well have gathered confidence for the future from the adventure of faith which this best established, newest city has made for its future, substantially expressed in its terraced, well-paved, brightly lighted streets, in its grassy and flowering vacant lots and open spaces, in its improvement of glorious water-fronts for commercial and park purposes, all at the cost of assessing forty millions of dollars taxation in twenty years. Seattle's claim to be "a city without slums," well demonstrated by its elimination of one of the worst segregated vice districts on the continent, and by its new attack on a few insanitary lodging-houses, inspires hope in the inter-play and outworking of public and voluntary agencies which the conference has ever sought to promote.

Mayor Cotterill's statesmanlike utterance in his address of welcome, laid new emphasis upon the increased study and attention which the conference has given to civic, industrial and social progress. The city's own courageous satisfaction "in paying more per capita for public education than is being contributed by any large city in America," rang out in its mayor's claim that "this composite American and cosmopolitan community has but one per cent of illiteracy in its total population over ten years of age, and but one-tenth of one per cent in its native white population."

And yet the conference was braced to take itself more seriously than ever by Mayor Cotterill's note of warning that "here where the last of the West has been reached, where the world's westward movement concentrates its force, here is the future which fascinates and yet ought to inspire us with a righteous fear." And the conference did its best to give Seattle and the coast what this wide-visioned, deep-toned city executive claimed from it in these words: "We need the counsel and the experience of the best thought of the nation, as represented in this National Conference, to inspire, to teach, and to aid us to meet the old-new problems which lie directly ahead. We must avoid the errors and forestall the neglects which have made charities and correction so pitifully necessary, and withal so woefully inadequate in older sections."

If anything were needed to confirm the conference in its newly placed and increasing emphasis upon civic and industrial intelligence and ethics, Seattle furnished it in the impressive response it gave to every presentment of the Committees on Standards of Living and Labor, the Relation of Commercial Organizations to Social Welfare, and the Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants, together with the effective plea of President Tucker's address and Mr. McKelway's sermon for "social justice."

But the comparison of this present emphasis with that of each past period of the conference is not invidious. For, the justice of today was the charity of yesterday, in part at least, as surely as the charity of today is leading the way to the justice of tomorrow. Neither is independent of the other. The justice which we are coming to demand, would not have been possible without the charity which preceded and led the way to it. And charity without justice can not be made perfect, for, while justice may never supersede charity, yet charity's finest consummation is to eliminate itself by justice.

Thus the periods and the personnel of the conference's forty years' progress mark successive stages in a consistent evolutionary development. Public charities and correction were naturally emphasized and most constructively developed by the founders of the conference who, for the most part, were directly connected with state boards and institutions. Private charities and voluntary agencies next received the attention and development called for by the rapidly spreading charity organization movement. And now, since these two great groups of human interests are proceeding along the line of self-development and co-operation, in large part suggested by the National Conference of their representatives, the conference can maintain its claim to be national only by adding to these great spheres of its activity that within which the nation's interest, agitation and legislation are now centered—the sphere of industrial and social justice.

Those who are now studying and discussing this still more complex, delicate and difficult grouping of human interests are pioneering just as much as, but no more than such predecessors as William Prior Letchworth, Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, Robert Treat Paine, Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Frederick H. Wines and Frank B. Sanborn. Never to be forgotten, much less to be ignored, are such presences as theirs, such words of wisdom as they spoke, such living and loving deeds as they did. Nevertheless it has come to be true that they without these, their present-day pioneer successors, "should not be made perfect." For public charities have evolved social insurance. Private charities have led the way to protective, preventive and compensatory legislation. So, while the old notes should still be struck, to ring out the well-established principles and methods of public and private charities and the co-operation between them, yet new notes need to be struck to ring in the principles and methods of political science, economics, and social ethics.

On to Memphis, therefore, the National Conference may move, as confident of its purpose to serve its own day and generation then and there, as its history proves it to have served the purpose of every other year and place in which it has wrought its beneficent ends.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE AT SEATTLE

ROGER N. BALDWIN

AN atmosphere of freshness and a spirit of new strength characterized the Seattle conference. It was due in part to active participation of many of the younger men and women, in part to the many speakers from the Pacific Coast, in part to President Tucker's business-like management—but most of all, to the extraordinary preparations made by the local committee and the enthusiastic co-operation of the whole city of Seattle.

Probably no National Conference of Charities and Correction has had such heralding. Seattle had wanted the conference for several years—for herself and for the whole coast, in view of the prospective new problems following the opening of the Panama Canal. The conference went to Portland, Ore., in 1905, but that was a long time ago, as Pacific Coast cities count, and its only other coast trip was to San Francisco way back in 1889.

So Seattle set to. Under the Central Council of Social Agencies, representing the fifty-six leading public and private social agencies of the city—from labor unions to the chamber of commerce, with the mayor at the head—active local committees were formed. The Rotary Club, a business men's body, raised the necessary $2,000, a corps of speakers was sent to organizations all over the city and state, even into Idaho, and a vigorous advertising campaign was conducted by means of billboards, 50,000 circulars, and columns of newspaper publicity. Country newspapers were reached by news-letter service. Letters sent out along the entire coast brought in three hundred new conference members.

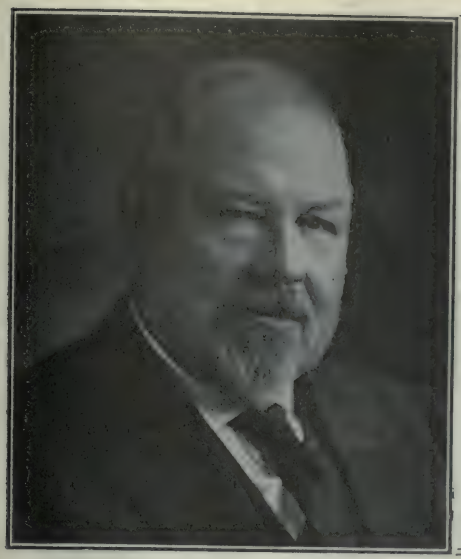
In the midst of this glowing setting the fortieth conference camped on July 5, registering at the close, July 12, an attendance of paid members numbering from outside the state of Washington over 450, and from Seattle and Washington 350 more. Seattle people fairly swarmed to the evening meetings, and the conference sermon drew a packed house of between 3,000 and 3,500. President Tucker estimated the total attendance at the thirty meetings during the week at between 25,000 and 30,000. Enthusiasm was no less remarkable. Through all the seven days the conference was "live." The newspapers gave it practically unlimited space, one paper running two extra conference pages almost every day containing the important speeches in full. This was done, the editor said, "as a good business proposition."

To Seattle and the coast the conference meant a great deal not only because the special topic of immigration was fully and forcefully dealt with in view of the opening of the Panama Canal, but also because it revealed the vigorous social work now being done on the coast. The coast states themselves had opportunity of getting acquainted with each other's workers; of facing their problems with experts from all over the country, and testing their progress. Almost every program had on it one or more speakers from California, Oregon or Washington.

But the coast gave back more than it took. The progressive spirit of the rapid social advance on the Pacific Coast was remarked on every hand by eastern delegates,—evidenced in popular movements for social reform in the comparative freedom in government, in the confident resort to governmental agencies instead of private societies, in emphasis on industrial readjustment and, as a noteworthy example, in the verility of the sex-hygiene campaign.

During the week some energetic conference workers explored the slumless city of Seattle, and brought out effectively with newspaper aid the existence of seriously unsanitary cheap lodging-house conditions, which the agencies of the city with characteristic directness, have already set out to remedy. This was the one conspicuous defect discovered in a city which was a marvel to all who came to know it for the first time—a new city which, as Graham Taylor said, "looks so citified." And it did appear citified in the best modern sense. It has a magnificent park system, extensive recreation facilities, almost uniformly good housing, evidence of effort to plan carefully, a well-developed business section, and a fine use of its wonderful natural beauties of sea, lakes, and snow-capped mountains.

It seemed particularly appropriate that in this setting the conference should have emphasized more strongly than ever its growing identity with the most vital reconstructive social movements, extending that process which has developed it from a close corporation on charities and correction, limited, to a thoroughly representative conference on social welfare, unlimited. Its name of forty years ago no longer indicates the scope of its present-day discussion, its searching inquiry into preventive measures, and its development of a cohesive program of



ALEXANDER JOHNSON

who gives up the office of secretary of the National Conference after eight years service. "The National Conference is Alexander Johnson," was the way one speaker summed up his work.

social reconstruction. Its broad field of interest drew more numerously than ever before, mayors, judges, business men, and public officials in other departments than charities and corrections.

While the conference program was well-rounded and covered every accustomed subject and many new ones, the response of the audiences brought out the trend of conference thought. And that trend was unmistakably economic—the challenge to the industrial order for sweeping readjustments. However keen the interest in other topics, this was one which never failed to elicit enthusiastic response. It broke out at the opening meeting when President Tucker sounded the call for a more fundamental and largely economic interpretation of social justice; it rose almost thunderously when Dr. McKelway in the conference sermon declared that at the bottom of the whole problem we now face is the question of wages, and added: "Men do not always know what justice is, and their thoughts widen with the process of the suns, but if there is any current of American thought today, it is the demand among the masses of men for justice. We can tell its course by the ripples on the surface, when some obstacle rears its head. Privilege of any kind must go down before the rush of that current."

The same response rose with every utterance of the slogan "Not charity but justice." Appreciation of the industrial situation was voiced by speaker after speaker, even though his topic lay in other fields. The new radical labor groups, the I. W. W., Socialism and the single tax were frequently brought into discussion as movements to be reckoned with practically and studiously by social workers. The industrial program was the last ringing note sounded at the closing session with an all-round presentation of the minimum wage, the essence of which, to quote Mrs. Kelley, is that "the pay-roll has become public property," and no business can be a going concern which does not pay a living wage, any more than if it could not pay interest or rent.

This emphasis was further brought out by the report of the new Committee on the Relation of Commercial Organizations to Social Welfare, created at the 1912 Cleveland meeting. While the committee presented a most stimulating statement of the actual civic and social work of the "new commercialism," and showed the constantly broadening horizon of organized business in public matters, yet the report on the whole was a distinct challenge to business to do away with those industrial conditions which are breeding extremist philosophy and "direct action."

Another current of thought, strong but less apparent, ran to the working out of social problems by governmental rather than by private agencies. Putting the burden on the whole community, working through renovated, democratic, responsive government—these were brought out effectively as the need of today in fighting poverty and crime. A significant contribution in this field was the session devoted to boards of public welfare, with particular reference of course to Kansas City's unique and inclusive solvent of distress. It was apparent that social workers are coming to expect from the city itself experimental pioneer work in future social solutions. Dr. Farrand's one general session on public health problems had as its central idea the necessity of making pub-



GRAHAM TAYLOR
President 41st National Conference to be held at Memphis next May.



FRANK TUCKER
Vice-president Provident Loan Society, president of the Seattle Conference.

lic agencies assume the responsibility for vast work now done by private societies, thus following first a careful correlation of all existing agencies.

For the first time since 1898 municipal charities were discussed, diagnosed, and remedies prescribed. Charities endorsement as a function of commercial organizations was a brand-new topic, arousing lively discussion, and opening up an almost unexplored field of possibilities—in joint collection and apportionment of funds by all the private charities of a city (along the lines of the new Cleveland federation plan), in state control of private charities, and in the application of endorsement to nation-wide charities through national business organizations.

Two governors contributed to the conference program, Governor Lister of Washington personally in a masterful presentation of the more positive needs in the administration of correctional institutions, and Governor West of Oregon through a representative. Governor Lister spoke from years of experience, for he was a former commissioner of the State Board of Control, and a delegate to the National Conference at Topeka in 1901. Governor West's message was strong in the faith that men are made only outside of prisons, and that his nationally-famous honor system with out-of-door work is a real builder of men.

Probably the most practical service performed by any committee of the conference was that of the Committee on Immigration. Realizing the importance of this subject to the Pacific Coast in the near future, Graham Taylor, the chairman, urged a nation-wide internal policy for distributing and assimilating immigrants now having the right to enter and settle, pleading for suspension of judgment as to the worth, character and possibilities of the present-day southern European immigration. C. W. Blanpied, immigration secretary of the San Francisco Y. M. C. A., associated with the chairman to survey the situation in the coast states, reported one of the most comprehensive investigations ever presented to the conference. His statement on Pacific Coast conditions will doubtless be the practical basis of whatever movement follows the presentation of this absorbing topic. The problem of assimilating immigrants, their relation to American labor, wages and standards of living were all brought out in section meetings, which, however, avoided discussion of the phase of the subject uppermost in the minds of the audience—namely, Asiatic immigration. In deference to expressed wishes, Chairman Taylor held a special meeting in the Grand Opera House for the free-floor discussion of Oriental immigration in relation to the land.

It proved to be one of the liveliest, warmest and most hotly-contested events of the week. Most of those who "spoke their minds," were opposed to further Oriental immigration. Indeed the restrictionists on immigration in general seemed to find an always ready response at all the meetings.

Hardly less lively than the immigration meetings were several on juvenile court methods and the community care of unfortunate children, participated in by numerous judges and probation officers. Children's work was handled most com-



W. A. GATES

Secretary of the California State Board of Charities, vice-president of the 41st conference.



A. J. McKELWAY

Southern secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, vice-president of the 41st conference.

prehensively in a well-rounded program, dealing with both city and rural communities, feeble-mindedness, the work of the Federal Children's Bureau, and vocational training, with one special meeting on western coast problems affecting juvenile courts and the care of destitute children. Mother's pensions as a still burning issue could not be avoided, and an emergency afternoon round-table was held at which co-operation of private agencies with existing systems was thrashed out. Some expressed the pragmatic conclusion that where the system works all right, it is a blessing, and where it doesn't work all right, it is a crime.

Juvenile court workers held two special afternoon meetings, one given over to the "girl problem," and the other to an examination of the psychopathic clinic at the Seattle court. Probation and parole came in for a generous share of attention through the new committee on that subject.

Large interest was aroused by the inspiring showing for the churches in social work made by the committee under Mr. Glenn's chairmanship, the papers contrasting sharply with those of a few years ago which bewailed the lack of vision and the poverty of work on the part of the churches. And Seattle gave a practical demonstration in eagerness to hear the social gospel by using all the speakers the conference could furnish at the regular Sunday morning services conference week.

The essentials of case work and the new movement for developing in a city's social work a definite program year by year, were the chief contributions of the committee on Families and Neighborhoods.

But programs and conferring did not wholly occupy the delegates. Seattle provided events in hospitality long to be remembered: the opening evening reception; the automobile tour with a hundred machines in line, around the great park and boulevard system, winding up with a play demonstration at one of the newly-equipped play-fields; the boat-ride around beautiful Lake Washington, the luncheons arranged in honor of the conference by the Central Council of Social Agencies, the Municipal League, and the Rotary Club. Every detail for the pleasure and comfort of conference delegates was carefully worked out; the flowers, profuse on tables, stands and even in hotel rooms; the exceptionally fine musical numbers at all evening sessions; the business-like management of registration, information bureau, post-office and other conveniences at headquarters in Plymouth Church, which was admirably adapted for conference use.

The business of the conference was handled with the usual effectiveness characteristic of Secretary Alexander Johnson who, after nine years of service, has resigned to go to New Jersey as a field expert in the care of the feeble-minded. Mr. Johnson's quiet strength, his warm personality, his love of all the conference stands for were voiced time and again officially and privately by those to whom, as one speaker put it, "the National Conference is Alexander Johnson," and whose going is accompanied by the deepest regret. Mr. Johnson will not be lost



WILLIAM T. CROSS

Secretary Missouri State Board of Charities and Correction, the new secretary of the conference.

to the conference however. In his new field he will have a large opportunity for service to the conference and the whole country.

The election of officers and the report of the organization committee brought many new changes in the conference. Three committees are discontinued for the coming year, those on Immigration, Commercial Organizations and Social Welfare, and on Church and Social Work. Two new committees are added, one on Social Hygiene and the other Defectives (including defective delinquents). The Committee on Families and Neighborhoods was renamed the Committee on the Family and Community, including community programs. A new committee was created on Neighborhood Development, including recreation.[1]

The new officers nominated and elected unanimously to prepare the forty-first meeting at Memphis in May, 1914, are: president, Graham Taylor; vice-presidents, A. J. McKelway, Mrs. John M. Glenn and W. A. Gates; secretary, William T. Cross. The new secretary comes direct from the secretaryship of both the Missouri State Board of Charities and Correction and the State Conference of Charities. In both positions he has won distinct success as an organizer and close student of social problems.

[1]The complete list of standing committees for 1914 with their chairmen is as follows: Social Hygiene, Maude E. Miner; Children, Mrs. Mary Vida Clark; Standards of Living and Labor, Including Social Insurance, Charles P. Neil; Health, Dr. Richard C. Cabot; Public Charities, Dr. J. T. Mastin; Defectives, including Mental Hygiene and Defective Delinquency, Dr. Liwellys Barker; Family and Community, Eugene T. Lies; Neighborhood Development, Mary McDowell; Correction, Amos W. Butler.

His report at Seattle as chairman of the committee on Public Administration and Supervision, had been submitted to all this committee and brought about a new consensus of opinion on some formerly controversial issues. Mr. Cross has served as lecturer on sociology at the University of Missouri during the four years of his work as secretary of the Missouri State Board of Charities and Correction. His last report for the board, published last spring, is said by Missouri social workers to be "the most thorough analysis of poverty and crime ever made in Missouri, and a most effective study of the relation of state and county institutions to poverty and crime." As secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, he will make his headquarters in Chicago.

The Memphis meeting will face a situation in the National Conference which has been growing fast these last few years. Gradually as the new fields of work grew big, special associations were formed to cultivate them,—and formed chiefly at national conferences,—till now we have half a dozen or more meeting just before or with the National Conference. This year, on account of distance, only two held their accustomed meetings: the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity and the National Children's Home Society. Two Pacific Coast meetings were held at the same time, the Pacific Coast Conference on Sex Hygiene and the Washington State Conference of Charities and Correction. The others, the National Probation Association, the Conference on Defective, Backward and Truant Children, and the new American Association of Officials of Charities and Correction, all meet elsewhere this year. Memphis will doubtless bring them all together again. In this growing field of specialization, the conference must doubtless redefine its relationship to the smaller groups.

The National Conference, with these organizations, represents the leadership in shaping such of a national social program as we have. Through the forty years, the emphases in the program have changed markedly: first, from the institutional care of unfortunates to the prevention of misfortune and now to the great inclusive field of social reconstruction.

And in that field, as the Seattle meeting showed even more clearly than the Cleveland meeting before it, the chief emphasis is the growing recognition of the imperative need of far-reaching industrial readjustment. We are also beginning—but as yet only beginning—to reach out to identify ourselves with the great forces for social reconstruction—government, labor, business, the church, the schools—and to express more and more tellingly in terms of practical work the world-wide struggle for equality.

August 2, 1913.

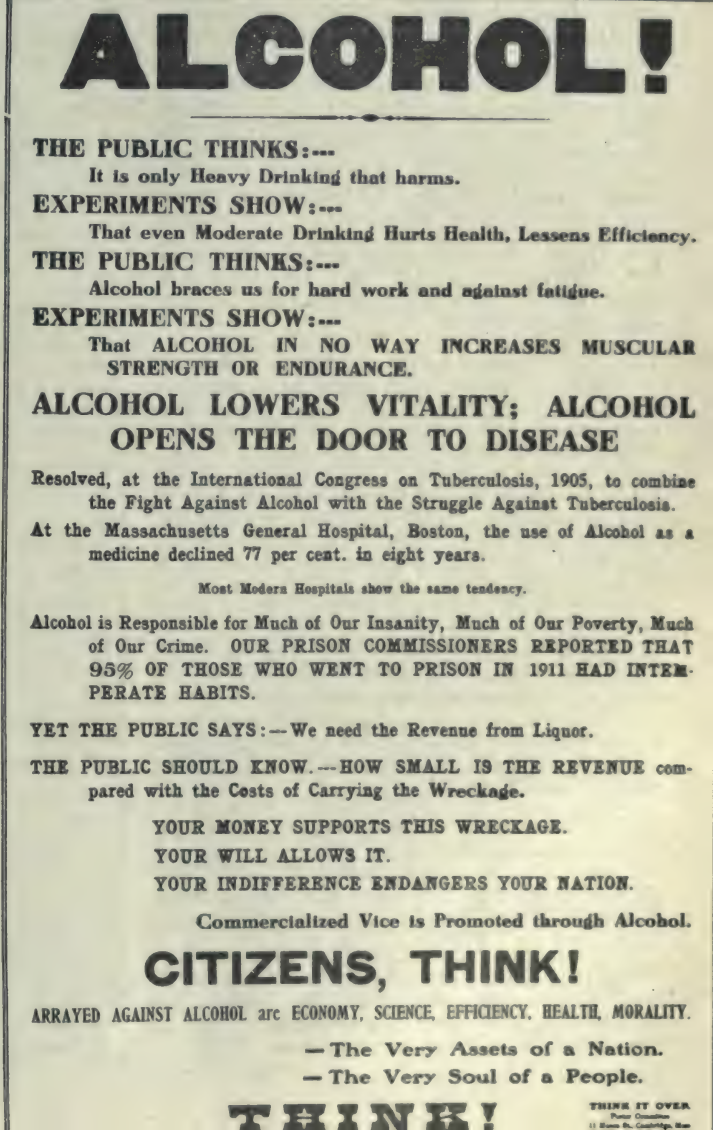
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THE SURVEY

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THE PITH OF IT

DO philanthropic societies provide family relief on the basis of the same standard of living conditions which these societies and social workers demand that industry shall afford? Relief committees and workers need the spirit of fundamental democracy quite as much as the technique of relief. P. 599.

CHICAGO'S Board of Education has refused to accept the resignation of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of schools, which she offered because of interference with her administrative policies by some members of the board. Public sentiment in Chicago was vigorously aroused in Mrs. Young's behalf by a large group of organizations. A mass meeting was held after a special committee, composed of Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Jane Addams, Mary McDowell and Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, had induced Mrs. Young not to declare her intention of resigning irrevocable. Mayor Harrison has appointed as new members of the board Mrs. Gertrude Howe Britton, superintendent of the Juvenile Protective Association, Mrs. Florence Vosbrink, a former president of the Catholic Women's League, and Dr. Peter C. Cleminson, a physician.

CHOIRS from mill, mine and factory made the Welsh Eisteddfod at Pittsburgh a people's festival, expressing the idealism of the common folk. P. 597.

FIGHTERS of the loan shark hold their annual conference, with thirty-three remedial loan associations represented. Good laws in six states were reported, with a setback only in New York. P. 597.

WHAT happens after the child secures a work certificate? Accurate measurement of the effect of industry on children is being made in Cincinnati. The results show that 73 per cent of the families do not need the earnings of the children, that the majority of children are tired of school and want to go to work, that over half of the children change jobs once or more during their first year at work—usually voluntarily to get better pay or a better job—and that it is doubtful whether schools should undertake to place children under sixteen in industry since "there is no work open to them worth advising them to take." P. 601.

FARM work for juvenile and short-term offenders was emphasized by officials of charities and correction in their gathering at Springfield, Ill. A strong plea was made that citizens take the same interest in public as in private charity administration. P. 597.

"WIDER use" has spread from schools to armories. New York has opened an armory as a play center in a neighborhood which has 36,000 children and no playground. P. 599.

THE SURVEY

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THE COMMON WELFARE

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WANTED

First Assistant County Agent for Cook County relief work; male or female; pay $208.33 per month. Competitive examination open to all citizens of the U. S. will be held at 10 A. M. August 29, 1913, in Chicago. Requires person with administrative ability, experienced in modern charity methods. For application blank and descriptive bulletin, apply to Cook County Civil Service Commission, 547 County Court House, Chicago.

TO MAKE Washington's slum alleys over into well-kept minor streets for good small homes—this is the plan of housing reformers, following up the work of President Roosevelt's Homes Commission, and extending the capital's city plan from public buildings and boulevards to the dwellings of the people. P. 595.

THE COMMON WELFARE

EVEN CONGRESS SEES A HOUSING PROBLEM

For more years than a few some of the people of Washington have been aware that the inhabited alleys of the nation's capital are a menace to public health, morals and police records. But the majority of that changing faction of its people, who hold federal office and *ex-officio* govern the city, have refrained from taking any interest in them. Visitors from "home" have been content to see the White House, the Capitol and the Washington monument. They have never heard of Goat Alley. The interests of senators and congressmen have followed those of their home folks.

So during all these years the requests and demands of local social workers and of citizens with a social conscience—but without a vote—fell on ears that were hard of hearing. Only from President Roosevelt did they get any comfort—from his President's Homes Commission, which made a study of alley dwellings and published a report with recommendations. Its only tangible result to date has been the beginning of the conversion of Willow Tree Alley into an interior park. That is something—though many of the workers believe that such an interior park will be almost as great a menace as the inhabited alley. And Washington has some 275 inhabited alleys.

There also has been some legislation that has improved conditions. The Board for the Condemnation of Insanitary Buildings has been created. Up to May 1 of this year it had demolished 1,692 of the worst shacks and caused 1,555 to be repaired. There is a law prohibiting the erection of new houses on alleys less than forty feet wide. But that works two ways. Old houses are kept in commission, the owners' chief fear being that the Board of Condemnation will catch them—if they don't watch out. There is a law providing for the conversion of alleys into minor streets, but like some other laws which mean well, it doesn't work. So Washington has made very little progress on its alley problem.

The voteless citizens of the capital did more than ask Congress to do something for them. They studied their problem and published books and reports just as citizens with votes in other cities do. They brought in men like Jacob A. Riis to arouse general interest. And—to show their earnestness—they organized two housing companies on a five per cent and a four per cent basis to provide good housing in competition with bad.

But it was not until last winter that the general public—including both the resident and the constitutional term elements—began to take interest. Two more pamphlets were issued, one by the Monday Evening Club, the other by the Women's Welfare Department of the National Civic Federation. The ministers preached about bad alleys, and Mrs. Woodrow Wilson joined the ranks. In May the welfare department of the National Civic Federation held a large public meeting at which Secretary of Commerce Redfield and John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association, spoke.

Two weeks later the Committee of Fifty outlined a plan of campaign. It was proposed to ask Congress for an amendment to the law for the conversion of alleys into minor streets designed to meet the court ruling which had put the spoke in the wheel of the present law. Mr. Ihlder proposed that the request to Congress be broadened, that Congress be asked to finance a commission created to study the whole alley question and to make recommendations for converting the alleys into a system of minor streets within a definite number of years. Such a commission would add to the valuable information gathered by organizations like the President's Homes Commission definite data on the number, length, width, direction, etc., of the alleys and plan a street system which would make the greatest possible use of these existing passages. This would not only solve the alley problem but would give Washington what it and every other city needs—a system of minor streets affording sites for inexpensive small houses.

Objection on the ground of the great expense involved was met by Mr. Ihlder with the statement that the very magnitude of the thing would appeal to men's imaginations, make them realize that they are doing a big and important thing, make men and women who could never be interested in the sordid little problems of one Goat Alley eager to identify themselves with an improvement great enough and spectacular enough to get a place in history; and finally, that the cost, though great in total, would be spread over

a number of years and before the work is finished the benefits would begin to pay for it.

The committee adopted this program and at a second meeting the chairman, William H. Baldwin, appointed a committee to take it up with Congress.

Meanwhile congressmen and senators, under the guidance of Mrs. Wilson, Mrs. Archibald Hopkins and Mrs. Ernest P. Bicknell, who is leader of a movement to start an Octavia Hill Association in Washington, were visiting the alleys and seeing with their own eyes the conditions that disgrace the Capital. As a result bills designed to solve the alley problem have been introduced in both houses.

L'ENFANT CITY PLAN FORGOT THE ALLEYS

During this very time the population of the alleys has been steadily reduced by a voluntary migration of the better elements among their residents. Within six years, according to police censuses, the number of alley dwellers has shrunk from 19,000 to 13,000. The present crusade is apparently stimulating this exodus. Walter S. Ufford, secretary of the Associated Charities, says that there seems to be no dearth of better houses on nearby streets.

All this is encouraging as showing that the present agitation has stirred Washington's population from top to bottom. But it carries with it the old danger that some among the agitators, wearied by their efforts, may persuade themselves that having started the movement they can now safely leave it to take care of itself, may fail to realize the great opportunity now before them and be satisfied with half-way measures.

Washington has long enjoyed the reputation of being the best planned city in America, the one large city in the world which from the day of its foundation has been built more or less consistently along the lines of a carefully thought out plan. Only recently has it been realized that from the beginning this plan has been incomplete. While it provided for great public buildings and for dwellings of the wealthy and the well-to-do, it not only failed to provide homes for wage-earners but actually offered temptations to house these wage-earners in an unwholesome manner. The magnificent wide avenues designed by Major L'Enfant, bordered along a great part of their distance by very deep lots, led inevitably to the construction of winding, branching alleys and the erection of hidden houses which had no place in the original plan.

Modern city planning lays the emphasis less on public buildings and boulevards and more on providing sites for homes. So the original plan of Washington must be supplemented by a modern plan providing a system of minor streets to let the wholesome light of publicity into the hidden slums of Washington and to provide economic use for the backs of the overdeep lots that line the avenues. They will do away with the present temptation to keep the old shacks standing or to build houses fronting on the avenues but extending so far back that their middle rooms are dark and airless. Half-way measures at this time may wipe out the alley slums of the Capital only to give in place of them a far more difficult problem, the deep, unlighted and unventilated multiple-dwelling.

THE EISTEDDFOD IN PITTSBURGH

Prosaic Americans who are making efforts to organize festivals and pageants and other European forms of neighborly festivities often overlook the spontaneous celebrations of different nationalities among us who have kept the spark of old-world fire alive without our aid. Such a festival is the Welsh Eisteddfod which claims a history of some four thousand years in "gallant little Wales" and has been successfully transplanted to the land where nearly two-fifths of the Welsh people of the world have made their home.

The international Eisteddfod which was held in Pittsburgh in July was the most ambitious attempt of celebration of the kind in America. It brought thousands of people to the city and filled the great exposition hall with enthusiastic crowds, yet it was little known except to those who call themselves "Cambro-Americans."

The chief interest was music though prizes were given to successful competitors in poetry, essays, history, fiction and oratory. From the open-air ceremony near the famous Block House where stones had been set up in the ancient Druidic circle, to the last concert by the massed choirs, the interest never flagged though the thermometer stood close to the hundred mark all the week. Besides the soloists and literary contestants there were children's choruses on Wednesday, women's choruses on Thursday, and on the Fourth of July there were male choirs, including one from the Rhondda valley, Wales. Saturday was marked by the superb singing of the mixed choruses with a hundred and fifty voices in each.

It was all quite informal and, at times, quite intense. The adjudications were made by musicians of international reputation and in each case a careful analysis of the merits and defects of the contestants was given with a refreshing frankness as well as a marked spirit of fairness. The audience listened with straining ears until the winners were announced, then the successful choir and its friends shouted and stormed over the platform like wild things while the judges dodged the indignant losers. An added quaintness was the bestowing of silver crowns

and bardic chairs as well as cash prizes and medals.

As a people's festival it could scarcely be equalled, for nearly all the audience as well as the contestants were workers. The Welsh are not money-makers. Perhaps they are too idealistic for commercial life. These choirs came from mill and mine and factory, more often than from any other occupation. The Gwents of Edwardsville were miners, the Homestead choir was from the steel mills. As one listened to the golden voices of this gifted people and observed the stunted bodies and pale faces of so large a proportion of them—one wondered, and then again wondered.

A YEAR'S PROGRESS OF REMEDIAL LOANS

At the fifth annual convention of the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations held recently in New York city, twenty-six of the thirty-three societies that are members of the federation were represented. Discussion centered around the subjects of character references, publicity and advertising, and the best method of dealing with delinquent borrowers.

Reports from the various committees showed that the past year has witnessed an unusual amount of activity on the part of prosecuting officers who in many cities have secured the conviction and imprisonment of illegal money-lenders. These prosecutions, with continued publicity, have served to direct attention to the objectionable practices of the professional money-lenders; however, they have been of little value in themselves in correcting the system's evils.

The year has demonstrated anew the truth of the assertion that conditions can be improved only through constructive legislation and the organization of competitive agencies in the form of socialized business organizations. Each of the societies has had a successful year. Although the "loan shark" has not been entirely eliminated in any city, his exactions have been appreciably reduced, in some cases the reduction amounting almost to extinction.

As regards legislation the year's record has been in the main satisfactory. Good laws have been enacted in six states. In several others laws have been passed which though not entirely satisfactory permit of the organization of remedial loan associations. The only important set-back in the program came in New York where an objectionable bill was forced through the Legislature and signed by the governor in spite of the opposition of most of those who are conversant with the essentials of satisfactory remedial loan legislation.

The following officers were re-elected: W. N. Finley, chairman; J. T. Exnicios, secretary and A. H. Ham, member executive committee.

PUBLIC CHARITY OFFICIALS MEET

"Back to the farm" was one of the keynotes of the annual Conference of the American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction, which was held in Springfield, Ill. The possibilities not only of farm training but of ultimate farm life for the inmates of juvenile correctional institutions was brought out strongly by Brother Barnabas, of Lincoln Agricultural School, New York, whose address was especially inspiring. L. A. Halbert, superintendent of the Bureau of Social Welfare of Kansas City, urged particularly what might be accomplished through municipal farms for short-term offenders.

The meeting marked the success of the effort to mould the old Association of Poor Law Officials into a relatively independent association of officials of charity and correction. Although the National Conference of Charities was to meet the following week in Seattle, there were some seventy members and delegates present from fifteen states. One of the "old liners" at charity conferences said that he never had seen so many secretaries of state boards together at one conference before. The association, in the estimate of the delegates, represents not so much a breaking away from the national conference as an effort on the part of public charity officials to gather together for several days those who wish to consider the more technical and so-called practical problems of their work. In his presidential address, Robert W. Hebberd of New York urged that the association work in intimate association with the national conference.

In reviewing the more important correctional developments of the year O. F. Lewis of New York sounded an emphatic note of warning against the day, in his opinion soon to come, when institutions will be rigorously investigated as to their efficiency in results. He urged more accurate knowledge regarding results than most institutions now publish or obtain.

Widows' pensions and home relief by public officials received much attention. H. H. Shirer of the Ohio State Board of Charities believed that legislatures had often acted hastily in providing widows' pension laws without adequate information, and he feared that a reaction was likely to result from the present agitation. Ohio has just passed a law that, under certain conditions, allows $15 monthly for one child and $7 a month for each additional child.

Mr. Halbert, speaking on home relief by public officials, stated his conviction that private societies are inadequate to meet the problem and that their work must be supplemented by public relief. If good citizens, he said, would take the same interest in improving the administration of public relief that they do in the administration of private relief, they might expect a greater return for their labor. The conference

leaned strongly to the belief that public relief is needed to supplement private relief in most communities, and that with the greater interest in social work better relief officers are developing, some with training in private charitable work. It was felt that more should be expected and demanded in the way of trained service from public relief officials and close co-operation between public and private relief officers.

The 1914 meeting will probably be at Memphis just before the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction The new officers are: president, A. L. Bowen, Illinois; vice-presidents, George S. Wilson, Washington, D. C., and Ralph E. Smith, Wisconsin; secretary, William T. Cross, Missouri; treasurer, Robert W. Hill, New York.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN NEW HAMPSHIRE

The biennial session of the New Hampshire Legislature recently closed, the longest on record with but one exception, handled an unusually large quantity of social legislation. The "killings" were more numerous than the enactments, but the latter were of considerable moment.

Children fared rather better than adults in the legislation which passed. A commission was authorized to investigate questions relating to children and to report at the next session. The legal age for child labor was raised to fourteen; fifty-five hours a week was made the maximum; cities and towns were authorized to enact curfew laws; medical inspection of school children was provided for; but the age of consent was not raised. Family desertion was made a felony.

Touching labor, the Legislature limited hours for women and children to fifty-five a week (a compromise between fifty-four and the former maximum of fifty-eight); regulated the costs in trustee suits but declined to abolish the process; provided for the registration of occupational diseases but killed a bill to enforce liability for such diseases; refused to provide for better factory inspection and the reporting of industrial accidents, to substitute for the present unworkable workmen's compensation law one more liberal and certain, to ensure one day's rest in seven, to establish a minimum wage board for women, to create a free employment agency, to throw the burden of proof upon the defendant in personal injury cases.

The Legislature was unwilling to substitute a state farm for jails and houses of correction, and refused enactment of a bill abolishing the fee system in jails. A term-of-minority sentence to the industrial school for juvenile offenders was coupled with a comprehensive scheme for release on parole. A purchasing agent for all state departments and institutions and a board of control for most of the institutions constitute a radical change of policy which will be critically observed after it becomes effective on September 1. A proposed state department of improvements and conservation did not find favor sufficient for adoption. Contract prison labor was not abolished because the state has just made a new contract with seven years to run. Medical inspection of penal institutions and registration of mental and physical abnormalities in convicts and their progenitors were rejected.

Under the head of public health the Legislature restricted the further pollution of sources of water supply and adopted the national pure food regulations as to labelling but would not further limit the sale of morphine or regulate cold storage. Nor would it provide for better regulations of weights and measures.

Sterilization of criminals met with little favor.

State insurance and savings bank insurance schemes were alike rejected. The State Board of Charities was given visitorial powers in the state prison and state hospital where it has heretofore been excluded, and was also authorized to aid the blind in preparing themselves for and maintaining themselves by home industry. New buildings were granted the tuberculosis sanitarium and the school for feebleminded. Advanced cases of tuberculosis will be aided by state appropriations, but tuberculosis and insane hospital accommodations were denied the state prison. The prison having become rather more than self-supporting, the Legislature provided that in some cases excess earnings shall go to the families of prisoners.

CINCINNATI BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION

The first annual report of the Bureau of Social Investigation and Relief of Cincinnati, which was organized to replace the overseers of the poor, shows substantial accomplishment. Scientific investigation has eliminated 15 per cent of the cases formerly relieved by the overseers, among these a family with an income of $30 a week whose resources had never before been inquired into.

The relief that has been given has been more intelligent and fitted to individual needs. Passing undesirable applicants for relief on to nearby towns, which was a custom of the overseers, has been done away with and, as a correlative, undesirable applicants who had been passed on to Cincinnati by other towns are now returned where they belong. Two such returns of infirmary inmates, have released $1,200 a year to be used for the "native" poor.

The administration of the infirmary appears to have been vastly improved by the bureau. It was found that thirty inmates had adult relatives able to support them. Eight of these were sent

home, and $1,500 was paid the city by relatives for the board of the others. Physical diagnosis showed syphilitics, tuberculous, feeble-minded, blind and alcoholics crowded indiscriminately together. These different groups were separated and given proper care. Ninety inmates were found capable of work and were put to work at the useful but rather dismal occupation of making caskets for charity burials. Of this year's applicants to the infirmary one-third were found employment outside. A free employment bureau has been established and the bureau is now at work on a plan for the unemployed. At present applications for parole of prisoners are made to the bureau, which this year acted favorably on twenty-six and now recommends the establishment of a probation system.

Perhaps the most interesting part of the report is that which deals with the bureau's vigorous campaign against loan sharks who, in Cincinnati as in other places, were charging from 50 to 120 per cent interest a year and were systematically evading usury laws. One old lady was forced to wash and clean cars in order to pay off a loan shark. Her long-standing case was settled by the department for $62.

An enterprising benedict discovered that his father-in-law was a victim of loan sharks. The case was of several years' duration. He wanted the case settled before he undertook to support mother and daughter who were ignorant as to the details of the transaction. The department demanded to see the books of the loan company and the loan company surrendered the papers rather than have the department learn of the real transaction. The company was still demanding $67.25 interest on a small loan.

The general results of the year's work with individual cases are that $2,718.32 were saved borrowers in 115 cases by this department directly. The loan shark business has almost entirely fallen off, and the business of a remedial loan company has substantially increased. The people are now reporting many cases to the Legal Aid Society for settlement or to attorneys, one of whom has settled 220 cases.

PLAY CENTER IN AN ARMORY

New York has opened its first armory play center in the Sixty-ninth Regiment Armory. Five city departments and the People's Institute have been co-operating in a campaign to have armories put to this use and in the district where the first one was opened they have been aided by the Gramercy Neighborhood Association. Statistics gathered by the People's Institute show that in the Gramercy district, boundaries of which run from Seventh to Twenty-eighth streets west of Fifth Avenue, there are 36,009 children between six and fourteen years of age to whom such a center of organized, supervised play would be a boon as there is not even a playground in the district.

The meeting held July 9 was really not a play but an organization meeting. The 15,000 boys and girls were formed into a "junior auxiliary" of the Gramercy Neighborhood Association. The association had already begun the work of organizing by blocks, each block having a leader, and this work will be continued in co-operation with the men in the armory who are volunteering their services in organizing block competitive drills and other semi-military activities, calculated to appeal to the youth of the neighborhood. Girls are being enrolled as auxiliary members and their activities will consist of folk-dancing, story classes, and dramatics under the direction of the Parks and Playgrounds Association. Besides their military drill, the boys will have block athletic teams and meets. The armory will be open for the rest of the summer for drills, dances and parties.

THE "RUN-OF-MINE" OUTPUT OF RELIEF WORK

JOHN R. SHILLADY

Executive Secretary, Buffalo Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis

THE Committee on Standards of Living and Labor of the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been formulating standards below which society dare not go and be safe. These standards have been accepted by the conscience of the country, so far as the social workers of the country represent that conscience, as a minimum for industry. The Pittsburgh Survey, Chapin's study for New York, the New York State Conference figures for 1907, and other investigations have convinced even the sceptical that less than $800 in New York, between $635 and $700 in Buffalo five years ago, and approximately the same amounts in other places are unsafe minimums for a family of five. The 1912 platform of the National Conference committee asked, among other things, enough to provide for a "normal standard of living; to provide for recreation and amusement," etc.

Are the results of these studies in reality our real standards, our bed rock—for ourselves? Even among our liberal relief societies, are our budgets approximately in accord with standards affirmed by our authorities, if we consider the "run-of-mine" output of our relief work? Do not too many relief committees decide on how much or how little a family may receive, by the standards of a Polish family or an Italian family, or in accordance with an antiquated

"food cost" budget long since changed by the higher cost of living? How many relief committees even consider any such extravagance as an estimated expenditure for "recreation and amusement," even though many of them are of the faith which often reads, "man shall not live by bread alone."

I am well aware that relief is not a cure for the poverty of the poor, less is the giving of it inadequately, and that the determination of the amount to be given is more than a simple matter of addition and subtraction. We are surely confronted with the dilemma of either living up to standards affirmed at the National Conference and elsewhere by our highest authorities, and accepted by all, in planning for the relief of dependent families in our care, or acknowledging that we are only putting up a bluff in saying that the wants of the poor are being supplied by our agencies, when in supplying those wants we fall so far short of providing the means we ourselves so militantly say are necessary to safe living.

I take it for granted that the discussions of the subject of adequate relief at recent conferences make it unnecessary to prove that relief generally is inadequate, measured by the standards of the National Conference committee. Frederic Almy's papers seem to have made the inadequacy clear, from the standpoint of a well-informed relief worker.

Miss Byington has a chapter in her study of Homestead on Life at $1.65 a Day. That chapter and the whole book tell us in all its dreary detail what life is for the poor man and his family. Bernard Shaw tells us in biting phrase that "what is the matter with the poor man is his poverty." Though social workers should know that what the poor lack is income, and what the poor need is income, and what must be supplied is income, or more fundamentally, the opportunity to secure income from unexploited work, yet we are often led astray by other lacks which are either a result of poverty or common to all men alike. Typical are "lack" of "efficiency," "character," and all the "lacks" involved in a low standard of living.

Character, efficiency and a high standard of living are among the main things of life but they are not achieved first in serial order but only after income has been secured. Though all persons with adequate incomes do not possess "character" and "efficiency," or achieve a high standard of living from every point of view, yet, on the whole, increase of income, when assured and permanent, from sources not demoralizing, results in higher standards, greater efficiency, and better character. Income falling below an amount sufficient to provide for the normal demands of the human animal for food, shelter, and recreation, results in decreased efficiency, lowered standards, and weakened character. What we are pleased to call the Slavic or any other foreigner's standards are but the effect of long continued lack of income, and are no more Slavic, *per se*, than are the diseases which come from bad air, poor food, overwork, and the same low standards of which he is the accidental victim.

Relief committees are prone to accept such easy classifications as "Polish family," and "Italian family" as reasons for allotting a smaller relief budget than would be required for an "American family." Miss Byington's studies prove to the unimaginative that when the $10 a week Slav rises to $15 his expenditures increase in much the same way as other people's, and that when his income goes beyond $15 there accompanies the increased income an expenditure of the "greater part of the increase for more distinctly cultural" purposes. Presto! The low-standard Slav is no longer a "Slavic type." He is a man like the rest of us. "They are even as we are," as Spencer remarks of the aborigines.

Gilbert K. Chesterton, in an essay on Slum Novelists and the Slums, says: "A poor man is a man who has not got much money. Most of our realists and sociologists talk about a poor man as if he were an octopus or an alligator. . . . In any writer who is describing poverty my first objection to him is that he has studied his subject. A democrat would have imagined it." Taking our contributors and occasional volunteer workers as a whole, I should hazard the guess that their knowledge of the poor is less from democratic sources than from the reverse, whatever may be said of paid workers.

Every member of a relief committee should be first of all a democrat. The trained worker needs training, not alone in the technique of relief, but in fundamental democracy. The social worker needs the detailed study, or should need it, of how the poor live—and what they think, and do and are—on less than the well-to-do spend for cigars and minor luxuries, not to convince himself that their poverty is a problem, but to interest the undemocratic Philistine in the facts of life, as some live it, when he cannot, or will not, know without the specific details presented for each family as a distinct and separate entity.

The present seems a time of awakening responsibility for the securing of minimum standards of living and labor in industry. Is it not essential that relief societies ask themselves whether they are measuring up to the now well accepted standards of living in the adjusting of relief budgets?

EDUCATION

CHARTING CHILDHOOD IN CINCINNATI

HELEN THOMPSON WOOLLEY
DIRECTOR CHILD LABOR DIVISION, CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WHEN a pharmacist compounds a prescription he knows what effect the various elements have on each other. He can analyze them even after they have interacted with the juices of the human system. When a manufacturer starts a piece of raw material on the road toward a finished product, he can account for the smallest change, the minutest process. But when a child starts on the bleak road which leads from one deadening occupation to another, who can chart his path or gauge the forces that mold and shape his future life?

To do this very thing is becoming one of the paramount purposes of educators. The task is enlisting the interest of all who desire a saner conservation of childhood. The boy and girl who leave school untrained, adolescent, groping, are more and more seen to be the rawest of raw materials. Society's obligation to do its utmost that this material may increase in beauty and efficiency is no longer thought to cease when the school door closes.

One of the most comprehensive attempts to find out just what industry means to children is being made in Cincinnati. This attempt was made possible by the passage three years ago of a unique child labor law which, for the first time in history, gave to one office sufficient authority over the working children of a community to permit a many-sided study of a large group of them. While this study has not been completed, some absorbing discoveries can be forecasted, entailing some equally absorbing reflections on current educational movements. For example, we are making a special investigation of 800 school children, as a result of which we hope to be able to compare the rate of development, mental and physical, of those in industry and those in school. It will then be possible to say what is the effect of industry on children who enter it at fourteen.

But let us look for a moment at the workings of the law itself. During the school year from September 1, 1909, to September 1, 1910, 3,348 children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen took out certificates permitting them to work in Cincinnati. The following year the number dropped to 2,800, and in 1911-1912 the number of beginning child laborers went down to 2,366. This was a direct result of the child labor law. The first drop was due chiefly to the raising of the educational requirement from mere ability to read and write to the completion of the fifth grade in school. The second was the effect of establishing the compulsory continuation school for children who had not completed the eighth grade.

The exemption of eighth grade children from the continuation school put a sort of cash value on the completion of the eighth grade which held many in school. The percentage of those who had completed the eighth grade rose from 13 per cent in 1910-1911 to 19 per cent in 1911-1912. Provisions compelling employers to return certificates and report on the children, as well as allowing workers to attend continuation school for four hours a week, tended to reduce the number of positions open to children under sixteen, since some employers preferred to dispense with juvenile labor rather than conform to those requirements. We have no measure of the importance of the last factor.

Our project represents an interesting form of private co-operation with the public school system. The investigation is being conducted by the Schmidlapp Bureau through the work certificate office, which ordinarily performs the function of issuing work certificates. This office is a subdivision of the office of the superintendent of schools, and the investigation would not have been possible without the constant support of both the former superintendent, Frank B. Dyer, and the present one, Randall J. Condon. All of the financial burden of the investigation, except office room and the supplies used in issuing the certificates, is met by a group of private citizens.[1]

By assuming the responsibility of issuing work certificates, those conducting the investigation secured complete control of the material for research. By a unique provision of the law, employers are required to return certificates to the issuing office and children to have the certificates reissued each time there is a change of position. The certificate office is thereby given a measure of supervision over working children up to the age of 16 and is enabled to enforce the regulations about the kinds of work permitted children as well as those concerning the hours of employment.

[1]The investigation was planned and the funds collected by M. Edith Campbell of the Schmidlapp Bureau, and E. N. Clopper of the National Child Labor Committee. The Schmidlapp Bureau, through the generosity of J. G. Schmidlapp, bears one-half of the expense. The other contributors are W. H. Alms, L. A. Ault, Mrs. Thomas J. Emery, Edward Senior, John B. Scarborough, Sidney Pritz, James N. Gamble, Harry Levy, Omer T. Glenn.
The staff consists of Helen Thompson Woolley, director, Charlotte Rust Fischer, Rose E. Rankins, and William A. Spencer, laboratory investigators; M. Louise Boswell, home visitor; Annis E. Alden, issuer of certificates, and Emma Day, assistant in the certificate office. Since the above was written Mr. Spencer has resigned and his place has been taken by E. S. Jones.

The work of the bureau is therefore divided into two parts: first, that of issuing certificates and keeping records of all working children, and second, that of investigating intensively a large group of working children.

Every child who applies for a work certificate must present four credentials: first, a satisfactory health record from a physician of the Board of Health; second, a legal birth record proving that he is at least fourteen years of age; third, a school record showing that he has completed at least the fifth grade; and fourth, a contract signed by his future employer. By the time a child has been sent back three or four times, as is often necessary to secure all four records in proper form, the process of taking out a work certificate becomes a far more serious ordeal than in the days of old.



TESTING CO-ORDINATION OF EYE AND HAND

When certificates are issued, all children who have not completed the eighth grade—and these constitute eight-tenths of the total—must be assigned to a continuation school. Notice of the assignment is sent to both the school and the employer. The time required by the continuation school is four hours a week, and each employer has an opportunity, when he signs the child's contract, to indicate the school and hours which he prefers. If he expresses no preference, the office makes the assignment.

But this does not end the formalities. The law requires that upon the termination of employment the certificate must be returned by mail to the issuing office, accompanied by a statement as to when and why the child left. The question of enforcing this requirement will be discussed later. When a child takes another position, he must present to the office a contract signed by his new employer. The certificate is then reissued on a form like the original one and mailed to the employer. The child is again assigned to a continuation school and both school and employer are notified. A full record of all these proceedings, except the assignment to a continuation school, is kept. In addition to these necessary records, the office is noting also wages and the children's reasons for changes of position. A second card of employment is made out for each child and placed in a file classified by employers, so that the office has an industrial history not only of each child but also of each employer in so far as his dealings with child labor are concerned.

The two provisions of the law which are difficult of enforcement are the one which states that no child under sixteen shall work without a certificate; and the one which forbids children under sixteen and girls under eighteen to work more than eight hours a day.

The first difficulty breaks up into two distinct problems. The first is how to prevent children from taking an initial position without a certificate; the second, how to prevent those who have already had a certificate from taking another position without a reissuing of the certificate.

Close co-operation with the schools is our method of dealing with the first problem. Of course, some children, on first coming to the city, may not be sent to school at all. The difficulty here is the general one of enforcing the compulsory education law. We deal with them as we deal with all who take employment without a certificate and rely on the factory inspector. This is our only recourse, but Cincinnati is fortunate in having a factory inspector who understands the certificate system and who co-operates by sending to the office all children for whom the employers cannot show certificates. Nearly all employers of large numbers of children are now scrupulous about demanding certificates. It is only occasional and inexperienced ones who take children without them. We believe that the number of those who evade the law is small. During the last year, the factory inspector has found only six children working without certificates, though the same inspector in previous years has found hundreds.

To prevent children who have legally held one position from taking a second without reissuing the certificate is a different problem. The key to this situation is the requirement of the return of the certificate by the employer to our office. In a majority of cases this is done. Sometimes the child informs the office that he has left, and sometimes our first notice of the change is when the child comes in for a second position. Several times we have verified long series of employment records and have found that by one or another of these checks we have kept records of over 90 per cent of the changes in positions.

More difficult still is the enforcement of the eight-hour day for children. When each certificate is issued the employer is notified of the legal number of hours. The children themselves are asked about their working hours and reports of violations are sent at once to the factory inspector. From its file of employers the office can give the factory inspector a list of all the children under sixteen employed by any firm which is reported for violation of hours. This information is of great value in making investigations and in securing evidence.

While there are other devices by which we minimize violation of law, I have indicated enough to show how effectively such a measure may be administered. The best evidence of what its enforcement means to the childhood of Cincinnati is to be had, of course, in the figures quoted at the outset of this article. These show the tremendous drop since the law went into effect in the number of immature youths going untrained into factory and workshop.

I have said that 2,366 children between 14 and 16 took out work certificates last year. A careful classification has been made of these, showing the type and location of the schools from which the children came, their age, school grade and the kind of work in which they are now engaged. Cincinnati, like other cities, has both public and church schools. Forty-three per cent of the total were from church schools, and 57 per cent from public. While the exact enrollment of the church schools is not given out, it is known that the enrollment of the public schools is about three times that of the other. The proportion, therefore, of those leaving the church schools is more than twice that of those leaving the public schools. Over 34 per cent of those leaving the public schools are fifteen years of age, while only 18 per cent of those leaving the church schools are that old. But in spite of the fact that the children from the church schools are younger, more of them are in the higher grades. This is due in part to the fact that the public school is losing chiefly its retarded children while the church school, which sends into industry twice as large a proportion of its children, is losing both retarded and normal children. Differences in methods of grading children may also be a factor. A comparison of the retardation of children who leave the public schools to go to work with that of the children who remain in school shows that twice as large a proportion of working children are retarded as of school children.

The occupations entered by the children can be grouped as follows: factories, 33 per cent (19 per cent shoe, 4 per cent paper box, 2 per cent candy, and 8 per cent miscellaneous factories); errand boys and girls, 22.5 per cent (5 per cent public messenger service and 17.5 per cent private business houses); department stores, 15.5 per cent; tailoring and sewing trades, 8.7 per cent; helping parents at home, 6.8 per cent and the remaining 13.5 per cent scattered among many occupations.

Very little of the work represented has any value as trade education. Each child in the shoe factory performs from one to three of the 150 or more operations necessary in making a shoe. They lace shoes, ink edges or wet soles. The girls in tailor shops pull bastings or baste one kind of seam. The messenger service and errand boy positions are notoriously blind alley occupations. The department stores use these young children for inside errands and for wrapping packages. A few of them may have a chance to become saleswomen if they are fitted for it, but in Cincinnati saleswomen are paid such low wages that the occupation can scarcely be classed as skilled.

It is a safe statement that only a very small percentage of children who work from fourteen to sixteen years make any real gain in general industrial efficiency.

The wages paid to a group of over 2,000 children are graphically represented in a chart. The wages represent what was paid at the start, in each of the first five positions, provided that many were held. The median wage for girls is $3 and for boys $3.75 a week. There is a sex difference in wages throughout. In their first positions as well as in subsequent ones, girls receive about 75 cents a week less than boys. The charts also show that both boys and girls better themselves in wages by mere change of position. There is a larger proportion of children at the lower wage in first positions. With subsequent positions, the proportion at the lower wage decreases and the proportion in the higher wage increases. Other statistics, not yet published, show that the increase in earnings obtained by changes of position is greater than that obtained by sticking to one job for a year. The point is an interesting one to bring to the attention of employers, when they complain about the instability of child labor.

The eight hundred boys and girls of whom we are making a special study were fourteen years old when they left school to begin work. All of them were entering some industry, not merely helping at home. All were native-born white children. Except for these characteristics, the children were taken at random, as fast as our office force would permit. We feel sure that the series adequately represents the whole group.

The scope of the investigation includes a study of the mental and physical development of children in industry as compared with children of corresponding age and grade who stay in school. We are visiting and comparing the homes of both working children and school children. We are studying in detail the industrial life of the working children. Finally, we are investigating the industries themselves in which the children engage.

It has already been pointed out that we hope to be able to compare the rate of mental and physical development of children in industry with that of children in school. We can also study the children who do not succeed industrially and find out whether their failure is to be attributed to the children themselves, to the home, to the school, or to the industry. By discovering what relation there is, if any, between a child's mental and physical tests and his success or failure in

various kinds of industry, we can throw some light on the problem of vocational guidance. Although Münsterberg and others have made scientific beginnings in determining vocational guidance by the psychological laboratory, no one knows just how useful this means will eventually prove. Such a correlation as we can make between the record in tests and the industrial record will help to decide the question. A set of norms that can be used in any group as a basis of diagnosis is being established and this will be of great importance if the laboratory method proves useful.

Meanwhile all the records we are collecting about the industrial experiences of the children themselves—the kind of work open to them, their earnings, increases of pay, the amount of unemployment among them, their reasons for changes of position, and their attitude toward work and school—will be indispensable in deciding upon a program of industrial education or of vocational guidance. A study of the industries is equally necessary in both these problems. The information about industries may be cast in the form of bulletins for the use of teachers and parents.

Mental and physical examinations have now been made of all the 800 children at the time they started to work. Seven hundred of them have been retested at the end of the first year

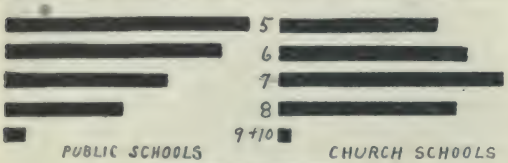


CHART II—GRADE

of work and 200 at the end of the second year. A group of school children has been selected to conform in grade to the working children and 400 of them have been tested. Only the first series of tests with working children has been evaluated and tabulated. The outcome shows that the tests will furnish a reliable basis of comparison. In all of the mental tests, the children from the higher grades did better than those from the lower in spite of the fact that they were all of the same age. In other words, tests showed a high degree of correlation with school grade. The tests then are almost or quite as efficient in classifying children according to mental ability as is the school, and we can feel confident that comparisons between school children and working children made by this means will yield reliable results.

The belief that girls develop mentally more rapidly than boys is confirmed by the tests. At fourteen, the girls are superior to the boys in all the mental tests. Physically they are superior in height and weight and in co-ordination, but the boys are superior in strength and rapidity of movement.

When the series of psychological tests is published in detail with careful directions both for giving them and for evaluating the results, a set of norms will be furnished for fourteen-year-old

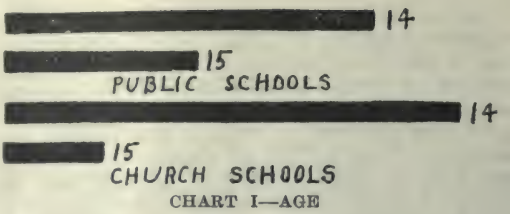


CHART I—AGE

children which can be used for many purposes. One of the most interesting will be the comparison in mental development of older delinquents with normal fourteen-year-old children—an application which is already being made by Dr. Jean Weidensall at Bedford Reformatory, New York.

While only 300 of the homes of working children have as yet been visited, the children themselves have answered questions which throw light on the degree of economic necessity which drives them forth to work at so early an age. These questions have to do with the family and home life, occupations of parents, number of children, number of rooms occupied by the family, presence of lodgers, disposition of the children's earnings and attitude toward work and school.

Under the direction of the National Child Labor Committee, all the records bearing on the economic status of the families have been studied. After inadequate records had been rejected, there remained a group of 650 families about whom it seemed possible to draw conclusions as to economic necessity. The question which we tried to answer with regard to each family was whether the child's earnings were essential to maintain the family without assistance from outside. And the outcome was similar to that of the government investigation and to those of Massachusetts and New York. Only 27 per cent of the families were believed to require the earnings of the children, while 73 per cent had apparently no such economic need. This is one more proof that necessity is not the most potent force behind child labor.

The other face of the picture is that the majority of children declared that they were tired of school and anxious to go to work. The parents were sometimes equally ready to have children work, sometimes indifferent and sometimes merely overruled by the child's eagerness. We found very few cases, if any, in which the child who wished to stay in school and whose parents could have afforded to let him, was forced by them to go to work. Even after trying it, the children continue to prefer work to school.

We now have a full industrial history covering a year or more for 700 working children. In a tabulation of 474 of these histories, it was discovered that the median weekly wage for

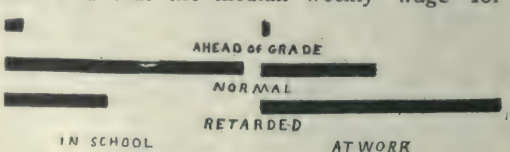


CHART III—RETARDATION

girls for the year is $3 and for boys $3.75. Of the industries employing children in considerable numbers, the department store paid the lowest wage to both boys and girls. Here, as in most communities, the highest wage was paid to boys by the most injurious occupation—the public messenger service. Shoe factories paid the next best wage to boys and the best wage of all to girls.

The amount of unemployment among working children has been a matter of frequent comment. With regard to this group of children, 50 per cent of the girls and 60 per cent of the boys were employed for the entire 52 weeks of the year. Only one-tenth of the boys were unemployed for twelve weeks or more out of the year, while

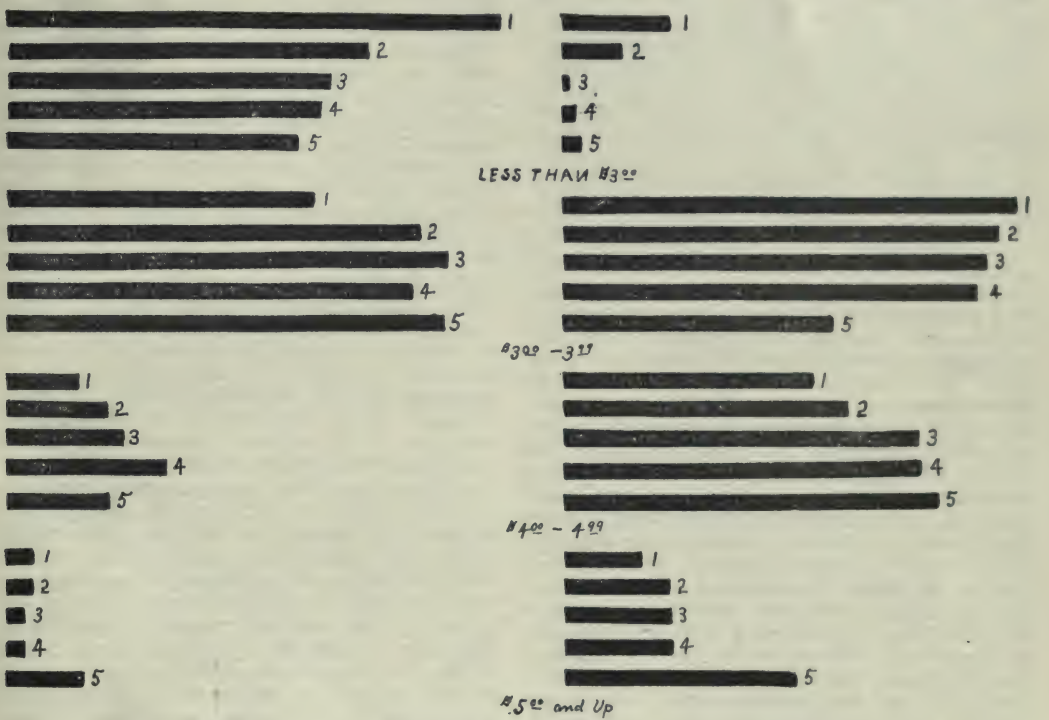


CHART IV—WAGES

one-tenth of the girls were unemployed one-half the time or more. Thirty-eight per cent of the boys and 45 per cent of the girls had held but one position during the year, while 4 per cent of the boys and 3 per cent of the girls had held more than four positions. The median number of positions during the year for both boys and girls was two.

Each time a child changes his position, the office makes a record of his reason for the change. A study of the reasons assigned in 700 cases showed that 41 per cent were included under economic reasons. In 60 per cent of these the child had voluntarily left because the pay was low or because a better position was offered him or because he wanted to learn a trade. In the remaining cases the employer had either laid the child off or reduced his earnings because of slack season. The next largest group of reasons, 20 per cent, was that of dissatisfaction on the part of the child for reasons other than economic, such as work too dirty, workroom too noisy, could not bear the smell of paste, fellow employes too rough, afraid of lead poisoning, foremen cross and "hollered" at him, or unjustly charged with spoiled materials. Physical reasons, such as illness or work which proved to be too hard physically, account for 11 per cent of the changes. The same proportion is due to failures on the part of the child, which the children themselves report almost as frequently as the employers. Disagreement either with foremen or with fellow employes and incompetence make up most of this group. Reasons connected with the home comprise 9 per cent of the whole number and conflicts with the child labor law the remaining 8 per cent.

I want to discuss now two of the applications to educational problems which some of these facts bear. The first deals with the placement bureau for children under sixteen as part of a program for vocational guidance in the public schools. Sometimes the term vocational guidance is taken to mean little more than a well-conducted placement bureau. The facts we have presented seem to me to throw serious doubt upon the wisdom of allowing the public school to undertake the placing in industry of children under sixteen. There is no work open to them worth advising them to take. If the schools

take over placement work, it may have the effect of legalizing and perpetuating a condition which it ought to be opposing, *i. e.*, allowing children under sixteen to leave school for work. If the school could lend all its energies to readjusting its system of instruction to meet the needs of the children who are now leaving, and thus hold them in school, it would be rendering a far greater service than it could in finding for them jobs which at best are of no real advantage to the child.

The placement bureau, it may be said, has the virtue of bringing the schools into immediate contact with the industries—but continuation schools do it even better. The placement bureau is also one means of investigating the conditions in industry, but it is not the only means, and may have dangers inherent in it. No placement bureau which deals with large numbers of children under sixteen can avoid putting many of them in thoroughly undesirable positions, provided it places them at all. It seems much more pernicious for the public school to place a child in an injurious occupation than for the child to place himself. The influence which can be brought to bear on the industries themselves through such a bureau is necessarily small, because child labor is not essential to most industries.

The second application I wish to make deals with a problem also previously discussed in THE SURVEY—the question as to whether vocational and industrial schools shall be organized from within our present school system and kept in organic relation with it, or shall be organized under a separate board made up not from the leaders of education, but from the leaders in industry. I would like to ask this question: have the dealings of industry with children in the past been such as to warrant the state in turning over the training of the children destined for industry to the forces of industry itself? The report I have given shows the status of children under one of the best child labor laws in the country, well enforced. There is very little suggestion of an educational attitude on the part of industry towards the children.[1] The undoubted educational possibilities of the industries are left undeveloped, and it is exceedingly rare to have an interest in the development of the children prominent in the mind of the employer. This is a state of mind which is quite understandable. With the best intentions the employer can scarcely avoid viewing the educational problem first from the standpoint of the welfare of the industry. He wants more efficient workmen, first of all because the industry would profit by them. In his mind, the welfare of the worker must be a secondary result of the success of the industry, and he has scant patience with any one who suggests moulding the industry to fit the needs of the workers.

Now there is undoubtedly a sense in which the welfare of the worker is secondary to the success of the industry. It is an obvious enough fact that the industry must be successful enough to exist, or the worker cannot earn his living by it. But when the scale which measures the success of the industry is solely the profits of the employer it ceases to be true that the welfare of the industry and that of the worker must be the same.

It makes a very great difference, then, whether those who mould the system of industrial education in this country have as their immediate object the development of industries in which the workers are first of all parts of the machine, or the development of well-rounded, intelligent citizens, who shall possess specific industrial ability as one phase of their training. The habit of mind of the educator would lead him to take the latter attitude, and that of the leader of industry the former.

But the plan would be objectionable even if industry were so socialized that its leaders could be expected to view the problem of industrial education first from the standpoint of the development of the individual child. It would mean a sharp separation at a comparatively early age of the children destined for industry from those destined for academic and professional careers. The decision would inevitably be made rather on the basis of the economic status of the family than on that of the child's fitness. The plan would lead us directly towards class distinctions of a thoroughly undemocratic sort. As John Dewey has declared: "Those who believe in the continued separate existence of what they are pleased to call the lower classes or the laboring classes, would naturally rejoice to have schools in which those classes would be segregated. And some employers of labor would doubtless rejoice to have schools, supported by public taxation, supply them with additional food for their mills. All others should be united against every proposition, in whatever form advanced, to separate training of employes from training for citizenship, training of intelligence and character from training for narrow industrial efficiency."[1]

[1]The continuation schools for machine shop apprentices, and for printers' apprentices in Cincinnati, which were started by the industries, are important exceptions to this statement, though they apply only to children over sixteen years of age.

[1]See THE SURVEY of March 22, 1913, p. 870.

THE COUNTRY BOY'S CREED.

"I believe that the country which God made is more beautiful than the city which man made; that life out of doors and in touch with the earth is the natural life of man. I believe that work is work wherever I find it; but that work with Nature is more inspiring than work with the most intricate machinery. I believe that the dignity of labor depends not on what you do, but on how you do it; that opportunity comes to a boy on the farm as often as to the boy in the city; that life is larger and freer and happier on the farm than in the town; that my success depends not upon my location, but upon myself—not upon my dreams, but upon what I actually do; not upon luck, but upon pluck. I believe in working when you work and playing when you play, and in giving and demanding a square deal in every act of life."—From Wallace's Farmer.

LAYMEN AND THE EDUCATIONAL DIET

The Board of Education in New York has been given power "to change the grades of all schools and of all classes and to adopt and modify courses of study for all schools under its supervision." Governor Sulzer and Mayor Gaynor both signed the measure making this change in the charter of New York city. As amended the bill requires the Board of Education to submit contemplated changes to the Board of Superintendents, and if the latter body disapproves the alteration can be put through only by a two-thirds vote of the Board of Education.

The question underlying this bill was who shall prescribe the educational diet for the polygot population of the greater city. Heretofore the Board of Education could "adopt and modify" courses only upon the written recommendation of the Board of Superintendents. That arrangement, declared the friends of the new method, has kept the curriculum in the hands of so-called educational experts, who had made it dull, inert, detached-from-life. They cited the reports of the Hanus inquiry to sustain their contention, and argued that the many-sided touch of the layman, who stands closer to the life of the people, was necessary to make the course of study reflect the needs of Italian, Jew, Bohemian and native.

Opponents of the plan argued that it gave too much power to the board, and that it was piecemeal legislation. Admitting the need of vitalization of the public schools, they urged delay until a rounded scheme of re-organization, based on a careful study of the Hanus reports, could be planned.

GERMAN SCHOOI, FOR GERMANS

One of the latest studies of Germany's system of industrial schooling[1] has been prepared by Ralph C. Busser, formerly a member of the Philadelphia bar, now American consul at Erfurt, Germany. It is published by the Public Education Association of Philadelphia. "It is interesting to note," says Mr. Busser, "that the present system of continuation schools in Germany started as did our Sunday Schools, for the purpose of teaching toilers to read and write. Many of these classes were held on Sunday and as the work of the schools changed from academic subjects to those of practical trades, Sunday classes were still continued. In nearly every German city will be found organized evening and Sunday classes for artisans in the various trades practiced in the community."

Mr. Busser divides the schools of Germany into general trade schools, special trade schools, engineering and scientific schools, and vocational schools for girls, and shows the relation of each of these schools to the development of national industries.

According to Mr. Busser, the German continuation schools are distinctly for Germans. The skilled German mechanic intends to keep his skill for himself and his fellow workmen. He leaves the unskilled work for the immigrant, and does not intend the foreigner from America or elsewhere, to come in and secure training in his specialty, except under rare and difficult conditions. The requirement for admission to German industrial schools is previous practical employment in the appropriate trade. The annual tuition fees range from $7 to $47 for Germans, but foreigners must pay as high as $250 per term. In some districts this distinction is even carried so far as to discriminate against other parts of the German empire, and some schools exclude foreigners entirely, says Mr. Busser.

It has only been within the last half century that German women have had any considerable opportunity for training in skilled trades or in the broader duties of the home. Since 1860, says Mr. Busser, schools have been established for the special training of women. At first these schools gave courses only in sewing, cooking, and serving, but more recently the wider fields of household economy and management have been introduced. Today there are special trade schools for milliners, dressmakers, hairdressers, art embroiderers, lace makers and other textile handworkers. Of these special trade institutions the most important are the textile schools, because the corresponding industries employ such a large number of women, who work alongside the men in the making of suits, underwear, gloves, lace, trimmings and other products.

[1]See THE SURVEY of June 21, 1913, p. 405.

JOTTINGS

FOR BETTER TEACHERS

When our public elementary schools are criticised as being academic and too "aloof from life," it is not always the curriculum that is in mind. Sometimes it is the teachers. As a help toward inducing "persons of superior ability" to enter the teaching profession, the Massachusetts State Board of Education proposes a retirement pension for public school teachers of thirty-five years' service. A bill to this end has been presented to the Legislature. It is thought also that such a pension would enable the school authorities to retire without hardship teachers who have become incapacitated on account of age.

Participation in the pension is made compulsory upon all persons who shall begin to teach after July 1, 1914. It is voluntary for teachers now in service. It provides for thirty annual contributions on a basis of percentage of salary, but not less than thirty-five dollars annually; voluntary retirement at sixty-five; compulsory retirement at seventy; the payment of an annuity earned by the contributions of the teachers plus an equal pension from the state; administration of the fund by a retirement board made up of designated state officials, and an equal number of representatives selected from the teachers.

VOCATIONAL PREPARATION RECOGNIZED

Vocational work in high schools is now fully recognized with other subjects for admission to the University of Kansas. Three of the required fifteen units may be in manual training, domestic science, stenography, bookkeeping, agriculture, or commercial law. The University of Michigan also accepts vocational subjects.

THE TREND

DR. Balkrishna Sharma of Delhi, India, has published a Hindi translation of Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf's international prize essay on tuberculosis. This most recent of the translations is of particular importance because of the great prevalence of tuberculosis in India and the fact that the Hindi language is spoken by more than eighty million people. Since the publication of the original first German edition in 1900, there have appeared thirty-six editions in various languages spoken in Europe, America, and Asia.

* * *

LIFE AND LABOR is the organ of the Women's Trade Union League, and in an article addressed pretty directly to its membership Professor Rauschenbush writes:

> You working women who suffer from overwork and underpaying, and by harsh and sometimes shameful treatment, know by bitter experience what we of other classes know only by hearsay and by our sympathy with you. You owe it to all mankind to make your dearly bought experience count to make us all free from these inhumanities. If you merely suffer silently or angrily, your suffering helps nobody. If you try to climb out of your class and forget it, somebody else will step into your vacant place and inherit your pains. If, on the other hand, your suffering teaches you to unite with other men and women in a holy determination to put a stop to injustice for all, then your suffering is not in vain.

* * *

THE BARGAIN COUNTER

Berton Braley in the *Day Book*

Bargains in dress goods and bargains in lace,
Bargains in garments of beauty and grace,
Here are the offerings piled in a heap,
Bargains on bargains—remarkably cheap!
Wait, let's see whence these bargain goods came
E'er we plunge into the bargaining game!
Look at that exquisite waist—it was made
Down in the slums by a woman ill paid;
Glorious plume for a wonderful hat?—
Little child hands gave the beauty to that!
Bargains in goods? Why, they're bargains in pain,
Bargains in bodies and bargains in brain,
Bargains in manhood and womanhood, too,
Bargains in childhood here offered to you;
Bargains in hate and oppression and greed,
Bargains in hearts that must suffer and bleed,
Bargains from sweat-shops and pestilent holes,
Bargains in labor and bargains in souls,
Here on the counter together they lie.
Bargain sale! Bargain sale! Come on and buy!

* * *

MEDICAL Examinations of Employes is the title of a special bulletin of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute issued by Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, who, as chairman of the committee on factories, has carried on a number of pioneer experiments. Probably the most interesting part is the report by Dr. Harry E. Mock on the employes of Sears, Roebuck & Co., who have been given medical examination for the past four years. Among 9,000 employes, 6,800 examinations were made; 193 were tuberculous. Of this number, 57 were treated in sanatoria, 69 at home, and 53 were sent to the country. At the present time 57 of them are back at work and 24 are still under treatment. Besides tuberculosis, 40 cases of heart and kidney disease unknown to the patient were discovered, and 200 cases of scarlet fever, measles, chicken-pox, mumps, diphtheria, and syphilis.

* * *

LOUIS P. LOCHNER, the originator of the Cosmopolitan Club movement which now embraces local societies in twenty-six American universities, tells of an interesting feature introduced into the Peace Day exercises of one of the clubs:

> Thirteen different national songs were sung in the original tongue by a chorus of club members. Not only did every one of the thirteen participants learn the tune of twelve national airs besides teaching his fellow choristers his own, but he memorized the words of all of them, mastering the difficulties of pronouncing Russian, Chinese, Hawaiian, and Japanese words, besides those of western European nations. An impressive spectacle it was when these thirteen students marched upon the platform, each clad in the costume of his country—the Mexican with his sombrero, the Chinese with his robe of silk, the Hollander with his wooden shoes and bloomer trousers, the Scotchman with his kilts. Without a breach or flaw, interrupted only by the enthusiastic applause of the audience, there followed in rapid succession the Rule Britannia, Hawaii ponoi, Mexicanos al grito, Wacht am Rhein, and eight other national songs. When, finally the last hymn came, and the twelve foreign students joined their brothers from the United States in America, the large audience was taken off its feet, and everybody with a fervor and enthusiasm seldom equalled in a gathering of college men and women joined in singing our national anthem.

* * *

RADICALISM must always go in advance of the law, says Frank Parsons, who writes in the *Docket*. He defines their relations as follows:

> Radicalism is the centrifugal force, which tends to throw away customs, forms, and institutions; law is the centripetal force, which draws them toward a conserving center. Either, working alone, means ruin and destruction; both, working harmoniously together, mean beneficent social development. When radicalism has proven itself good, wise and constructive, and when the public has accepted it, it becomes a part of the law and ceases to be radical.

PRAYER AT THE END OF THE DAY'S WORK

HORATIO WINSLOW in the *Masses*.

I believe in Life: in the honor of being born; in the glory of dying.
I believe in the Work of Life: the everlasting Struggle to Know, with its continual Victories and its unending Defeat.
I believe in the Joy of Life, believe that some day it will be more than bitter foam and dregs.
And I believe in the Substance of Life—in Man—in the Ape that Was—in the Gods to Be. Amen.

"IT IS a new social leaven knitting children, poor parents and employers, and changing the attitude of educators, too"—so writes a Wisconsin subscriber of the new part-time system of industrial education which is being inaugurated in the Badger state.

* * *

SIX months in the life of Robert G——, fifteen years old, who was an applicant for employment to the Industrial Betterment Bureau of the Consumers' League of eastern Pennsylvania, is summarized in the following report.

He appeared stupid and incapable, partly for the reason that he has very poor vision, admitted having had sore eyes for a number of years, is deaf, and has an impediment in his speech.

2 weeks in a department store (A) as cash boy, wages $3.00. Couldn't remember why he left—"just quit."

1 month in a department store (B) as cash boy, wages $3.00. Was in need of ready cash, so drew his pay and left.

4 days in a department store (C) as cash boy, wages $3.00. Left because there were "too many girls—were all the time hollering at him and didn't want them around him."

3 days in a spool mill putting bands on machines, wages $4.50. Wanted a day off so he left.

1 week at a dry goods store as errand boy, wages $3.50. Left because he was sent out till 11 P. M.

1 week at grocery store as inside boy, wages $4.00. Left because the work was too heavy.

3 months at printing shop doing slip-sheeting, wages $2.50. "Work was dangerous but easy so he stayed."

Several days in a textile mill handing in ends, wages $4.00. Left because it was too hard.

* * *

THE Joseph Fels Fund Bulletin gives the following Single Tax Census, the count being based on elections where single tax measures were voted on. These figures should of course be taken with the abatement that particular measures may be voted for by people who would be put to it to define the single tax philosophy:

31,000 single taxers in Oregon (about one-third of the voters);
87,000 single taxers in Missouri (about one-seventh of the voters);
150,000 single taxers in California (slightly less than half of the voters);
13,000 single taxers in Seattle, Wash. (one-third of the voters);
4,800 single taxers in Everett, Wash. (nearly two-thirds of the voters);
47,000 single taxers in St. Louis (40 per cent of the voters);
12,000 single taxers in Kansas City (one-third of the voters).

"It is about twenty years," says the Bulletin, "since a national census of single taxers was taken by means of a petition to Congress. That showed 100,000 single taxers in the whole United States, and we thought it remarkable. California alone can beat that now."

* * *

WITH a style, diction and swing that is suggestive of Rudyard Kipling, the great apostle of imperialism, Harry Kemp, in the *Coming Nation* in his anti-imperialist song, the White Nations, tries to match in effectiveness the English poet's well known poem, the White Man's Burden.

We are the great white nations, proud of our color and birth.
We are the chosen of God, the inheritors of earth,
And all the little peoples bow down before our worth.

We have swept them all before us like a cloudburst in the night,
Or like the wind that scatters easy straws to left and right.
We have smitten them, and harried them, and cut them down in flight.

We have sailed among the Islanders and given them our Law,
And at once were naught but nakedness and held strange gods in awe—
For we saw their lands were good and we have taken what we saw.

We swore them oaths, and broke them, and blamed them for the breach.
We sent our Bible-men ahead to spy the way—and preach,
And then we burned their villages and shot them on the beach.

Against all tribes in darkness our legions have been hurled—
Yea, there are none gainsay us. Our drums beat round the world.
From end to end of sunrise our flags are never furled.

For we are the World-Compellers; and yet we fear the day
When mayhap these same peoples will puzzle out our way—
When they in turn shall conquer and we in turn obey!

COMMUNICATIONS

THE BELGIAN STRIKE

To the Editor:

I am one of those heretics who have to depend on cablegrams and newspaper correspondents for information about European affairs. The Belgian strike proved no exception. That each informant renders a true version of the state of things is hardly to be expected—just as Mr. Beck's letter in The Survey for June 28 is not convincing on account of its coloring according to the preconceived notions of the writer.

Has Mr. Beck a list of the stockholders of the Atlantic Cable Company? I would very much like to know whether these are registered as Jews, Masons, Catholics, etc.? Also I suspect that the sixteenth century spirit of Philip II, who had his iron heel upon the Netherlands, lingers with Mr. Beck. He ought to remember the old saw: *"Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus."*

Henry L. Frank.

Chicago.

PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS

To the Editor:

Dr. I. M. Rubinow in his excellent report on the Conference of Social Insurance in The Survey for July 5, is made to say that my discussion of mothers' pensions may be "characterized as the philosophy of individualism instigated by charity." As I write I learn that "instigated" is a misprint for "mitigated" which relieves the characterization from being characterized as nonsense, but does not make it accurate.

In most things, I am delighted to be classed with "most Americans" but not in the particular respect of being totally unfamiliar with the conceptions of *prévoyance sociale* and *soziale Fürsorge*. If the entire movement for social insurance is to be based upon the impotence and inefficiency of self-help and the degradation—"at best"—of private charitable relief, it rests, in my opinion, upon very unstable foundations. Self-help is sometimes impossible and private charitable relief is sometimes degrading, although not when it is at its best.

Our American conception of social justice, which I confess I much prefer to any conception which can be expressed only in French or German, seems to me to include social insurance in a way which does not disparage either self-help or outright charitable assistance. Self-help, mutual help, and co-operation are infinitely to be preferred to relief but we shall not make substantial progress by sugar-coating what is in fact relief by translating the name of it. Any one who has once accepted the idea that self-help is likely to be often impotent and inefficient and that relief at its best is degrading, will be irresistibly led into the fallacy that relief ceases to be relief when you call it *Fürsorge* or *prévoyance* or insurance or pensions.

I write, not to discuss the subject on its merits, but merely to protest as vigorously as possible against the charge of being an "individualist" even one whose individualism is "mitigated by charity." If to cherish the qualities of thrift, sympathy, family integrity and independence, and self-respect constitutes individualism, I cheerfully plead guilty. If, however, the term is used to indicate a lack of sympathy with the development of a sense of social responsibility, and an appreciation of the necessity for social control, then I may fairly insist that Dr. Rubinow's characterization, like the premature report of Mark Twain's death, is exaggerated.

Edward T. Devine.

DOLLAR EFFICIENCY

To the Editor:

There is such lucid simplicity in Superintendent Spaulding's[1] "How-much-can-you-get-for-a-dollar" test of educational efficiency, that one wants to see it applied, not merely to statistics but as a working hypothesis. For instance, if you discharge a twelve-hundred-dollar teacher and substitute a six-hundred-dollar one, it is evident that you have doubled your efficiency, or the efficiency of the dollar at any rate. Now give him forty pupils in a class where he had twenty and his efficiency is twice as great. And if his hours are such that they could conceivably be doubled, his efficiency is again multiplied by two. In the face of such figures as these one naturally asks about our present system, "To what purpose is this waste?"

Julia H. Caverno.

Northampton, Mass.

[The gist of Superintendent Spaulding's contention is that when the school administrator spends fifteen cents of every dollar for Latin and one mill for shop work, he is, perhaps unconsciously but nevertheless undeniably, putting a comparative evalution on those two subjects. Superintendent Spaulding did not suggest that Latin may not be worth fifteen cents of every dollar. He has discovered how a dollar is actually spent in the educational market in Newton, Mass. Few other superintendents know this for their cities. Our correspondent's application of it is original.—Ed.]

JUST TO KEEP THE RECORD STRAIGHT

To the Editor:

I regret that the width of the continent prevented return of proofs in time to correct two errors which, in the condensing process of your staff, crept into my Survey article of June 21 on Compulsory Compensation in Washington:

(1) Awards to survivors of killed workmen are not limited in Washington to "a maximum of $4,000." A widow is paid $20 for herself, until her death or remarriage, and $5 additional for each child under 16. The aggregate allowance, however, is limited to $35 a month. She and her children may be paid in monthly remittances following the death of the breadwinner a sum aggregating $10,000 or more out of the accident fund (see annual report, 1912, pp. 3, 16, 261). The error of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission in its Bulletin No. 3 respecting the Washington law threatens to *per-*

[1] See The Survey of May 24, 1913, p. 270.

petuate a confusion between the reserve of $4,000 set aside and invested in death cases, and the series of monthly pension payments made so long as a widow lives and remains unmarried.

(2) Employes contribute no money to the accident fund in Washington. The employers pay in the compensation fund; the state foots the cost of administration; the employe contributes only in that he assumes the suffering, the loss of wages in excess of the award, and the bills of the doctor, hospital, drug store, etc.

HAMILTON HIGDAY.

Seattle.

"WORK AND CITIZENSHIP"

TO THE EDITOR:

As a member of the Boston School Committee, prayerfully considering the best way of starting continuation schools under the new Massachusetts law which permits us to make them compulsory, I am much interested in the statement of H. E. Miles, president of the Wisconsin State Board of Industrial Education, in THE SURVEY of June 21, to the effect that "a school substantially perfect can be established in any up-to-date industrial community in from one to three months."

I am especially interested in the statement that the children can discern between a teacher "who knows just how from long practical experience in industry" and "the pretender from a normal school."

I wonder whether it is really the case that long practical experience in industry is a better preparation for teaching children than study or practice of the business of teaching? To an outsider who has neither sort of training it would seeem easier to learn off-hand how to handle machines than how to handle children. You would play upon me; you would seem to know my stops . . . do you think I am easier to be played on than a pipe?

Mr. Miles says that his schools make young lives seize with avidity upon the mainsprings of learning, of moral and social well-being, of personal efficiency, self-expression and developing manhood and womanhood. But one is somewhat puzzled in reading that the majority of the children are "exceedingly deficient in English, arithmetic, etc., and indisposed to learn them." I cannot see in an aversion to "English, arithmetic, etc.," an avidity to seize upon the mainsprings of learning. An education which shies at language and the use of numbers will, it seems to me, be somewhat imperfect. Would not some practice in teaching help out at this point?

JOSEPH LEE.

Boston.

UNEARNED INCREMENT

TO THE EDITOR:

It would be fortunate if your correspondent, Charles E. Manierre, in THE SURVEY for June 28, could revise his ideas as to the foundation for public objection to private appropriation of land values, which sometimes takes the form of suggesting future taxes upon "the unearned increment."

The real foundation for the demand for special taxes upon land values is the perception that such values, at any time and place, are different in origin from other values, and tend to represent the advantage location gives in regard to access to the current services and improvements furnished and made by government. Location owners are in the specially fortunate situation of being able to "use" government, or rent its "use" to others, or allow the opportunity to "use" to lie idle. No worker or producer, or owner of goods or chattels, or furnisher of services to his fellows has the same opportunity. The value of current government services and advantages is contained in land values and in no other values.

When this is once apprehended any contention that landowners are entitled to reimbursement for any taxes paid upon unused land, or to any interest upon the money invested in such land, appears to be utterly absurd. If land values are indeed different from other values, and if equity demands that location owners should make a reasonably full public return annually for the special privileges they enjoy, instead of owners of vacant or poorly improved land being entitled to reimbursement of taxes and interest, they are really to be debited yearly with the difference between the taxes they pay and the value of the opportunity location offers.

We may all agree that any change in our method of taxing land values should be brought about gradually, but in the meantime the simple principle underlying the demand for change should not be lost sight of.

GEORGE WHITE.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

The letter headed "Unearned Increment" in your issue of June 28 is such a shining mark of misinformation, that I feel sure you will give space to a reply for the especial reason that the subject is getting to be so commonly understood that mutual discredit is carried on by letters of this character.

Mr. Manierre's statement in substance is that the idea that there is unearned increment in real estate (land) is an unfortunate error instead of an unfortunate truth; that those who profit by increment of land values earn their profits, the proof of this being that the hazards are as great as in other gainful occupations and profits no greater. I am not disposed to quarrel with his facts as to the excessive profits of real estate speculation, though I believe them to be excessive; the question is not as to the amount or certainty of profit, but as to whether any profit in land ownership or speculation can with safety to humanity be legitimized.

It is safe to say that, were it possible for a bunch of alert "business men" to get possession of the air, even Mr. Manierre would agree that their "profits" were not legitimate, even though they might all be very hard-working gentlemen; there is much sentiment against corners in such prime necessities as wheat; and some sentiment against various other corners; communities are

quite generally short-cutting private exploitations of water supplies.

Yet the source and foundation of all human supplies—the land itself—is permitted to be the basis of unbridled speculation, and defended in progressive philanthropic organs, because forsooth "the exploiters can make no more selling land than anything else!"

If this defence is valid, it would as truly legitimize ordinary stealing, as there is every indication that picking pockets or robbing houses is no more profitable than ordinary merchandising; and to paraphrase this writer "the field of burglary is open to all; there's no monopoly of it; all that is necessary is for them to be willing to take the risks of arrest!"

But he does not say anything about who makes the values that render the increment unearned. The people make the values and the speculator gets them, and in the process is imposed upon the people a perpetual overhead burden that produces directly and otherwise the bulk of poverty, crime and disease under which they stagger.

Our friend implies that land owners, during the process of their enrichment through increments of land values, are performing some service to someone, entitling them to such profits; he classes them with investors of capital in manufacturing and industry; all of which shows the false position necessarily assumed in any defence of "unearned increment."

Not only does the land speculator not do anything productive, either to his land or to anything else, but he makes his money always by doing nothing, and waiting for industry to make increments for him.

But I will not go further. Mr. Manierre makes light of facts of such profound weight with the obvious intent of appealing to those who are looking at merely the surface of so-called reforms.

C. H. Ingersoll.

New York.

To the Editor:

I heartily endorse the position taken by my friend Ingersoll and share the responsibility gladly with him. Try again, Mr. Manierre.

Joseph Fels.

London.

SALVE AND SOCIETY AND THE SLUMS

To the Editor:

This is not a Socialistic dissertation. It is the protest of a rational and reasoning mind against the unreasoning and irrational administration of our American cities.

Today when the great principle of conservation has been established as the keynote of all communal effort, we are still recklessly sacrificing thousands of lives and souls at the altar of municipal inefficiency. In the dark and filthy hovels of the poor and lowly, crime and disease enter unafraid and unchallenged. The luring siren voice of crime, sweet with the promise of undeserved gain and luxury, snatches the untutored and the feeble-minded from the tenement and sets them out upon the highway—a host of menacing parasites. Rising from the squalidness of the slum like a Phoenix of destruction, comes disease to rack and to torture the victims of sanitary, moral and educational neglect while vice, arch-supervisor of the universal bureau of degeneration, superintends the movements of both with a devilish efficiency that is unassailable.

What are we doing to down the black horde that is preying upon us? What are we doing to conserve the social potentiality of our children, to safeguard the physique and the mentality of the race, to insure to all that inalienable right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness for which our ancestors fought and to the realization of which our nation was in its inception consecrated? What are we doing to stamp out the sores which plague our communal bodies—the slums with their dens of prostitution, the pernicious pool rooms, the questionable dance halls, the dim and narrow alleys that invite wrong doing, the unsanitary shops and the unventilated homes that breed typhoid and tuberculosis and death? What?

Salve! We smear over the wounds the salve of inadequate public schools, insufficient recreation centers, regulation of commercialized prostitution, corrupt and incompetent police administration, and farcical factory inspection and control. Our statute books are replete with prescriptions for the cure of our social ills, but alas, they remain uncompounded.

Can we not awake from the sleep of inaction and indifference? The city beautiful and the city healthful will only be realized when every force of destruction will be supplanted by an agency of conservation. Batter down the shanties and the hovels! In their stead rear real homes. Let every open spot be green with the verdure and fragrance of nature. Throw wide the portals of the school to old and young alike to use as they will and when they will. Better wages, more trade schools, clean public dance halls, large public baths, well equipped gymnasiums, broad and well-paved streets in the humbler districts as well as in the quarters of the rich—these are the aids of human and universal conservation which make for brotherhood and true content. Let the slogan of our city administration be: A healthier generation, a better citizenship and thus a greater national asset!

William Franklin Rosenblum.

[Director of Male Activities, Council Educational Alliance.]

Cleveland.

THE DILLINGHAM BILL

To the Editor:

When the Dillingham bill states that the number of immigrants in any year shall be limited to 10 per cent of the number of that nationality already here, it defines nationality as the country of birth. To the average person unfamiliar with conditions in southeastern Europe this would seem a logical definition. The purpose of the bill is to restrict the numbers of immigrants to a proportion that might be fairly as-

simable, and is aimed at certain countries, not mentioned, from which we are now getting what some think to be dangerous numbers. From a sociological point of view, in these countries there is little or no relation between "country of birth" and nationality, and this was recognized by the last census which gathered statistics on the basis of "nationality or mother tongue."

The real problem of the immigrant does not arise from the country in which he was born, but from the traditions into which he was born, and the mother tongue is the conserver of these traditions. As a matter of fact there is a wider divergence of culture between different peoples in the same country than between countries, and in the case of the Poles and Hebrews who come here, the countries of birth—Russia, Austria, and Germany—are merely accidental.

From the point of view of the restrictionist it makes no difference from which of these countries our Polish immigrants come, as their unity of feeling is very strong and their level of culture similar, but by the working of the 10 per cent clause we would have a complex situation. We may admit under the 10 per cent limitation from Germany 250,000, from Austria 117,000, from Russian 160,000. There are in the United States, 190,000 Poles from Germany, 329,000 from Austria, 418,000 from Russia. Our immigration from Germany is such that 215,000 more Poles could come annually than have been coming. In other words there would be no restriction, and the Poles would be matched only against the Germans, who constitute over 90 per cent of our immigrants from that country, and we have been getting approximately one per cent of additions. From Austria and Russia, not only must the total number be limited, but the competition must be with people who are quite as alien to them as they are to Americans.

Let us consider Austria. In 1910 the total population was 27,963,872, of which 35.5 per cent were German, 23.2 per cent Bohemian, 17.8 per cent Polish, 12.6 per cent Russians, 4.5 per cent Servo-Croats, 2.8 per cent Italians, a few Roumanians and Magyars. If we add Hungary, which may be taken with Austria as one country, we have about half Magyars, more than a third Slovaks, Germans, Jews and others for the remainder. Although Germans and Bohemians constitute nearly 60 per cent of the population of Austria, very few of them are now coming to this country, while 28 per cent of our immigrants from that country are Poles. Who shall say from which of these clearly defined groups the ten per cent shall come?

From Russia we might receive 160,000, but only 2.7 per cent of our Russian immigrants are Russian, but rather in order of numbers, Jews 52 per cent, Poles 26 per cent, Lithuanians, Finns, Germans and Russians. The hostility between these groups is greater than that between any of the countries of Europe, and from the side of assimilability they cover the whole European range. But Jews, Poles and Germans also come from Germany and Austria. It is also an interesting fact that the people representing the governments in these countries come in relatively small numbers.

The language test would not apply to Italy which is one of the countries aimed at. The old kingdoms are the basis of common feeling and culture, so that difference between Milanese and Sicilian is greater than that between many political units, but in the bill they are added together.

It has been suggested in other articles that there would be injustice to the alien at the time the numerical limit was reached. This is much greater when we remember that we are not dealing with homogeneous people among whom information could be easily transmitted, but with competing groups who would try to take advantage of each other. Thus in Russia where the Jews are the agents of the steamship lines we might expect the Poles to get the short end of the proportion, and when a party of Slovaks were waiting at Fiume, and one of Austrian Germans at Bremen, only one of which could go, how would the discrimination be made?

I am not in favor of the restriction clause at all, but if we must have one, it would be much better statesmanship to aim directly at the mark than to add together heterogeneous elements that have no more relation to each other than the accident of juxtaposition.

HERBERT ADOLPHUS MILLER
[Olivet College.]
Olivet, Mich.

THE I. W. W. IN AKRON

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with interest John A. Fitch's article, the I. W. W., an Outlaw Organization, in your issue of June 7. The crux of the article seems to imply that unlawful methods are being used to suppress the I. W. W. It is because the loyal citizens of Akron decided that law and order should be maintained in this city that the strike organized by the I. W. W. agitators was ended in about six weeks. It is because this article implies that unlawful methods were pursued in Akron that I am sending you this statement.

A quotation in the article says: "Akron, Ohio, could not find a law to banish this dangerous revolutionist and his cohorts, but a citizens' committee with 1,000 men did the trick in short order."

The Citizens' Public Welfare League was organized in this city with 8,000 members, when a point had been reached in the strike when the I. W. W. leaders had made the most inflammatory utterances and a small riot had taken place in the down town section, during which shots had been fired, but without anyone being injured. By this time attacks were also being made by the strikers on men who wished to continue working in the rubber factories, the methods pursued being for small squads of strikers to attack one or two men at lonely points on their way to work.

It was at this point in the strike that the citizens generally realized that the police, who had

been very careful in handling the strike, needed support to maintain order in the city. A citizens' organization 8,000 strong was formed. The mayor and chief of police were notified that the citizens could be called upon for duty. A number of them were sworn in as special deputies, and one policeman and three or four special deputies in automobiles patrolled the city every morning and evening. Some of the strikers who were attempting to assault the men desiring to work were caught in the act, arrested and fined in the police court for assault.

When the I. W. W. leaders and the strikers realized that the intimidation of men who desired to work would no longer be allowed in this city the assaults upon single working men and the chain picketing at the different plants were soon discontinued.

It was thus undoubtedly because the unlawful methods being preached and practiced by the I. W. W. were opposed by the proper methods of law and order, and also by the opposition of level-headed and satisfied working men, that the strike failed so soon.

VINCENT S. STEVENS.

[Secretary Chamber of Commerce.]
Akron.

MINIMUM WAGES

TO THE EDITOR:

In the discussion of the minimum wage for women and the laws to regulate the hours and conditions of their employment, merchants and manufacturers frequently testify before legislative committees that the remedies proposed by social agencies will force the women to walk the streets in idleness, unable to secure employment because their places will be taken by more able, more efficient men.

Just after reading a newspaper statement a little more flagrant on this argument than I had yet encountered, I had occasion to refer to Dr. J. A. Hill's census report on Statistics of Women at Work and noticed the accompanying table which seems to me to demonstrate the fallacy of this most popular argument.

There were in 1900 about 25,000,000 men over sixteen years of age, and of this number 22,500,000, or 90.5 per cent, reported a gainful occupation. Less than 2,500,000 were reported as having no gainful occupation. The number of women having a gainful occupation in 1900 was over 4,750,000. Thus, if every man over sixteen not reporting a gainful occupation could be employed there would not be men enough to replace all the women; but not all these men could be drawn upon as an inspection of the table will show. The classification by age of the men not reporting a gainful occupation is as follows:

	Men 16 years of age and over *not* reporting a gainful occupation: 1900.	
Age	Number	Per cent distribution
16 to 20	861,289	36.5
21 to 24	199,705	8.5
25 to 34	231,017	9.8
35 to 44	168,099	7.1
45 to 54	152,199	6.4
55 to 64	206,243	8.7
65 and over	491,562	20.8
Unknown	51,474	2.1
Total	2,361,588	100.00

According to these figures 36.5 per cent of the men not reporting a gainful occupation are between sixteen and twenty years of age, in other words boys who have not yet finished their schooling. It can hardly be imagined that the slight difference between the wage now paid and any minimum adopted will offer sufficient inducement to draw into the working world any considerable number from this group.

Twenty per cent of the men are sixty-five and over, too old to compete very vigorously against young girls and all too likely already broken down by the industrial struggle.

These two groups contain 1,352,851 men, 57.3 per cent of the total number reporting no gainful occupation. The remainder, 1,009,637 are all that are left to replace the women. They include men so rich that they do not work, and men who are blind, deaf, crippled, deformed, insane, feeble-minded, or otherwise physically or mentally incapacitated. When these are eliminated the number qualified to compete with women in the type of work which women now perform is so small that the people need have no fear that a requirement of a living wage will turn the millions of working women jobless into the street because the men have replaced them.

LEWIS MERIAM.

[Children's Bureau.]
Washington, D. C.

	Population 16 Years of Age and Over.					
		Male			Female	
		Breadwinners			Breadwinners	
Age	Total	Number	Per cent	Total	Number	Per Cent
16 to 20	3,716,714	2,855,425	76.8	3,837,851	1,237,967	32.3
21 to 24	2,888,931	2,689,226	93.1	2,914,591	898,478	30.8
25 to 34	6,224,864	5,993,847	96.3	5,860,616	1,168,342	19.9
35 to 44	4,872,781	4,704,682	96.6	4,339,166	675,032	15.6
45 to 54	3,402,458	3,250,259	95.5	2,994,983	440,825	14.7
55 to 64	2,062,424	1,856,181	90.0	1,940,111	256,705	13.2
65 and over	1,555,418	1,063,856	68.4	1,525,080	138,587	9.1
Unknown	127,423	75,949	59.6	73,161	17,694	24.2
Total	24,851,013	22,489,425	90.5	23,485,559	4,833,630	20.6

THE SURVEY

Volume XXX, No. 20 August 16, 1913

WHEN THE TELEPHONE GIRLS ORGANIZED

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HOW DOES UNCLE SAM TREAT HIS INJURED WORKERS?

A REVIEW OF ACCIDENT COMPENSATION FOR FEDERAL EMPLOYES

I. M. RUBINOW

This Issue Ten Cents Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

THE PITH OF IT

TELEPHONE girls have achieved in Boston their first effective union organization. A dramatic story is told of their spirited group action, threatened strike, and negotiations with the company, resulting in the establishment of a joint board for the adjustment of grievances and working conditions. P. 621.

A NEW method of utilizing the interstate commerce powers to control child labor and other industrial abuses has been proposed by the legislative reference bureau of the Progressive Party. The principle is that of the Beveridge bill of 1907, but a simpler and more effective scheme of administration is provided. P. 615.

BATTLE lines in New York's mayoralty campaign are being drawn. Fusion nominees are John Purroy Mitchell for mayor, George M'Aneny for president of the Board of Aldermen, and District Attorney Charles S. Whitman for re-election. Suggestions of social workers as to platform and campaign issues have been partially followed. P. 615.

UNCLE Sam's treatment of his 400,000 employes, so far as industrial accidents are concerned, is not up to the standard which state legislatures establish for private employers. With 6,000 injuries uncompensated in three years, and with many shortcomings in the law as it now stands, it is important that the Kern bill, prepared by the American Association for Labor Legislation, be enacted. P. 624.

A NEW plan is proposed for the industrial development of Alaska. In addition to government operation of public utilities, it provides for a minimum standard of wages and a division of profits between operatives and consumers. P. 620.

CHICAGO'S ten police women provided for by the ordinance passed July 25 have been appointed by Mayor Harrison, who consulted the Juvenile Protective Association in selecting the type of women needed for this important service. The association suggested that one group should be on duty from 2 until 10 P. M. when many of the amusement parks close, and another group from 7 P. M. until 3 A. M. watching particularly the cafes and dance halls.

PROPONENTS of a bill to amend the Sherman act by exempting labor unions from its provisions cite records to show that this was the original intent of Senator Sherman and those who voted for the measure in 1890. The bill is opposed by the same interests which objected to the provision of this year's sundry civil appropriation bill allowing no funds for the prosecution of labor unions violating the Sherman act. P. 619.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE
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OHIO villages have had another flood scare and find it necessary to climb higher up the creek banks. P. 618.

The Third Year of the Cleveland Class for Training Nurses for Social Work

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THE COMMON WELFARE

FEDERAL CONTROL OVER "ANTI-SOCIAL LABOR"

A comprehensive and novel plan for federal prohibition of child labor is embodied in a bill which Congressman Ira C. Copley of Illinois has introduced in the House. This measure calls for a distinct expansion in theories of federal control. A machinery of administration is presented which has no duplicate in the federal government. If in actual operation it should fulfill the expectations of those who worked out the details, a new field of federal legislation will be opened up.

The fundamental principle of the bill is that of Senator Beveridge's proposal of 1907 denying the right of interstate transportation to the products of child labor, but the methods of enforcing this prohibition are distinctly new. The bill is a result of the labors of Congressman Copley, with the aid of the Legislative Reference Bureau of the Progressive National Service, to fulfill the pledge of the Progressive Party's national platform. Profs. William Draper Lewis of Pennsylvania, George W. Kirchway of Columbia and Walter E. Weyl gave counsel and advice in determining the problems presented. The responsibility of drafting the measure was laid upon Donald R. Richberg, director of the Legislative Reference Bureau.

In the bill the labor of children in certain industries and under certain conditions is defined as "anti-social child labor." The next section defines this phrase as "the employment of a child under fourteen years of age in any mill, factory, cannery, workshop, manufacturing or mechanical establishment, or of a child under sixteen years of age in any coal mine, coal breaker, coke oven, quarry, or in any establishment where poisonous or dangerous acids, gases, or dyes are used, manufactured, or packed, or in any establishment wherein the work done or materials or equipment handled are dangerous to the life and limb or injurious to the health or morals of such a child."

The phrase "anti-social child labor" is used to give legislative expression to the intent of the proposed legislation; the protection of society from the stunting of future generations. The second section of the bill designates such labor as "detrimental to the general welfare and debasing to commerce." In passing the bill Congress would thus exercise its power, as recently sustained by the Supreme Court, to deny the right of interstate commerce to commodities



"S. O. S."

The Milwaukee Associated Charities recently sent out an "S. O. S." appeal for ice and asked each citizen to be a "Carpathian" and come to to the rescue.

so debasing to the community in production and trade as to be designated "outlaws of commerce."

The limitation of the scope of the measure is designed to avoid as far as possible, practical defects involved in the maintenance of an elaborate machinery of federal inspection. Mr. Copley's proposal is to establish a minimum standard and to insure that it is nationally enforced.

The administrative provisions are:

Section 3. The secretary of labor shall make a public list of the businesses and industries affected, together with a list of their products.

Section 4. Any manufacturer or producer may make affidavit that he does not employ the aid of anti-social child labor and be authorized by the secretary of labor to stamp or label his goods as registered under the act.

Section 5. No carrier shall transport and no manufacturer or jobber shall ship, initially in interstate commerce, the products of anti-social child labor, provided that if goods so produced bear the label of registry all persons except the manufacturer are presumed to be ignorant of the use of child labor in their production.

Section 6. The secretary of labor, after examination of the laws, shall certify what states have laws which "substantially prohibit and effectively prevent" anti-social child labor as defined—whereupon the provisions of the act shall not apply to such states.

Section 7. Unlawful shipment or transportation or a false affidavit is punishable by fine of from $100 to $5,000, or imprisonment for not more than one year.

Section 8. A false statement to a common carrier concerning the fact of employment of child labor or whether the shipment is an initial shipment is made punishable by fine. A carrier is permitted to refuse to accept shipments where the shipper refuses to make such a written statement on demand.

Through these provisions, the drafters of the bill aim to designate clearly by administrative definition the businesses and products involved; to avoid unnecessarily elaborate administration and needless restrictions of commerce, by exempting states having satisfactory standards and manufacturers who conform to the federal standards; to prevent vexatious interference with interstate transportation business by relieving carriers of responsibility when they take easy steps to protect themselves.

It is the hope of the proponents of this measure that interstate traffic in the products of child labor can be effectively prevented without placing any risks or annoyances upon innocent persons or without proposing heavy obligations upon government prosecutors. A notice of violation of the law from the secretary of labor to a manufacturer or dealer should promptly terminate the traffic or leave little ground for defense in case of disobedience.

While the primary intent of this bill is to prevent in large measure the successful exploitation of child labor, its provisions if sustained by the courts and successful in administration are put forward as possible of wide application. Many evils persist through the impossibility of obtaining simultaneous state action against them and the supposed limitations upon the federal power. The advocates of the measure contend that this is a vicious perversion of the doctrine of states' rights. To do away with unfair competition of convict labor and many other industrial abuses, they urge that effective means of federal control must be found and that the Copley bill points the way.

NEW YORK'S MAYORALTY CAMPAIGN AND ISSUES

The New York municipal campaign will reach its climax at the November election. But the political pot, particularly so far as the fusion efforts against Tammany are concerned, has been boiling many weeks at a lively rate. Interest centered in the choice which the citizens' committee of 107, under the chairmanship of Norman Hapgood, representing Republicans, Progressives and Independent Democrats, would make for a mayoralty nominee.

Three names had been prominent—George M'Aneny, borough president of Manhattan, whose constructive civic policies and achievements were universally recognized; Charles S. Whitman, who, as district attorney, gained just popularity through his fearless and successful prosecution of the corruptionists in the police department; and John Purroy Mitchell, collector of the port of New York, whose efforts in behalf of efficient municipal administration characterized his service as commissioner of accounts, president of the Board of Aldermen, and acting mayor following the attempted assassination of Mayor Gaynor. His charges of incompetency against some of the borough presidents resulted in their removal from office.

Some twenty prominent social workers, among them Homer Folks, Lilian D. Wald, John Collier, Benjamin C. Marsh, John P. Peters, Owen R. Lovejoy, and James P. Warbasse, addressed to the Citizens' Committee a memorandum of recommendations for the fusion platform and campaign issues. While they did not designate their preference by name to be Mr. M'Aneny, it is well known that they earnestly hoped he would be the choice of the Citizen's Committee.

The vote of the committee for candidates turned out unexpectedly. Mitchell heads the ticket, while M'Aneny has accepted nomination for the less impressive but scarcely less difficult office of president of the Board of Aldermen.

THE NEW FEDERAL RAILWAY MEDIATION BOARD

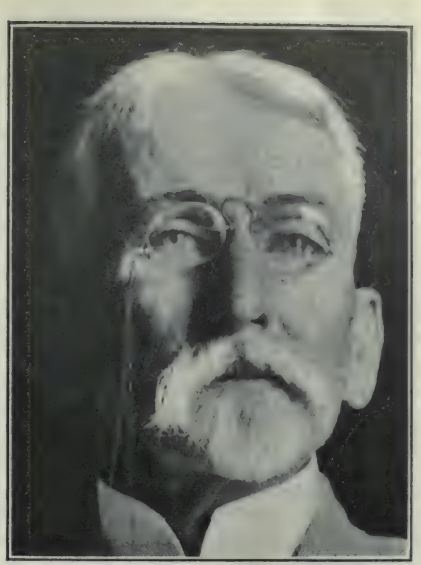


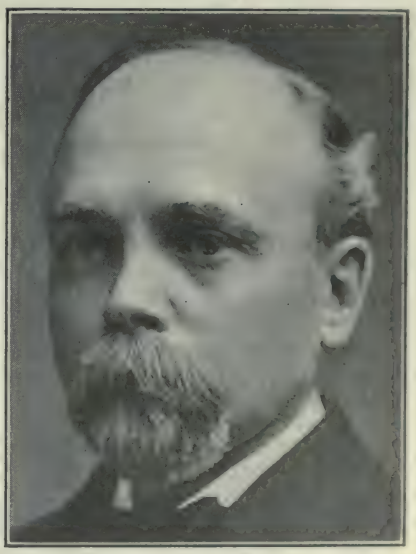
Photo by American Press Assn.

WILLIAM LEA CHAMBERS
Commissioner of Mediation



Photo by Harris and Ewing, Washington, D. C.

G. W. W. HANGER



MARTIN A. KNAPP

The federal railway mediation board, recently appointed by President Wilson, was brought into being through the amendment to the Erdman act, quickly enacted by Congress to avert the threatened strike of conductors and trainmen on the eastern railroads. The commissioner of the board is William Lea Chambers, who was chairman of the arbitration board in the late controversy between the railroads and the firemen. He is a native of Georgia. From 1897 to 1901 he was chief justice of the international court, Samoa, and from 1901 to 1910 a member of the Spanish Treaty Claims Commission.

Mr. Hanger, the assistant commissioner, has been for a number of years chief statistician of the Bureau of Labor, and during the last three or four years, when Commissioner Charles P. Neill has been so frequently absent from the bureau in pursuit of his duties as mediator under the old Erdman act, Mr. Hanger has served as acting commissioner of labor.

The new act povides that two other government officers shall sit with the commissioner and assistant commissioner of mediation. One of these is Judge Martin A. Knapp, chief justice of the Commerce Court, who was for years chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Under the old Erdman act he served with Commissioner Neill as a mediator. The other is Royal Meeker, who, after serving as assistant professor of political economy at Princeton University, was appointed by President Wilson to succeed Charles P. Neill as commissioner of labor statistics.

The fusion platform, drawn up by a committee, which includes in its membership Mr. Hapgood and Dr. Henry Moskowitz, follows in some respects the recommendations of the social workers. This platform was a protest against too exclusive emphasis by the fusion forces on the "minor or negative police issue," supplemented by suggestions of important lines of major or constructive work.

The failure of the Whitman supporters to force his nomination lessens the danger of too exclusive attention to the police situation, though the fusion platform as adopted gives considerable prominence to this issue. Equal prominence is given, however, to measures which, in keeping with policies already inaugurated by the Board of Estimate, should increase efficiency, lessen waste, enlarge the sources of revenue, and give the administration a sound budgetary control of expenditures. This is in line with the recommendations of the social workers, as are the sections providing for the control of public utilities and other activities by the Board of Estimate. The fusion platform is in this and some other respects more specific than the general suggestions of the social workers' memorandum. It goes further also in recommending municipal ownership wherever it is evidently in the interests of the community, and it would increase the power of the financial side of the administration by abolishing the Board of Aldermen, and thus making the Board of Estimate the responsible governing body of the city.

The chief emphasis throughout the platform of the social workers is laid, not on the above administrative details, but on the expansion and adaption of public agencies to meet adequately the needs of 5,000,000 people. This includes the reconstruction of the educational system, special attention to housing and city planning, the modernization of the correctional system, and the formulation of a broad plan of public recreation, through the wider use of public properties.

In the fusion platform, owing to practical administrative exigencies, these details of a social program occupy a place subordinate to details of administrative reform. The need of a city plan in connection with the development of rapid transit is, however, well recognized; so, too, is the need of improved housing and health regulation for the relief of congestion. The establishment of a department of recreation, and the use of public properties for this purpose is urged, as well as the modernization of the correctional system. Expansion of the public school system along the lines of school feeding and vocational training is recommended. The item that occupies the greatest space in the fusion social program is, however, the establishment of a department of markets to the end of standardizing foods and lowering the cost of living.

OHIO SUFFERS MORE FLOODS

An unprecedented rise of water which overtook the creeks of southeastern Ohio the middle of July threatened to undo the work of reconstruction after the spring disasters which was going on in the Muskingum valley. A "cloud burst," in the language of the region, was responsible for the flood, and the newspapers have already told how a Pennsylvania train became flood-bound, so that the passengers had to chop their way out through the roof of a car, afterward being taken off in boats. The Muskingum itself climbed almost to the danger point, a rise of twenty-one feet in seven hours being reported at Zanesville. It was primarily a flood of the creeks, however, many of which had never reached such high water before, and the most spectacular feature was the tide-like swiftness with which the waters rose.

The creek banks are dotted with tiny villages and stray houses, so that relief became necessary. Duck Creek, flowing into the Ohio a few miles northeast of Marietta, presents a typical illustration of how local relief committees have learned to utilize promptly Red Cross emergency measures. The Marietta relief committee, formed after the March flood, was just tieing together the last threads of its work. Five days after the rise, when the roads had become passable again, E. C. Krecker, of the faculty of Marietta College, was despatched by this committee up Duck Creek valley, traveling in a buggy. His only outfit was a batch of Red Cross registration cards, on which could be entered each family's loss, debts, assets, and such other conditions of life as might affect its ability to recover.

At Harrietsville Mr. Krecker found that no village was left. The inhabitants had held a mass meeting just before he arrived, and instead of lying down in self-pity had agreed, with all the ceremony of debate and resolution, that Harrietsville should not be lost to the world, but that the entire community would climb higher up the bank and build a new Harrietsville in what had been the back-yard of the old one. The loss here was wholly due to the almost incredible swiftness with which the waters rose. Between one and two o'clock on the morning of the flood, Tailor Lovett had gone down to take a look at the creek. It was just topping the bank. He started to run the hundred yards back to his store. Flashes of lightning helped him to cover the ground as he had never covered it before. But the water won the race and when he reached the store, it was already around his shoe tops. Calling to one of his boys he started to move such of the contents as the two could manage alone. But when one trip to safety had been made Lovett was working up to his

arm pits and the task had to be given up. Both started for high ground but before it was reached the man had to swim back and rescue the lad from the waters which had risen above his head.

While Mr. Krecker was approaching Macksburg vivid stories of the great loss suffered there reached him. When he arrived he discovered that the accounts had been colored by the inexperience of those who started them. This was Macksburg's first flood and like a young football player who receives his first bruise, the village thought it came out of the scrimmage with unprecedented suffering. Careful study showed that the losses were not as heavy as those of Harrietsville, which had met its fate so pluckily.

Mr. Krecker returned to Marietta with 115 families registered as flood losers. The committee immediately sifted out 66 who could not recover without assistance from the outside. These are being helped by the Red Cross. For some a new supply of furniture will be bought, for some houses will be repaired, for others new houses built.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE FORMED IN MASSACHUSETTS

State-wide co-operation in child welfare work in Massachusetts has grown out of occasional meetings of a small group of representatives of private child-helping societies for the purpose of considering administrative questions. They sought primarily the geographical distribution of the work of the societies and their co-ordination, with the hope that at least some one agency could be depended upon to assume responsibility for any case that needed to be looked into.

When the question of organization of the state for the purposes of child welfare exhibitions came to the front, this conference was naturally a nucleus for a larger grouping of interests. Out of this beginning there has now been organized a Massachusetts Child Welfare Committee which at present consists of twenty-five executives of various agencies affecting the life and welfare of children.

While not a committee of delegates, the members through their official relation represent the following activities: children's aid societies, children's protective agencies, the child labor committee, boys' clubs, Young Men's Christian Association, dispensary and hospital facilities and probation work. One of the interests of this committee is to encourage child welfare exhibits in such communities as seem ready for them and to assist communities in getting the largest benefit out of such exhibits.

The committee at its first meeting in Worcester considered the pending social legislation in Massachusetts and planned how to help in getting certain measures passed. A report of the number of placed-out children in various towns and cities under the auspices of the various child-helping agencies was presented and discussed. The advisability of having a state curfew law for all children under fourteen was considered.

C. C. Carstens of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was chosen chairman for the first year, David W. Armstrong of the Worcester Boys' Club, vice-chairman, and Mabelle B. Blake of the Boston Society for the Care of Girls, secretary and treasurer.

LABOR UNION EXEMPTION FROM THE SHERMAN ACT

Directly after the passage of the sundry civil appropriation bill containing the clause exempting labor unions and farmers' organizations from prosecution under the Sherman anti-trust law, came the announcement that Senator Bacon of Georgia and Representative Bartlett of the same state will have the backing of the American Federation of Labor in an attempt to make this exemption permanent by legislation directly amending the Sherman act. In so far as this will furnish a direct test as to whether there is a preponderant desire to exempt certain classes of business and industry from the Sherman law the attempt is believed to be in accord with President Wilson's views. It is expected that he will accompany his signature of the sundry civil bill with a memorandum denouncing the effort to affect the validiting of other statutes through an appropriation act.

It is the argument of those trying to secure this legislation that they are merely seeking to restore the original intent of the act, which, they claim, has been misconstrued by "judicial interpretation." They cite the fact that when the Sherman bill was presented to the Senate on February 28, 1890, Senator Sherman rose in his seat and offered an amendment. In offering it he said:

"I take this provision from the amendment proposed by the Senator from Mississippi, Mr. George. I do not think it necessary, but, at the same time, to avoid any confusion, I submit it to come at the end of the first section."

This amendment was as follows:

"Provided that this act shall not be construed to apply to any arrangements, agreements, or combinations between the laborers made with a view of lessening the number of hours of labor or the increasing of their wages; nor to any arrangements, agreements, or combinations among persons engaged in horticulture or agriculture, made with a view of enhancing the price of agricultural or horticultural products."

The bill, including this amendment soon afterward came to a vote. The yeas were thirty-one, and the nays twenty-eight. The measure with

this specific exemption of labor unions and farmers' organizations, went to the Committee on the Judiciary. On April 2, the bill was reported out of the committee without the amendment, and in the unamended form it was passed. Of this action President Samuel Gompers of the American Federation of Labor says:

"Though at the time we doubted the wisdom of that amendment being omitted, we were assured by several that under the reconstructed bill, labor and agricultural organizations were not included."

In the debate on the bill, Senator Hoar of Massachusetts, said:

"It seems to me that there is a very broad distinction which, if borne in mind, will warrant not only this exception to the provisions of the bill, but a great deal of other legislation which we enact or attempt to enact relating to the matter of labor. When you are providing to regulate the transactions of men who are making corners in wheat, iron, and other products, speculating, or when they are lawfully dealing with them without speculation, you are aiming at a mere commercial transaction, the beginning of the end of which is the making of money for the parties and nothing else. That is the only relation that transaction has to the state, that is, the creation or division of much of the ownership of the wealth of the community.

"But when the laborer is trying to raise his wages, or in endeavoring to shorten the hours of his labor, he is dealing with something that touches closely, more closely than anything else, the government and the character of the state itself. The laborer who is engaged lawfully and usefully and accomplishes his purpose in whole or in part, endeavoring to raise the standard of wages, is engaged in an occupation the success of which makes republican government itself possible, and without which the republic can not, in substance, continue to exist."

The proposed amendment to the Sherman act is meeting with vigorous opposition, particularly from representatives of some of the manufacturers' bodies which are hostile to labor unions. They protest against legalizing the exemption of labor organizations with all the vehemence they displayed when urging President Wilson to veto the sundry civil appropriation bill. President Kirby of the National Association of Manufacturers, then contended that

"During recent years we have witnessed the prosecution and conviction of many business men, under the Sherman anti-trust law for seeking in some way to protect their business against ruthless competition and dominant methods of the labor trust. If they have violated the law, we have no complaint to offer for the penalties which they may be called upon to pay, but we do protest against the free and unmolested manner in which the labor trust defiantly continues to violate the same law."

A NEW PLAN FOR ALASKA

Senator Poindexter of Washington has introduced into the Senate, and Representative Bryan of the same state has introduced into the House, a remarkable bill, based on a scheme proposed by James MacKaye of Cambridge, Mass., providing for the industrial development of Alaska along novel lines. After providing that the government shall own and operate the public utilities of that territory, including the telephone and telegraph systems, the measure sets forth a "conditional compensation" plan whereby the interests of the producer and consumer are made identical, and a strong incentive is given to the workers to be efficient.

The bill orders that a minimum hourly wage shall be paid to labor at a rate not less than the average wage paid to the same class of labor by other employers under equivalent conditions. In case the total credit account of any year shall exceed the total debit account, the difference is to be charged to what is called a "dividend fund" which is to be divided between the operatives on the one hand and the purchasers of coal, transportation service, or whatever it may be on the other. The share assigned to the operatives—and at this point the bill differs radically from many profit-sharing schemes—is to be not less than one-half the dividend fund. This share is to be distributed in such a manner that each operative shall receive an amount proportional to the wages or salary received by him during the previous year. The rest of the dividend fund is to be assigned to the purchasers in proportion to the sums paid by them for service or products, preference being given in the sale of coal, etc., to, first, the government, and then to schools and municipalities, to domestic users of coal or ultimate consumers, then to commercial retailers, wholesalers, and manufacturers, in the order named.

The bill gives to the President power to make necessary rules and regulations to insure the safety of passengers on government railroads, to provide for detailed reports on all accidents or occupational diseases occurring in any enterprise; to provide for compensation to workers who may be killed or injured or who may contract any occupational disease in the course of their work; to provide a system of insurance of operatives against sickness, injury or death; and to provide, furthermore, for an adequate system of sanitation, housing and general living conditions for operatives in government service.

INDUSTRY

WHEN THE TELEPHONE GIRLS ORGANIZED

ANNE WITHINGTON
WOMAN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE, BOSTON

YOUNG'S HOTEL, in Boston, has often been the scene of important political meetings. As the particular stamping ground of Thomas W. Lawson, it has frequently been the center of spectacular events in the business world. But never has it held such a company as sat down to dinner there one evening last spring. Six men of middle age, all well-known figures in commercial life, were there, and nine young girls with but one brief year's experience of co-operative effort of any kind. Conversation was friendly, even jolly, but every one sat alert, waiting for the moment when the object of the dinner should be mentioned.

Of the men, one was president of the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company; one was a vice-president of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, on from New York to bring the resources of the big organization to its subsidiary, and one was James J. Storrow, president of the Boston Chamber of Commerce and a member of the great banking house of Lee, Higginson & Company. The girls were the arbitration board of the Boston Telephone Operators' Union.

The hotel corridors were filled with newspaper men intent on the struggle between the girls and the company.

The telephone is less than forty years old, but so rapidly and completely does society reconstruct itself with respect to new discoveries that the thought of Boston, bereft of its telephone arteries, inspired nothing less than terror in the minds of bankers, brokers, newspaper men, department store men, business men in all lines to say nothing of the private individuals who have come to rely upon the telephone as an essential of daily life. "Avert a strike," every one cried, and the Boston Chamber of Commerce appointed a conciliation committee with Mr. Storrow at its head.

All night the struggle went on, hour after hour, fifteen hours on a stretch. Finally, at five o'clock in the morning, limp and exhausted, all went home in taxis for which the company paid. For the girls had won—won a fight for better wages, better hours of labor and best of all for a permanent tribunal for adjusting grievances.

How did it come about? Here was a new union of young girls pitted against one of the most powerful corporations in the world. So far as any official utterance of the company is concerned, no union exists today and no proposals have been submitted by the union. The company maintains the attitude of voluntarily conferring upon its employes better wages, better hours, the establishment of the adjustment board, but the public to which the girls appealed for support pins its faith in future peace to the fact that those who are to profit by these new rules and new schedules helped to shape them.

It was in March, 1912, that a group of toll operators apppealed to the Boston Woman's Trade Union League for help in organizing with a view to abolishing certain hardships, among them the "split trick." The "split trick" is the dividing of the working day so that hours of labor are not consecutive. Telephone traffic has "peak loads" in the morning and afternoon, and the number of calls in the evening is much smaller. But the whole stretch is sixteen hours and the method employed by the company to cover both "peak loads" and the slacker work of the evening was through the service of some operators for morning and evening or afternoon and evening "tricks." The "split trick" has been a source of constant irritation. Appeal to the final authority, the president of the company, to remedy this or any other grievance had to be made, from operator to president, through seven different officials involving delays discouraging to any but the most persistent.

The league set to work promptly, the union affiliated with the Brotherhood of Electrical Workers as Sublocal No. 1, and its membership grew by leaps and bounds. Today there are 2,200 girls on its rolls, a large proportion of the company's entire force of operators. In April, 1912, the newly formed union submitted substantially the demands which were later won. An organizer from the Brotherhood of Electrical Workers gave counsel, and headquarters were

established in the Women's Trade Union League rooms. One delay followed another in securing a response from the company. In June, 1912, the girls asked for a definite and immediate reply. The warm weather was approaching and they were determined not to struggle through another summer without the relief of an eight-hour day and a full-fifteen-minute period of rest on company's time, in every four hours of work.

We know comparatively little of the effect on health of work as a telephone operator. But it was discussed in the Canadian Royal Commission's report on the Toronto strike. The physicians who testified before that commission emphasized the need of data on the subject. "In no other calling," the commission says, "than that of telephone operating are the senses of hearing, speech and sight called to be so constantly on the alert." Toronto physicians stated that five hours a day divided into two equal periods were as much as telephone operators should work, so nerve racking is the occupation and so menacing is it to the well-being of the children of these potential mothers.

It has been said that Toronto conditions were exceptional, that when the Toronto exchanges were on a five-hour schedule for operators' work, the number of calls per hour which each operator had to handle was exactly twice the number per hour handled by a Boston operator. Toronto is reported to have gone back to an eight-hour schedule. Consequently some contend that the Canadian Royal Commission's report is not of much significance for present conditions in the industry.

The New England company takes pride in its equipment for caring for the comfort of its operators. It employs a woman physician for them and the rest rooms in some of the exchanges are models. But like many other beneficiaries of "welfare work," the girls tell you that they prefer less welfare and more wages and more chance for the normal recuperation of youth.

When there seemed to be a possibility of a strike, the company agreed to put the eight-hour day into effect on July 15, 1912; operators in the employ of the company eighteen months or longer were to be exempt from "split hours" and certain minor concessions were made.

President Keller, who made this agreement, retired from office later in the year and he was succeeded by President Spaulding. To their dismay the girls found that the new regulations were not being enforced. Late in the winter they again drew up their grievances, this time with the greatest care. They submitted them to eminent counsel before they were sent to the new president. They asked for a reply on or before March 31, 1913. In response, notices were posted in the exchanges that any employe wishing to submit a grievance must use the regular channels. The girls felt that not only was there no prospect of further gains, but what had been won was in danger of being lost.

On March 31, with most of its memberships on record, the union voted 100 to 1 to authorize a strike if negotiations with the company failed. All day long girls flocked to the Women's Trade Union League from outlying exchanges to vote. There had been one interview with President Spaulding, unsatisfactory the girls felt, because little attention seemed to have been given to the formal statement of grievances, and no promise was given as to when an answer would be forthcoming. The girls' representatives came away from it convinced that there would be no yielding to their demands without a demonstration of their strength. They appealed to the labor unions, to the league, to the Chamber of Commerce, to the mayor. He in turn appealed to the State Board of Arbitration to take a hand in averting a strike. Pressure was brought to bear upon the company from one quarter and another of the anxious business world to the end that on April 1 (Tuesday) the attorney for the company appeared before the State Board of Arbitration and with the representative of the union agreed to a truce until three o'clock of the next day (Wednesday) when a reply to the demands was promised.

At this point arose a controversy which is still unsettled. By the truce the girls thought that they had agreed to stay at work and that on its side the company had agreed not to bring in strike breakers. But the company began at once to bring girls from all over the country to take the places of the Boston operators. Former employes had been canvassed and a few recruits were secured. But by Wednesday 1,200 girls were on hand from points as distant as Chicago and other middle-western cities, from Maine, and from country districts. Doubtless to most of them their coming seemed a junket for which the company paid. Some of them probably accepted the interpretation which the writer heard given in the exchange of a small Massachusetts city where the chief operator informed the girls under her charge that they would not be strike breakers merely by going into Boston, since they were already on the company's pay rolls.

Three hundred and eighteen girls came in at the Back Bay Station on a special train from New York and Philadelphia. Guarded by detectives and company men, they were marched two by two to the Copley Plaza, the most expensive of Boston hotels. A little line of union pickets met them and a noticeable chill fell on the gaily marching crowd as they were forced to contemplate the splendor of their quarters and the tense faces of the union girls.

The union's officers, fearful lest the girls in

the exchanges on hearing of the arrival of this army and believing it to be in violation of the truce agreement would leave their desks, passed the word to stick no matter what happened—to keep their promise at all cost. And they stuck. A curious situation presented itself. Two thousand, two hundred girls at work and 1,200 kept in hotels waiting for them to stop work. The feeling among the leaders was that the company at this time wished to provoke a strike. If this was so, it failed.

Taxicabs by the hundreds were engaged to transport the imported operators in case of a strike, vaudeville entertainments were provided for them, they were given the best of living. But their reception by the working people they came in contact with was not so happy. The waiters were ready to refuse to serve their meals, taxicab drivers offered to refuse to transport them, engineers and firemen offered to help in ostracizing them.

The girls' union, through the district council of Electrical Workers of which they are members, asked for a legislative investigation and the machinery for it was set in motion. The general public did not take kindly to the picture of a great corporation declaring it could not afford to raise the wages of girl employes earning from $6 to $12 a week and yet pouring out the stockholders' money on the most luxurious hotels. Six thousand dollars was paid out for the New York and Philadelphia girls alone. It is said that bellboys in one hotel received $400 in tips. What it cost to bring 1,200 girls from points as distant as Chicago, keep them in expensive quarters, employ taxicabs for days for them, pay them gratuities for doing nothing (the Boston operatives were earning their wages as usual), to say nothing of such incidentals as sight-seeing autos, vaudeville entertainments, etc., must be a matter of interest to stockholders.

As the time approached when the company's reply to the girls' demands was due, public interest grew keen. Legislators promised their efforts to assure a legislative investigation, and steps were also being taken to secure one by the Department of Labor at Washington. The unions feel, and it was also asserted repeatedly in the newspapers, that the possibility of public intervention and investigation through the public's own machinery, was a big factor in bringing the company to terms.

The committee appointed by the Chamber of Commerce to help in settling the controversy invited company men and union girls to dine with its members to discuss terms of settlement. As time passed the representatives of the company were brought to agree to the abolition of the compulsory "split trick" and the establishment of an adjustment board and they proposed a scheme whereby a bonus of $25 was to be paid each operator at the end of her third year of service, the amount to be increased for each additional year of service until it reached $100 in the tenth year. The girls objected to this. They asked for increased pay in their weekly envelopes; that the maximum for an operator be increased from $10 to $12, but they agreed to refer this with the other terms to the union. When the union met it promptly rejected the bonus scheme and referred the question of wage to the newly established adjustment board.

There was consternation among the peacemakers when it was found that the union had rejected part of the proposed settlement, but the union is a democratic body and holds that those who are to abide by an agreement must ratify it.

However, the company rose to the occasion. It had protested that the girls' demands were preposterous and that it could not afford to increase their wages, but one morning there was posted in the exchanges the following notice:

NEW ENGLAND TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY

TRAFFIC DEPARTMENT

SCHEDULE OF WEEKLY WAGES AND WORKING CONDITIONS

METROPOLITAN DISTRICT

EFFECTIVE JUNE 1, 1913

Operators will be paid weekly wages as follows:

During the training period	$5.00
On assignment as operator	6.00
At the end of 3 months from date of entering school	6.50
" " " " 6 " " " " " "	7.00
" " " " 9 " " " " " "	7.50
" " " " 1 year " " " " "	8.00
" " " " 1½ " " " " " "	9.00
" " " " 2½ " " " " " "	10.00
" " " " 4 " " " " " "	11.00
" " " " 6 " " " " " "	12.00

These rates of pay apply to operators on day positions.

Operators on afternoon-evening work, and on "divided hour" work will work one hour per day less, and receive one dollar per week more than day operators of corresponding rank.

Operators on night work will receive $2.00 per week more than day operators of corresponding rank.

A year ago the group of unorganized girls who appealed to the Woman's Trade Union League were with difficulty prevented from starting a strike without notice and without an attempt at settlement. This year 2,200 girls through their union have considered and submitted demands to the telephone company for its consideration, have upheld these demands in conference with the most skilful opponents, have learned how to win public support and have materially improved their own conditions. The resourcefulness, as well as the character, they have displayed can but be reassuring to those who anxiously contemplate the spectacle of the ever-increasing army of young girls entering industrial life.

ACCIDENT COMPENSATION FOR FEDERAL EMPLOYES

I. M. RUBINOW

THERE is a widespread belief, which has a tenacious hold on the American mind, that the large army of workers in the employ of the United States government is in a privileged economic condition. This myth, like most other myths, is based upon some facts of dark antiquity. A study of actual present-day conditions will convince any unprejudiced observer that in many respects the federal employe is at a great disadvantage as compared with the employes of many large corporations. Federal salaries have not been radically revised for over fifty years, and as a rule are lower and the chances for advancement from the ranks much more limited than in other fields. While many large corporations have established comprehensive pension and insurance funds, no provision for the superannuation of its employes has as yet been made by the national government.

The economic and social value of the welfare work of large corporations need not be exaggerated, but it is a sad fact that the federal government has done less of it (outside the Isthmian Canal) than many of the soulless corporations. And—lest we forget it—the right to strike is practically denied.

Now this is not at all a brief for the soulless corporations. But it is intended to destroy the complacent boast that "Uncle Sam is a good employer." It is time for the American people to recognize that it is their duty to treat their employes at least as well as private employers are forced to treat theirs, a thing contrary to their present custom.

This is undoubtedly a serious charge. But the official report before me[1] contains voluminous evidence to support it. It deals with one specific problem—that of compensation for industrial accidents, but it is a problem to which a good deal of public attention is given at present, and this makes the material doubly interesting and convincing.

The Act of 1908

Until about five years ago, when the act of May 30, 1908, the first American compensation act, was passed, the government employe had absolutely no redress in case of injury, no matter how serious. The movement of two decades for more stringent employers' liability laws had brought him no relief, for he could not sue his employer. With the passage of the act of 1908, however, the federal employe was made the first beneficiary of the compensation movement.

In the five years which followed, a tremendous change took place throughout the country. Some twenty-five states have already adopted either accident compensation or insurance laws of various types, and in the other half of the country similar legislation is a matter of the near future. One does not need to grow too enthusiastic about the acts already passed. Through its Social Insurance Committee the American Association for Labor Legislation has already characterized most of them as "utterly inadequate." Not a single one comes anywhere near being a "model" act, or doing full justice to the victim of industrial accidents, or even approaches the more thorough European acts of Germany, Austria, Hungary, France, or even Russia.

The significant fact is this: The treatment accorded by the people of the United States to its 400,000 employes in case of industrial injury is much worse than the standard which the same people, through its state legislatures, has established for private employers in relation to their employes.

Having made this charge, let us proceed to prove it by means of official figures.

Accidents among Government Employes

One is inclined to think of the government employe primarily as a man driving a fountain pen, or a woman punching a typewriter. As a matter of fact, within less than three years[1] 21,033 industrial accidents were reported in the government service. Nor are the reports at all complete. For the first eleven months the number reported was 4,887, during the third year, 9,159; and the reporting system is still admittedly imperfect. An estimate of 10,000 accidents per annum is therefore rather conservative. Six hundred and seventy accidents resulted fatally in three years. Many must have led to serious permanent disability. What did the people of the United States do for these 20,000 persons killed or impaired in the performance of their duty?

Six Thousand Accidents Uncompensated

To begin with, it left over 6,000 cases altogether uncompensated. The federal compensation law is hedged in with so many limitations that, according to the estimate of the official report, less than 85,000 employes were covered by its provisions. To these must be added some 15,000 persons in the railway mail service and life-saving service, for which separate provision has existed for many years, thus giving a total of some 100,000. Recent extensions of the act, made subsequent to the period covered in the report, may have added some 20,000, but with all that, only 30% of the government employes are within the law.

It is true that most of the hazardous employments—the construction of the Panama Canal, the navy yards, arsenals, constructive and reclamation work—are protected. But, to mention only one important exception, there is the mail delivery, both rural and city. Within three years 17 fatalities and 124 injuries have occurred in the rural mail delivery; 8 fatalities and 445 in-

[1]Compensation for injuries to employes of the United States arising out of accidents occurring between August 1, 1908, and January 30, 1911. Report of operations under the act of May 30, 1908. Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D. C., 1913.

[1]The report covers a period of thirty-five months, August 1, 1908-June 30, 1911.

juries in the city delivery service, a total of 25 fatal and 569 non-fatal accidents, not one of which received a cent of compensation, and this in the face of a triumphant national compensation movement.

A curious fact is brought out by the statistical report which the future student of American "social history" will have some difficulty in explaining. On the Isthmian Canal work, 10,716 accidents occurred during the period reported. Of these 9,696, or 90 per cent were compensated. Among the regular employes of the national government, there were 9,317 accidents; of these 4,147, or less than 45% received compensation. The temporary employes of the canal are thus treated with a great deal more justice. A special amendment has authorized compensation for minor accidents, causing disability of less than fifteen days, in case of the Isthmian employes.

But the 6,000 and odd injuries remaining not compensated are not all such minor injuries excluded under this rule. Among these uncompensated injuries there were:

Fatalities	390
Loss of arm	6
Loss of hand	5
Loss of fingers	138
Loss of leg	35
Loss of foot	5
Loss of eye	18
Fracture of arm	109
" " hand	49
" " fingers	273
" " leg	186
" " foot	219
" " ribs	151

Here are nearly 1,600 serious injuries, 390 of them fatal, 207 of them leading to serious dismemberment, and nearly a thousand fractures, without a cent of compensation!

Rejected Claims

In most of these cases, the injured employes or their dependents, aware of the fact that they were outside of the sphere of the law, did not make any claims. But in other cases claims were made, and 467 were disallowed during the three years. The legal administration of the act was in the hands of Charles Earl, solicitor of the department, who was in entire sympathy with the purpose of the law and fully conscious of its shortcomings. A fairer construction of the act could not be desired. Nevertheless, in 467 cases the claims had to be rejected. In 107 cases the occupation was not covered by the act, in 16 cases the parents were not dependent (though there might have been other dependent relatives such as brothers and sisters, whose rights are not recognized by the law). In 38 cases the disability did not exceed fifteen days—in some cases it was exactly fifteen days, of the writer's own knowledge.

In 65 cases compensation was denied because the accident was due to the negligence or misconduct of the injured employe. Nine of these cases resulted fatally and the injured employe was not there to disprove his negligence.

The abolition of all altercations as to fault or responsibility is the essential underlying principle of compensation laws. But a provision excluding accidents due to the employe's own negligence is still in the federal employes's compensation act. As a result, nine widows with families were deprived of any compensation for the loss of their bread-winners. What gross injustice may be caused by this negligence may be illustrated by one striking case which the writer of these lines had investigated personally during his connection with the administration of the law. A specific charge of negligence on two points was made, and the victim having died as a result of being drenched by sulphuric acid, could not establish his innocence. A widow and a little girl were therefore to be deprived of their compensation for the loss of husband and father. When, however, a thorough investigation of the facts was undertaken, it became quite clear not only that there was absolutely no evidence to support the charge, but that the machinery was defective, and that the entire operation was unnecessarily hazardous, and in fact was radically changed between the time of the accident and investigation. In a civil suit for negligence a verdict of $10,000 or $20,000 might have been obtained. Here the payment of one year's wages as compensation was resisted by the superintendent of the plant.

Ninety Days' Limit Outrage

The most glaring injustice perpetrated in the name of law still remains to be told. The act was drawn with such flagrant ignorance and disregard of actual conditions, that an iron-clad ninety days' limit was made for presentation of claims in case of fatal accidents, while in all other accidents claims may be made within any reasonable time. For this reason alone, 22 claims of dependents had to be disallowed, and 22 families deprived of compensation due them, because of non-compliance with a senseless formality. Extraordinary precautions are necessary at present on the part of the Isthmian Canal Commission to prevent the recurrence of such cases.

The Compensation Scale

So much for injuries remaining uncompensated for one reason or another. Scarcely more satisfactory is the treatment accorded cases where compensation is due. When an injury does not exceed fifteen days in duration, except in the Canal Zone, no compensation is paid. As nearly 55 per cent of all the accidents do not last over 15 days, that rule alone deprives that proportion of all compensation.

But if the injury has extended into the sixteenth day, Presto! There is revolution. The full time lost is compensated. The difference of half a day means two weeks of wages. Thus a direct incentive is given to exaggeration of injuries, and a demoralizing force is created. Very interesting statistical evidence of this effect is furnished by the report. The rule obtains in all establishments and services outside

the Canal Zone. In the latter all accidents are compensated. Watch the result:

Injuries Leading to Disability of	Isthmian Canal zone	Per Cent.	All other services and Establishments.	Per Cent.
7 days or under.	2,674	51.0	993	26.3
8-15 days	1,147	21.9	491	13.0
15-21 "	364	7.0	584	15.5
21-28 "	267	5.1	472	12.5
Over 28 days....	779	14.9	1,232	32.7
	5,237	100.0	3,772	100.0

On the Canal Zone there are only one-third as many injuries lasting over from 15 to 21 days, than from 8 to 15 days. In the permanent service there are actually more injuries of just over 15 days duration than of 8 to 15 days, which is also against all European accident experience.

Aside from this exception, the treatment of temporary disabilities is liberal, as full wages are granted up to one year's time. No incentive is thus created for return to work, and when in addition, sick benefits are obtained from private organizations or insurance companies, an actual premium upon malingering is granted!

On the other hand, after the expiration of one year all benefit stops, no matter what the injury. It may be a lingering disease, it may be a disability of the gravest nature and absolutely permanent—the injured wage-worker receives not a cent after the expiration of the first year. If the workingman has been killed, the same iron-clad limit of one year's wages applies. And if the injured workman dies, not immediately, but after a long period of suffering, then the payments made to him before death, are discounted from the death benefit, which is one year's wages.

Value of Limb and Life

A few gruesome figures will illustrate the results. Altogether 280 fatal accidents were compensated. During the first year the average amount of compensation was $704.48; during the second year it fell to $633.15, and during the third year to $595.93. Less than $600 for a life, or to put it differently, for the support of a wife and children. The small average is partly due to the low level of wages among the laborers of the Canal Zone, where the average death compensation for the third year was only $515. But even outside of the Canal Zone, the average was under $700. As the average number of survivors in these cases was two, $350 was about the average grant per person for the loss of a bread-winner.

As the compensation for a fatal accident is equal to one year's wages, these figures throw an interesting sidelight upon the average earnings of the employes of the national government. Even outside the Canal Zone, where cheap West Indian labor is employed, 18 per cent of all injured employes were receiving under $600; 47 per cent under $800; 63 per cent under $1,000 a year; and 85 per cent under $1,200.

Such is the economic status of the employes whose dependents are left practically without any support after a fatal accident.

As to serious, permanent, disabling and dismembering accidents, here is the average valuation placed by the national government upon the necessary parts of the human anatomy:

Loss of		Average Compensation
an arm.....	14 Cases	$498.94
" " hand	8 "	215.84
" " one leg	440 "	507.20
" " both legs	77 "	410.97
" " one eye	29 "	415.11

Rather a cheap schedule of prices, one must agree. But then these are averages. In individual cases much less was paid. During the first year $73.50 was paid for the loss of a hand, and $300.25 for the loss of an arm, and $25.00 for the loss of an eye. During the second year the price of a leg in one case was $162.76 and for an eye about $30 was paid. During the third year $191.52 was paid for the loss of an arm, and $192.15 for the loss of a hand.

The scale of compensation of the New Jersey act is probably one of the lowest among the American acts, and yet, even under the New Jersey act, an eye is compensated from $500 to $1,000, a hand from $740 to $1,500, a leg from $875 to $1,750 and an arm from $1,000 to $2,000, and this in addition to benefits during treatment and cost of medical aid.

Efforts at Reform Thwarted

It may be said in defense of the act that it was adopted early in the progress of the compensation movement, when the people as whole were not ready to go as far as they are now. One may even agree with the statement of the acting commissioner of labor that the act, "despite its incompleteness, has been one of great benefit to a very considerable number of injured employes and their dependents."

The crucial question remains: Why was not the act amended during all these five weary years?

The state compensation acts were adopted in 1911 and 1912, and yet a large proportion of them have already been rewritten or amended this year. This happened in Ohio, California, Wisconsin, New Jersey, Illinois. The faults of the federal acts were so glaring that it was not necessary to accumulate five years' experience before making an effort at amending the act.

There is an important lesson in practical legislation—not to be too hasty in agreeing upon a weak, denatured act in the hope of amending it in the near future. For it is almost impossible to work up the same enthusiasm for the revision of an act, and hasty legislation may prove more of an obstacle than a help.

As a matter of fact, a few efforts were made at radical reform. As early as the spring of 1910, when the act had been in force only about eighteen months, so many difficulties arose with the administration of its indefinite provisions that a conference of representatives of all the executive departments was held in the Department of Commerce and Labor at the invitation of the secretary. It was the writer's privilege to participate in that conference, and to act as its chairman during its three weeks of sessions. Its members were representatives of all branches of the government service, mostly people without

any direct contact with modern problems or relation between employer and employe. Remember also that it was before the actual era of American compensation had begun (the New York law did not pass until three months later). Compensation without any regard to negligence appalled as a fad imported from Europe. But three weeks' study of the problem caused a change wonderful to observe. Called together primarily to consider questions of administration, the conference refused to abide by these limits, and it concluded its deliberations by adopting about a dozen recommendations for necessary changes in the act, such as extending it to all wage-workers in the government employ, cutting the waiting period down to three days, increasing the scale of benefits substantially, recognizing permanent disability, introducing obligatory medical and surgical aid, and providing for accident prevention.

As a result of this conference some twenty men went back to their respective departments and bureaus convinced enthusiasts of compensation. The work had its wider effects, for in almost all departments the suggestions for amendment met with enthusiastic support. The significance of the movement was really much greater than the limits of government service would indicate, for the adoption of these suggestions at the time would have materially influenced all compensation legislation by the states.

But what became of the movement? Who has heard of the conference? You might find references to it in a few government reports, if you knew exactly where to look for them. But the movement itself was asphyxiated in the very department and bureau which at the time was making an encyclopedic study of similar legislation in Europe. Though the conference was held in the Bureau of Labor, that bureau did nothing to help the movement along. And even the new set of administrative regulations which the conference prepared was not issued by the department until two years later.

The Kern Bill

It is quite evident that the situation cannot remain as it is. Not only are the interests of 400,000 men and women at stake, not only is it a glaring injustice that a government employe in a Boston navy yard should in case of industrial injury receive worse treatment than an employe of a rapacious shoe machinery trust in the same state, but the United States government cannot be permitted to remain a dead weight upon the American movement for better labor laws.

I hope the facts and figures above recited prove conclusively enough that mere amendments of the act cannot accomplish the necessary results. An entirely new act is absolutely necessary. Very recently, a bill was introduced in the Senate by Senator Kern, which as yet represents the most advanced work in compensation legislation in this country.

While introduced in the Senate by the Democratic leader, it in no sense represents a party measure. The bill was prepared by the American Association for Labor Legislation and represents many months of work of a committee of expert bill drafters, thorough students of compensation problems, and people with actual experience in the federal service and the administration of the present law.

It establishes what at present may be considered model provisions of compensation, not only for industrial accidents, but also occupational diseases—a problem of scarcely less magnitude, as recent investigations have conclusively shown.

(1) The proposed act applies to all the employes in the United States Civil Service (with the exception of the Isthmian Canal, where conditions are temporary and peculiar) for no sound argument can be made for any exceptions.

(2) It applies to occupational diseases as well as accidents. An injury is an injury, whether produced by a piece of machinery or the insidious effect of lead, brass or arsenic poisoning. Some of the most difficult problems the department had to solve in the administration of the present law, concern the distinction between an occupational accident and an occupational disease.[1]

(3) Medical and surgical aid and necessary surgical supplies shall be furnished by the government to the injured. Not only is the cost of such aid and surgical supplies an important part of the economic problems created, but the proper treatment of all injuries is a money saver in preventing numerous complications and aggravations of the harm done.

(4) The basis of the compensation scale is two-thirds of wages instead of full wages as now paid. Some incentive must be given for return to work within reasonable time. Moreover, the grant of medical aid makes the reduction of the scale of benefits for the minor injuries smaller than it would appear at first glance. But on the other hand—

(5) Compensation begins on the fourth day, and only injuries lasting less than three days are left without compensation. That is the modern tendency in all European compensation laws. Of all the important countries of Europe, Great Britain is the only one which excludes accidents under fifteen days; and there is very little justification for such a measure.

(6) Compensation lasts as long as disability lasts, instead of stopping at the expiration of one year. Continuous weekly benefits in case of permanent injuries are the prevailing method in Europe. Our American state laws, in order to reduce the cost of compensation, have limited it to six, eight or ten years; the injustice of discontinuing the compensation of an invalid at an advanced age is gradually becoming evident, and in the very recent acts (as for instance, that of California), permanent pensions for serious injuries have been introduced.

(7) In cases of partial disability (as manifested in reduction of earning capacity) two-

[1]See THE SURVEY of April 5, 1913, p. 15.

thirds of the loss in earning power is given. Beginning with New Jersey, a number of American states have established definite benefits for specific injuries. For instance, for the loss of an arm, 50 per cent of wages for 200 weeks (or from $1,000 to $2,000); for a hand the same benefit for 150 weeks, down to fifteen weeks only for the little finger. This system looks attractive because of its definiteness and simplicity. But the experts who drew the bill rejected this plan as altogether incapable of doing justice to the injured. For it must be quite evident even to the tyro, that the financial value of every definite member depends upon the injured person's occupation. A loss of a leg and a loss of an index are injuries of very different significance to a jeweler and to a longshoreman.

(8) In case of fatal injuries, the compensation is adjusted to the number of dependent survivors, with the same maximum limit of two-thirds of the wages, and a graduated scale is provided for the widow, children, etc.

(9) The rights of dependent brothers and sisters, and those of dependent grandparents are also recognized.

(10) To the widow compensation is made payable until death or remarriage, and to the children until the age of eighteen. That the present treatment of the widow and children under the act of 1908 is preposterous needs no further proof. But none of the American acts, which limit the compensation to six or eight years, do justice to the surviving family of the killed worker. Such compensation simply postpones but does not remove the economic distress. The added six or eight years but further disqualify the woman from opportunity to earn a living, and little children should not be deprived of their only means of support by the time they reach the grammar school.

(11) In computing compensation, earnings over $100 a month must be disregarded. Earnings of over that amount place the employe in a class where some voluntary provision is possible in addition to the benefit granted. On the other hand, the minimum monthly benefit for total disability is placed at $33.33 or nearly $8 a week, as against the $4 or $5 limit in most state laws. No one has as yet succeeded in proving that it is possible to support a family on $5 in New Jersey or on $4 in Massachusetts.

(12) Assuming that prevention of accidents and diseases of occupation is at least as important as their compensation, proper measures are prescribed for careful study of their causes, with the view of finding and prescribing methods of prevention.

(13) For the proper administration of the act, now located in one little obscure corner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, a special administrative body is created.

(14) A general fund is created for the payment of compensation, which is now charged to the appropriations of the various bureaus, often interfering with the regular expenditures, and thus creating a force for discouraging legitimate claims.

Parsimonious statesmen may bring the charge of extravagance against this bill. A just compensation system must cost more than the one that goes by that name now. Yet the cost is not such as to ruin the finances of a government with a budget of over $1,000,000,000 annually. The payments under the act for all accidents which occurred during the fiscal year 1910-11 were $380,330. Adding the expenses under the special compensation systems, the total cost was $528,595, of which $216,489 was paid to Isthmian Canal Zone employes, and $302,106 to all others. The canal is a temporary undertaking, rapidly drawing to a close. It has been estimated by competent experts that during the first year the new system would require about $500,000; that after a few years, this may rise to $1,000,000, or three times as much as the present cost.

Now, a million dollars is a good bit of money, to be sure. But all American industry at present pays from 75 cents to $1 on the $100 of wages, for employers' liability insurance, and in the compensation states perhaps twice that amount. Uncle Sam has a pay roll of perhaps $500,000,000. A million dollars is only 20 cents on $100 of the pay roll. Can it be that the burden which is considered just for private industry is too heavy for Uncle Sam to carry?

BUREAU OF MINES AND A NEW PROBLEM

The United States Bureau of Mines, since its organization in 1908, has worked energetically and effectively toward the improvement of conditions inside the mines. It has assisted mining companies in the organization of safety work; it has studied the causes of accidents and introduced remedies for some of the most dangerous conditions, such as the establishment of a list of permissible explosives and proving the explosibility of coal dust; and it has, through bulletins, conference and demonstration, spread the idea of safety among operators and miners.

Now it has come to the conclusion that conditions outside the mine concern the safety of the miner no less than those below ground. Shooting off the solid may be no more hazardous than drinking polluted water. Insufficient timbering will lead to a swifter death, but it may be no more certain than insufficient drainage.

Accordingly the bureau has organized what is to be known as the mine sanitation section. The engineer in charge of this new section is J. H. White, who for nearly two years was sanitary engineer of the Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company at Birmingham. Mr. White planned and supervised the installation of the sanitary improvements in the camps of the Tennessee Company that have been a prominent feature of the administration of President George Gordon Crawford.

In a statement issued by the Bureau of Mines the following summary is made of what is hoped to be accomplished:

The bureau hopes to bring about progress by

appealing to the miner, the manager, and the owner, showing that all three can assist, and how all three can be benefited by good sanitary conditions. It will reach the miner by means of illustrated lectures, moving-picture exhibits and pictorial circulars. These will show how sickness and suffering are spread by careless habits, and will drive home the importance of personal and household cleanliness. The bureau will assist the managers by pointing out glaring sanitary menaces and showing methods and costs of abatement. It will describe in bulletins common unsanitary practices and show the evils which follow in their wake. It will submit sanitary rules and regulations and show the best methods for their enforcement.

In the same statement Engineer White, who is to direct the new work, outlines some of its phases as follows: "The mining town does not grow but is built at a single stroke. The effect of this is that the valuable lessons learned by the 'try-out' method and the profit gained by previous mistakes do not exert their powerful influence, so that the errors existing in one house exist in all.

"One of the first investigations which the bureau intends to take up is the house problem with a view of putting before the miners the best practices and the ones which have stood the tests of time.

"The necessity and importance of a satisfactory water supply for the people who were to get out the coal was probably not given much consideration in the past.

"In a limestone region pollution of the water may come from miles away which makes the potential danger of the well very great. This may involve the distribution of drinking water in bottles throughout the town, the well water being used for cooking and washing purposes only.

"The inconveniences due to the difficulty of getting water from the wells may be eliminated by establishing bath houses at the mine shaft so that the men may wash upon coming out of the mine. These bath and change houses are being widely introduced; in a few states they are required by law. A public laundry is a great convenience for the women; lugging in several tubs of water, preliminary to doing a week's washing is a severe burden. Bath houses in or near the schools for the women and children are almost necessary accessories to the perfect well system. Wholesome and safe drinking water is essential to existence; its supply is one of the gravest responsibilities accompanying company ownership.

"There are few mining towns with sanitary sewer systems. Such a system presupposes a public water supply for flushing purposes. The approximate location of a mining town is determined by the mine shaft and the topography must be accepted as it is. This is generally rough and hilly and a single gravity system of sewers is next to impossible as the cost of levelling off the hills and grading the streets is prohibitive. Moreover, a suitable stream to take the discharge of the sewers might not be near at hand; and the necessity of installing a sewage disposal plant looms up.

"Mining towns possess many advantages, but the drawback lies in the fact that the initiative in maintaining sanitary and clean conditions throughout the mining town rests entirely with the operator. Indifference on his part may give rise to deplorable unsanitary conditions. The residents have no official voice in the government of the town and unofficial aggressiveness is seldom exerted because the total absence of property rights breeds irresponsibility and carelessness. Many of them are blissfully ignorant of the dangers of unsanitary surroundings, and when they protest it is the inconveniences rather than the dangers that bestir them."

STATE COMPENSATION REPORTS

The effective agitation for compensation legislation in the United States is now about five years old. Twenty states or more have abandoned the old liability system in favor of a system which promised, as far as *a priori* reasoning and the experience of foreign countries could show, to be more nearly just both to the injured worker and to the public. Eleven states have had a year or more of practical experience under compensation laws which should be of the greatest value to commissions now studying the subject in other states. And yet printed reports for the year have been published only by Maryland, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Washington and Wisconsin, and most of these are meager and inadequate. Most significant is the elaborate Washington report which, brought up to date of May 1, was reviewed in THE SURVEY of June 21.

The New Jersey report for the year ending October, 1911, is also fairly adequate, though there are points in which fuller information would have been valuable. It shows 6,635 accidents reported of which 193 were fatal, four were total permanent disabilities, 384 represented permanent partial disabilities, 4,336 were temporary disabilities, of which 2,365 were trivial. The average cost for medical aid was $21.17. Two thousand and three cases were entitled to compensation, but 7.2 per cent of these did not receive compensation, 19.3 per cent received "irregular or faulty compensation" and 14 per cent did not receive necessary medical aid. As 92.8 per cent of all those entitled did receive some compensation, however, the commissioners feel that this is a distinct gain on the old liability system under which only 20 per cent, roughly, received any damages for injuries. The reasons why compensation was not received in some cases are not given, but only one case was due to employer's insolvency, a question which is now agitating those interested in compensation.

Seventy-eight of the 91 fatal New Jersey cases involving dependents, received compensation. Calculations based on twenty-seven cases showed an average weekly benefit of $6.97 for an average number of three dependents. In 86 per cent of the cases leaving no dependents, funeral

expenses were paid. Figures are not given for benefits paid in other than fatal cases. With the exception of the New Jersey Central, none of the forty railroad companies operating in the state elected to come under the act. Beyond this statement in regard to the railroads, the report gives no clue to the proportion of all employers in the state who have elected to come under the law.

NEW COMPENSATION LEGISLATION

The recent sessions of the Legislatures of Iowa, Nebraska, Connecticut, Minnesota and Texas added to the number of states having compensation laws. Wisconsin and Illinois have amended the laws they passed within the last two years.

Nothing can be said of the Wisconsin amendments since they have not yet been printed for public distribution. Amendments to the Illinois law extend its provisions to cover not merely hazardous but all employments, though employers in non-hazardous employments not accepting the laws do not lose their common law defences. Acceptance involves the waiving of the right to sue.

The conditions of dependency are defined and rates of benefit are somewhat changed. Hospital benefit is set at a maximum of $200 during an eight weeks' limit, the period of notice of injury is limited to thirty days and safeguards are set around benefits in case of employer's insolvency. Finally an industrial board of three is appointed to administer the act which has the functions, in connection with industrial accidents, both of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and of an arbitration board.

No copy of the new Texas law has as yet been received. The other four new laws show a great uniformity, all being of the pseudo-elective form, with presumption of election assumed in default of written rejection; all provide low benefit rates, 50 per cent of wages or wage loss, and all provide that contracts with insurance companies shall hold these companies responsible for payments of benefit in spite of the employers' bankruptcy, though the terms of the Nebraska act do not appear to make insurance or some form of security, on the part of the employer, obligatory.

The Connecticut law excludes no group but casual laborers; the other three exclude also domestic and farm servants. All have some provision for medical benefit and no benefits are to be paid till two weeks have elapsed. Minnesota allows the generous maximum period of three months during which notice of injury must be given by the employe. In this law also non-resident aliens are specifically included—to be compensated on the same terms as residents.

The Connecticut and Iowa laws provide special administrative bodies. In Iowa an industrial commissioner appointed by the governor for a term of six years will administer the act, and fix standards of safety. In cases of dispute he will appoint an arbitration committee, with himself as chairman. In Connecticut five commissioners will act as administrators and arbitrators.

ENGINEERING A DRINK OF WATER

It costs about $1.82 for each employe per year to maintain a pure drinking water system at the Continental Works of the National Tube Company in Pittsburgh. Max Rosenkranz, chief engineer of the plant, describes the system in the *Monthly Bulletin* of the American Iron and Steel Institute for June:

The refrigerating plant consists of an ammonia compressor, condenser coils and tank similar to those used in ice plants, and if used for making ice would have a capacity of ten tons per twenty-four hours.

Water from the municipal filtration plant is first passed through two filters containing charcoal and gravel, flowing to a cooling tank where by contact with ammonia coils it is cooled to the desired temperature, which is about 45 degrees in summer and 52 degrees in winter. A pump then forces it through three circulating pipe lines, leading to all parts of the mills and back to the cooling tank.

The lines are of galvanized wrought steel pipe insulated with pressed cork covering, 1½ inches thick, and with specially moulded cork covers over the fittings. The temperature of the returning water is about seven degrees higher after circulating through an overhead line 1,500 feet long. At each fountain the line forms a U, dropping to the faucet and rising again, leaving no dead ends where water can stand. Consequently the first gush from a fountain, when opened, is fresh and of the proper temperature.

Strictly sanitary fountains are used exclusively. They consist of 4-inch steel pipe with white enameled iron bell holding the supply nozzle, which is set low so that the lips cannot touch it. The waste water flows down the pipe through a trap to the sewer. The fountains are located in the most accessible and least dangerous places, within easy reach of the men.

The number of fountains to employes averages one to every thirty men. The amount of water consumed per man, including the waste, varies; about one-half as much being used in winter as in summer. The records show an average for the month of August (1912) of nearly two and one-quarter gallons per man for a working day of ten hours.

LABOR UNIONS AND THE LAW

Since the jury in the case of the Philadelphia Cordwainers in 1809 rendered the verdict—"We find the defendants guilty of a combination to raise their wages"—there has been no time when the legal status of unionism in some of its phases has not been in question. In the seventies and early eighties the unionists, apparently feeling the lack of any legal recognition of their right of association, endeavored to secure from the Legislatures of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts and finally from Congress the right to incorporate. Topsy-turvy as it sounds in these modern days, the employers of that time resisted these efforts tooth and nail.

Picketting, boycotts, and contempt cases growing out of alleged violation of injunctions have occupied the attention of the courts more recently. The right to form unions and to strike has been established, but in the last few years there have been cases that had the flavor of the early conspiracy prosecutions—cases brought under the Sherman anti-trust law of 1890.

Soon after the passage of this act it was declared by a court to apply to combinations of labor no less than of capital. In 1894 the law was cited against the railway strikers who were acting in sympathy with the disaffected Pullman employes.

The most prominent case is that of the Danbury hatters. This case has been in litigation since 1902, and only last year a federal court assessed heavy damages against members of the hatters' union in accordance with the terms of the Sherman law. Soon after this decision, suit was brought by certain coal operators in West Virginia against the United Mine Workers, asking for damages to the amount of $750,000, alleging a criminal conspiracy to injure their business. Somewhat later indictments, which have since been dismissed, were found against officials of the miners union for violation of the Sherman law.

It is against this situation that organized labor has endeavored to secure protection, first by seeking an amendment exempting labor unions from the operation of the anti-trust law. Failing in that they have worked to prevent the appropriation of money for the purpose of prosecuting labor unions. This end has at last been partly attained. The sundry civil appropriation bill, just passed by Congress and signed by the President, carries a rider declaring that no part of the money appropriated may be used in the prosecution of labor unions or farmers' organizations. An identical bill was vetoed by Mr. Taft just prior to the expiration of his term of office. President Wilson disapproved of the rider and in signing the bill stated that other appropriations would supply the department of justice "with abundant funds to enforce the law."

If this is the case, the rider would seem to be of little effect. It is hailed as a great victory, however, by unionists. Says the *Molders Journal*:

> "The action of both houses of Congress, however, is a long step in the right direction, for it clearly indicates that in the opinion of a majority of congressmen and senators, the law should not apply to trade-unions, and foreshadows the final amendment of the law. It will also have an influence upon the courts in cases where trade-unions or their officials and members are forced to defend themselves in legal proceedings brought against them under the law. The amendment of the law, however, will not be accomplished without a desperate opposition on the part of the manufacturing interests. The law as now construed by the United States Supreme Court makes every national and international union subject to punishment, fines and dissolution, and places in the employers' hands a more effective weapon against trade-unions than any other which they have secured since this country became a republic."

JOTTINGS

SOMETHING IN A NAME

"Next Week is Efficiency Week," read a large sign which was fastened one morning to each traveling crane in the plant of a middle western factory, says a recent issue of *Factory*. Production figures had for many weeks back been gradually bettering themselves and although they were in pretty good shape at the time of the posting of this notice, a special effort had been planned for the next week. But a spade may not always be called a spade in the handling of men. The word "efficiency" is formidable in the eyes of many workmen. In this case the mere mention of it was sufficient to arouse any slumbering hostility to the new methods and instead of a banner figure being reached, production fell off 25 per cent from average recent attainments.

SAFETY RESOLUTIONS

Adopted at the Detroit Convention of the National Association of Manufacturers.

WHEREAS, this association has taken an active and leading part in the nation-wide movement to minimize the number and character of work injuries and to provide just and adequate compensation for incapacitated workers and their families;

BE IT RESOLVED, that it is the sense of this association we should give renewed thought and effort to the encouragement of every rational method of lessening occupational accidents and disease;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that we urge our members in every part of the country to give their practical support to any substantially sound proposal to substitute a rational plan of workmen's compensation for existing systems of employers' liability; and

BE IT FINALLY RESOLVED, that we heartily endorse and commend the work of our Committee on Accident Prevention and Relief and recommend to the board of directors the continuation of its valued activities.

C. W. POST ON WELFARE WORK

The following is from an address given by C. W. Post, a Battle Creek health food manufacturer formerly president of the National Association of Manufacturers, at a complimentary banquet to that organization at Battle Creek, Mich., last May:

"I am not a warm advocate of a lot of foolish, misapplied, maudlin sympathy that has paraded under the name of "welfare work." We don't provide any marble bath-tubs, lecture rooms, stereopticon pictures, free libraries and reading rooms, or free lectures. All of this kind of stuff reminds me of a religious fanatic who used to go about poking his religion into everyone's

face, and talking with a mouth that looked and sounded like it was filled with mush. Any real live man would like to take a crack at it and see how much would run out.

"Those who understood workmen at all realize that first and foremost they do not want to be subjected to a lot of gifts and charities that would place them under lasting, servile obligation to the donor, their employer. Their subconscious manhood rises in revolt, and they hate to meet the boss on the street. They are embarrassed and don't feel right. The American workman wants an honest, first-class price for his labor, and then he wants to be let alone to follow his own individual ideas as to his ways of life and the use of his money. If he is badly in need of a book, there are ways that he can get one without being under obligation to the boss for it. If he wants a bath, the same thing is true.

"Pay men the highest standard wages, and they will pretty well take care of themselves, and meet the boss with a straight-up head, clear eye, and the honest respect that passes from man to man.

"The welfare work that I believe in is that which makes it possible for the man to help himself, but it does not include the holding of a milk bottle to his lips after he is weaned."

PROMOTING HEALTH IN THE FACTORY

The North Company of Worcester, Mass., has during the past year made physical examinations of all its 1,200 employes. Those suffering from any physical defect were informed of its nature and advised as to the treatment to be pursued. In some cases where the nature of the work tended to aggravate the condition a change of work was arranged. A first-class oculist was called to prescribe for all who were known to have eye troubles and who would agree to purchase glasses if necessary. The result has been the correction of many abnormal or diseased conditions before they become dangerous.

TREND

IT IS interesting to note that the western social spirit is spreading even to distant China. *The Christian Evangelist* notes the importation of hospitals and asylums by western missionaries. Of native efforts toward improvement it says:

> When the provincial legislature met in Canton the first three things considered were social. They were the abolition of the opium traffic, of foot-binding, and of the slavery of girl domestics. These paragraphs recently told of how drastically the chief of police in that city is carrying out the laws passed in regard to the last of these three reforms. We read frequently of the severity accompanying the enforcement of the opium laws, and it is said that the determination accompanying the other reform is little less marked.
>
> We are not surprised to learn that sixty per cent of the officials of this province are Christians. It was here that Morrison drove the missionary wedge into Xavier's "everlasting rock" of paganism. A young disciple, educated at the University of Missouri and the Bible College, has been made director of public welfare works for this province. It will fall to him to devise plans and institutions for charitable and all forms of relief work.

* * *

CURTAIN lectures to farmers on wasteful methods in agriculture by the masters of industry in our cities have been the order of the day for several years past. *Wallace's Farmer*, in the following editorial, tries the shoe on the other foot:

> The cities, or rather the men who do the big business of the cities—the railroads, the banks, the merchants—have been giving the farmer a great deal of advice as to how to conduct his business. They have proclaimed him a man who knows little or nothing about business methods; that he is wasteful and extravagant, a soil robber and a monopolist, and all that. They have been giving him much advice, and we have no doubt it is well meant; sometimes the advice of intelligence, sometimes the advice of ignorance.
>
> It is only fair, therefore, that the farmer should give the city man some advice. The evil of the city is congestion of population. Congestion of population means bad sanitation, poor ventilation, lack of sunlight; and this means disease and a high death-rate, particularly among children.
>
> Now, the farmer is peculiarly qualified to give advice in such matters. He has had experience, not with men, but with live stock—hogs, cattle and sheep—and he knows perfectly well that the same conditions which render stock growing unprofitable make equally unprofitable the growing of men. He knows that the disease of hog cholera, which has gone all over the United States, losing him millions every year, began in a distillery in Indiana, where it was attempted to keep large numbers of hogs together. He knows from his own experience that if he keeps more than a certain number of hogs, sheep or cattle together in the same enclosure, that they are certain to become diseased. He knows that tuberculosis in cattle is a stable or barn disease. He knows that if he increases his hogs beyond a certain limit, he has no profit. The same is true of chickens.
>
> He reasons, and reasons correctly, that the same laws that govern animal life will operate among men, and will be even more deadly in their operations.

Wallace's recommendation is to scatter the city out into the adjoining country by providing cheap railroad rates. It is from this point of view that the editorial goes on to chronicle Toronto's efforts for the relief of congestion:

As a city, Toronto buys acreage, builds houses on it and rents them at a reasonable price. The street car companies in Toronto, as in other cities, presume to say where the people shall live. Toronto buys the land, builds railroad lines to it, and sells tickets at the rate of ten cents for six rides, and the track runs as far as five miles out. It has begun in a small way, building a hundred houses of five, six and seven rooms each, with a common playground and a common heating plant. These houses are sanitary in every way, with bathroom and toilet conveniences and the city rents these houses at $3 a room. It now proposes to improve two hundred acres of land, paying $200 an acre for it, building houses on it, and renting them at $20 a month and less, with sufficient land for a good garden to go with each house. They are building their own railways; and when the charter of the present city railway company expires, they expect to connect it with theirs, and thereafter be able to determine for themselves where people shall live, and that they shall live under sanitary conditions.

JOTTINGS

CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY FOR CHILDREN

A report of the Western Reserve Child Welfare Council on work done for children in the city of Cleveland shows a lively appreciation of the responsibilities of the council. After reviewing the organizations already available and the work accomplished, a program of work for the near future is outlined which may be suggestive to other cities awakening to civic responsibility for child welfare.

The outline covers the enlargement of maternity hospital accommodations; the extension of maternity dispensary work; the securing of adequate playground facilities; the establishment of a municipal Department of Public Recreation; the building of a Babies' Hospital; the co-ordination and extension of the work for crippled children; the securing of proper institutional care for feeble-minded and functionally defective children; the establishment of a fund to be used for the boarding of certain children in families; the promotion of co-operation in the treatment of the problem of illegitimacy; the study of the influences of the street upon child life; the establishment of an agency to secure employment for dependent mothers with infants; and the securing of a temporary emergency shelter open to any child at any time.

PROBATION IN SWEDEN

Judge Harald Salomon, of Stockholm, who made an extended study of juvenile court and probation work in this country in 1906, and who later formed The Protection Society in his native city, has recently published an English translation of an article describing the methods and accomplishments of his society. The pamphlet relates principally to the investigation and probationary oversight of adult offenders. One of the most interesting features is the illustrated cases. They show that the work is being carried on in a painstaking and intelligent manner.

SOCIAL SERVICE BOOKLET

A new edition of a Brotherhood Booklet, Brotherhood in Social Service, has been issued from England, which justifies its sub-title of Suggestions for Work from the Practical Experience of Adult School and Other Social Workers, as it is full of practical suggestions, concrete examples of work accomplished, anecdotes and helpful information. It should be helpful to social workers in any community. It was compiled by W. G. Wilkins, treasurer of the National Housing and Town Planning Council, who seems to be in close touch with social activities in America, as well as having a most comprehensive and sympathetic knowledge of social work in and about his section of Derby. The booklet can be obtained for one penny and postage from the Brotherhood Publishing House, Holborn Hall, Clerkenwell Road, London, England.

NATIONAL PROBATION CONFERENCE

The program of the annual conference of the National Probation Association at Buffalo on August 26-28 includes Bernard Flexner of Louisville, Judge Harvey H. Baker of Boston, J. J. Kelso of Toronto, Mrs. Caroline B. Alexander of Hoboken and other well-known social workers. Two of the meetings will be joint sessions with the National Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children. By special arrangement those present can attend the meetings and also the entertainment features of the International Congress on School Hygiene which will be in session in Buffalo during that entire week. Programs of the probation meetings may be obtained from the Secretary, Arthur W. Towne, 105 Schermerhorn Street, Brooklyn.

PRISON FARMS FOR MICHIGAN

The violent outbreak of prisoners last year at the Jackson, Mich., state prison, gives special significance to reforms which are now under way. In answer to the request of the Board of Control of the Michigan State Prison for three new prison farms, the Legislature granted an appropriation to purchase two with a combined area of 665 acres, together with a reasonable amount for equipment. No appropriation, however, was made for a new cell block.

GEORGE JUNIOR ABROAD

England has opened the Little Commonwealth, modeled after the George Junior Republic and in charge of Harold Large who studied under "Daddy George" at Freeville. Eight republics are in operation today and two more will probably be opened in the fall.

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VOLUME XXX, No. 21 WEEK OF AUGUST 23, 1913

THE SURVEY



Chief of the "Junior Sanitary Police" in a Cleveland School District.

LIBRARY
AUG 28 1913
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

"HEAD 'EM OFF" IN SPRING
CLEVELAND'S ANTI-FLY CAMPAIGN

THE PITH OF IT

LAST week, socialists from all over the world paid tribute at the funeral of August Bebel, for almost fifty years the central figure of the Socialist movement in Germany. Herr Bebel was exponent of the revolutionary as opposed to the opportunist tactics which have in Germany, latest of European countries, begun to creep into the movement.

DID you ever hear of a "fly catechism?" It played a part in Cleveland's campaign for cleaning up stables, dump heaps and other centers of fly culture. pp. 635.

CONSTRUCTIVE program for the wider use of all public properties put forward by a New York committee. pp. 638.

CHURCH interests at the Pacific Coast conference. pp. 641.

PENNSYLVANIA and Washington have passed "lazy husband laws", the name given to some of the more recent desertion and non-support acts. Both provide not only for payment for labor during imprisonment, but for a probation system. pp. 640.

HARRY Thaw's escape from Mattewan throws into high relief the weakness of extradition procedure with respect to the criminal insane.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE
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THE COMMON WELFARE

NEW EFFORTS FOR A FLYLESS CITY

Mr. Fly, "undesirable citizen," official distributor of typhoid, cholera infantum, dysentery, tuberculosis, and spinal meningitis, is having the fight of his life in Cleveland. The city went "swat the fly" one better and carried through an early spring "head 'em off" campaign with results that may almost be designated sensational.

Cleveland has been proclaimed a "flyless city"—it is hardly that yet. But thousands of householders have found it possible to dispense entirely with screens at doors and windows and a lone fly now creates more excitement than a great swarm would have aroused a few years ago. A recent inspection of the city markets, where quantities of meat and provisions are exposed, found only two flies.

The "head 'em off" campaign was tried last year with such good effect that this year, with improved methods and a notable marshalling of forces, the war was a still greater success.

The present attitude of the community is pretty well expressed in this sentence from a letter written by Mayor Baker to the city council: "The anti-fly campaign is a movement of more far-reaching importance and more promising of prolonged life and freedom from disease than perhaps any other single activity going forward in the community." From the beginning the movement has been under the leadership of Jean Dawson, professor of civic biology at the Normal School.

The big emphasis has been on the elimination of breeding places. To be sure, hundreds of thousands of flies have been "swatted"; but countless millions have been prevented, which is better. Miss Dawson began with the claim that 90 per cent of house-flies come from unclean stables. Owners throughout the city were forced to clean up their stables and keep them clean. Public opinion focussed sentiment, the Board of Health passed rules and the "junior sanitary police" were vigilant in seeing that they were enforced.

The "junior sanitary police" are boys recruited from the sixth, seventh and eighth grades of the city schools. In each school district the force is officered by a chief, an assistant chief and four inspectors. The principal of the school appoints the entire force. Needless to say, it is considered no small honor to be appointed a member of the "junior sanitary police." The official badge is prized highly. The girls have a part, too, some of them being made "sanitary aids."

The school district is sectioned off and each member of the force made responsible for one section. He must make regular inspections. When he finds a dirty stable, a rubbish-filled back yard, a heap of fermenting lawn clippings or a leaking garbage receptacle he has, of course, no power to compel the owners to clean up; but in nine cases out of ten he can persuade them to do so. And the children are proving splendid educators. Now and then persuasion fails and the abuse is uncorrected. Then the case is referred to a boy inspector and later to the boy chief. If the courteous efforts of these high officials also prove unavailing, the report goes to the Board of Health and a threat of a suit brings the offender sharply to time. He is eventually made to realize that the alert con-





UNLOADING 200,000 FLY SWATERS FOR CLEVELAND'S EARLY SPRING CAMPAIGN AGAINST FLIES.

INSPECTING STABLES.



INSTRUCTING THE "JUNIOR SANITARY POLICE" IN STABLE SANITATION.



sciousness of a whole city is back of these badged children.

The schools were further utilized as distributing stations for fly pamphlets and circulars. Each bit of educative literature as it came out was placed in the hands of every child in the schools of Cleveland and thence carried into the homes.

The striking fact about all this campaign was that it was waged not during the fly-season, but before it! During a blustering March and a

JUNIOR SANITARY POLICE OFFICER STARTING WITH A GARBAGE COLLECTOR TO MAKE A RECORD OF DEFECTIVE GARBAGE CANS.



MAKING FLY TRAPS AT SCHOOL.



wild, weeping April, while flies were as scarce as straw hats, the battle was at its height. It was directed against the "winter flies," the few which had survived the cold season and would soon begin laying eggs.

The reason for these tactics was set forth in a "fly-catechism" issued by Miss Dawson. One question and its answer read: "How many flies may breed from a pair in spring?" "Allowing six batches of eggs, of 150 each, supposing all to live and find filth to breed in, the number would be 191,010,000,000,000,000,000, enough to



A BIG FLY TRAP AND ITS INVENTOR.

bury the entire earth forty-seven feet deep. Why not kill the fly in the winter or early spring?"

Even if the actual progeny of a fly does not nearly approach the possibilities, it is apparent that the killing of one sluggish winter fly means the prevention of thousands of summer-infesting insects.

An enterprising ice-cream company provided 200,000 "swatters" and all the school children of the city, whether they were members of the "junior sanitary police" or not, were armed. A bounty of ten cents a hundred was offered for all flies brought to Miss Dawson's office in the City Hall. The campaign was financed by popular subscription. At first there was complaint that no flies could be found—but sharp eyes soon sought them out in attic windows, barn lofts and odd, out-of-the-way corners, and they began to pour in at headquarters at the rate of 10,000 a day.

Clergymen were urged to preach "fly sermons" and many responded. A picture film, "The Life of the Fly," was used to good effect in many churches and theaters. In addition to "head 'em off" and "swat the fly" a triple slogan ran "Clean your yard—make a garden—swat the fly," and in many a back yard gardens began to blossom where fly-breeding rubbish heaps had been.

When the winter campaign closed May 15, 490,835 flies had been accepted and paid for—and this before the beginning of the "season" and in a city which had suffered little annoyance from flies during the preceding summer, thanks to the anti-fly campaign then in progress.

"You have brought about a famine in flies," lamented one man who had six chameleons to feed. "My pets are starving. There are no flies to be had about my house and my neighbors can't seem to help me out. I'll pay and pay well for every live fly your children can bring me." And he did.

One of the best fruits of the movement has been a public demand for fly-free stores. Merchants have made quick to sense the demand. Recently one hundred Normal School girls inspected 511 grocery stores, confectioneries, meat stores, restaurants and milk depots. They reported that in 60 per cent of the stores not a solitary fly could be found, while in only 36 per cent of the places visited were flies at all numerous-

The early spring "head 'em off" plan is a remarkable success. Over one hundred towns and cities have written for information concerning the methods used in Cleveland. The coming year will doubtless see the plan in operation in many municipalities. The more commonly it is adopted, the worse luck to Mr. Fly and all the diseases of which he is the herald.

SELF GOVERNMENT IN PUBLIC RECREATION

Much public comment has been aroused by a memorandum on recreation addressed to the New York Board of Estimate and Apportionment on the appointment of its sub-committee on recreation, signed by Luther H. Gulick, Frederic C. Howe, Henry Moskowitz, Edward M. Barrows, Orrin G. Cocks, Seymour Barnard, Belle Lindner Israels, Robert S. Binkerd, Lee F. Hanmer, and John Collier.

Beginning with the statement that not more than 5 per cent of the population is reached daily by all the intensive or active recreations under public control, the memorandum finds that "the mass of the people depend on commercialized amusements, notably saloons, motion pictures, and dance halls, and on the street, which is the demoralizing and dangerous playground of most of the children. We urge that wholesome recreation, publicly controlled, is needed by all the people, not by the small fraction now cared for."

In other words, the signers of the memorandum regard public recreation as being as much a public function as education. "It is impossible," says the memorandum, "for the individual to buy wholesome recreation. Wholesome recreation, in which the social and civic elements are present, can only be provided through community co-operation." Public recreation is not only for the poor, but for everyone, and without it the rich are nearly as helpless as the poor.

Free recreation made available to the mass of the people would cost the city between $30,000,000 and $40,000,000, a sum impossible to raise by taxation. Yet, says the memorandum, "the people of New York gladly pay $10,000,000 a year for mediocre commercial motion-picture shows, but the city takes it for granted that they will or should pay nothing at all for amusements more attractive, including motion pictures, which can be offered on public properties. The 600 dance halls of the city are operated in considerable part by voluntary groups who pay for the privilege of using the halls, but the city takes for granted that its public properties cannot be operated, even in part, by voluntary groups, and that the people will not or should not pay."

The mass of the people are thus paying for poor recreation which is not merely neutral, but often demoralizing. The memorandum goes on:

"It has been shown through complete investigation that most juvenile crime is directly due to the attempt to play in the streets or in other forbidden places. There is much evidence that crime among women, especially that which leads to the social evil, is due in large part to the influences which surround women in their search

for recreation. Neither commerce nor public effort have provided family recreation places, and most wage-earning families in New York have no leisure resources beyond what they can find in their tenement homes, on the streets, or in a small class of commercial resorts."

In other words, the memorandum is a challenge to the city to go into vigorous competition with commercialized amusements and develop all public properties to the limit for leisure purposes, as the only means whereby crime can be radically controlled, the family held together in its pleasures, or civic education carried ahead.

DRAW PROGRAM FOR THE PEOPLE'S PLAY

The memorandum proceeds to lay down a constructive program by which this wider use of all public properties can be put into effect in line with the social center idea. Its program involves neighborhood organization, the shaping of public amusement according to local needs. It involves equally self-government in the use of public proprties for leisure purposes. It goes further and argues that local self-support is necessary before self-government can become a reality.

It urges, in the first place, that public recreation cannot be generally developed unless this be done in a partially self-supporting way, through dues, entrance fees, or the method of private concessions operated on public property. The tax burden would be impossible by any other plan.

It urges also that local self-government in social centers will be a mere pretense unless it be accompanied with the power to disburse funds. Self-government is desired primarily because it means that the local center will, through self-government, begin to take on individuality, to develop a neighborhood policy, to seek the fulfillment of neighborhood needs.

For all these purposes a budget will be necessary, and the most direct, obvious and disciplinary way to raise the budget, is through local effort. The natural method, as already demonstrated in several New York schools, is to charge an entrance fee to a few popular features of the center, preferably those which compete directly with the commercialized amusements. Moving pictures and public dancing are illustrations. These features, and others such as amateur theatricals, athletic meets, sociables and bazaars, the renting of rooms in the school building, club dues, etc., can be made not only self-supporting but profitable, and the surplus can be applied to other non-profitable activities. At present, even in New York, some social centers, such as the well-known center in Public School 63, Manhattan, meet all local expenses, including supervision and janitor service, by such means as these.

The following paragraph from the memorandum is suggestive:

"Those men and women who are members of private clubs, insist on being allowed to spend their social hours with their own group, among people who want what they want in the way they want it. The great mass of the people, who have no private clubs, are entitled to these same privileges. They too are entitled to pay for their own recreation, to govern their own recreation, and to spend their leisure hours with their own social group. The social center, whether it be on school property, park property, or other public property, is such by reason of the very fact that it gives this kind of right to the average man, woman or child . . . The aim of the social center is that public money shall provide simply the basic physical opportunity for recreation, while the people themselves, through the effort of organized voluntary groups, shall make their own recreation, govern it and pay for it. The social center is not a form of paternalism, for it merely provides the channels through which the social life can flow, just as the street provides the channel through which the physical city is able to move."

VOLUNTARY CENSORSHIP OF CLEVELAND "MOVIES"

Last fall, in response to many protests against the type of films exhibited at the moving picture theaters of Cleveland, the chief of police instructed patrolmen to make arrests under an ordinance designed to cover the penny arcades—, wherever they found "obscene, lascivious or indecent or immoral" pictures displayed.

Each policeman had his own standard of what these adjectives meant, with the result that a film might be passed by one officer and ordered off by another the next day. After sixty arrests had been made, the moving picture managers as a body asked the mayor to appoint a censor to establish a uniform standard of censorship, the expense to be borne by the managers.

They asked further that an investigation of moving picture theaters in the city be made in order to secure legislation to solve the whole moving picture problem.

The mayor appointed as censor Robert Bartholomew, a young lawyer who has conducted a number of successful investigations of various social and civic matters, with H. K. Hunter, a social worker, as assistant. Their report has just been issued.

The work was divided into three parts—the censorship of films, the inspection of moving picture theaters, and an effort to ascertain the influence of moving pictures upon the social and

moral life of the community. Nine hundred and fourteen reels were censored during the sixty-seven days the report covers—an average of thirteen reels a day. The eliminations ordered by the censor totaled eighty-six reels, either in whole or in part, and in addition to these a great many films were not brought to Cleveland because their owners feared the possible expense of trimming them.

Notwithstanding the fact that the censorship was voluntary on the part of the companies, complete co-operation was maintained at all times, and in no case was there an effort on their part to disregard the rulings of the censor.

There are 131 moving picture theaters in Cleveland. One out of every six people in all Cleveland was found to attend a moving picture performance once a week; on Sundays and holidays, one in three; 8,245 children attend every day or night, 4,290 of them unaccompanied by elders.

Existing ordinances in respect to fire and sanitation appear to be adequate and for the most part enforced, only twenty-three theaters out of the 131 showing violations.

The report ranks fifty-eight theaters as excellent in moral tone, forty-six good, twenty-seven bad, and states that bad moral condition is due to four causes—lax control by the management, poor lighting, objectionable films and objectionable vaudeville acts. It comments especially on misleading and indecent poster advertising. Of the evils resulting from a dark theater, it says: "The opinion that has for so long prevailed that it is necessary to have dark theaters is rapidly being overcome, and out of the total number of 131, only fifty have been found to be dark, and forty have been well lighted." The report instances cases of the ruin of young girls in badly lighted theaters.

An interesting feature of the investigation is the first-hand record of the effect of moving pictures upon the minds of school children, who were asked to write competitive essays telling why they liked moving picture shows and what pictures they liked best. The preference for different types of pictures is shown by the accompanying figures covering 1,500 essays; western life was the preference in 421 cases—the largest single group; scientific and educational was the preference in 292 cases; drama in 283; comedy in 241; war in 224; and crime in only 26 cases.

As a whole the children show a much larger variety in their general choice of pictures than many people realize. The older children prefer educational and scientific pictures. The childish desire for amusement is shown by the love for comedies. It is the younger children who like the cowboy pictures.

The children's own comments on the pictures are worth quoting: A third grade boy says: "I go to the show about once a month. I would like to go once a week. When you go to the show you see men robbing houses and you learn to rob houses and people." From a fifth grade boy: "Sometimes the Indians fight so hard and kill the men that it makes me sick and I have a headache." Says an eighth grade girl: "I like to see the pictures that show the firemen in a great fire. The pictures make me want to be a fireman. I think I will be a fireman when I grow up and save some lives just as the firemen do in the pictures." Another girl says: "I go to the show when I know there is something on special about something in history or geography that is, something that helps me in my school work." One boy in the third grade says: "I like war and murder and burglary pictures best."

Another boy, in the fifth grade wrote: "I go to the moving pictures about two times a month. I go on Sundays. I see pictures of war, Indians, funny pictures and about fishers. I earn my money to go. My parents do not like it and have forbidden me to go because it has made my brother a little out of his sense. Sometimes I see a love picture but do not like them." A girl says: "I like moving pictures because they show me more what outer life is like." Says another: "The kind of picture shows I like is where poor people rise into the world and become great." A fourth grade boy: 'I like the picture shows because they help me to understand things that I did not understand or know about."

The report recommends the licensing of motion picture theaters and the establishment of a permanent censorship.

NON-SUPPORT AND LAZY HUSBAND LAWS

Largely through the hard work of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities and the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, Pennsylvania now has a desertion and non-support law. It provides imprisonment with hard labor for men who fail to support their wives, children, or aged parents, and the payment of their wages by the state to their dependents, at the rate of sixty-five cents a day.

At about the same time as the Pennsylvania act, a "lazy husband" law fathered by Judge Fred. C. Brown of Seattle, was passed by the Legislature of Washington. The Washington law pays wages at the generous rate of $1.50 a day for labor to be performed on the state roads. Both the Washington and Pennsylvania acts provide not only for payment for labor during imprisonment but for a probation system like that of the District of Columbia by which an irresponsible husband can be put on parole to pay weekly for the support of his family through the judge or probation officers.

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

CHURCH INTERESTS AT PACIFIC COAST CONFERENCES

THREE occasions of special significance, from the point of view of this department, have summoned national gatherings to the Pacific Coast within the month: the session and sections of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on the Church and Social Work at Seattle, the twenty-sixth annual convention of Christian Endeavor Societies at Los Angeles, and the second World's Christian Citizenship Conference at Portland, Ore.

Church and Social Work at Seattle

At Seattle only notes of the co-operative spirit and the constructive attitude were struck at the four sessions when the church and social workers got together. These key-notes were set by John M. Glenn in the committee report presented at the notable evening general session, over which he presided. Himself a churchman, he spoke from within, and being general director of the Russell Sage Foundation, represented as many of the outlying fields of human service as any one man could. In urging upon the churches a more specific, accurate and practical knowledge of the conditions of life and labor in their own fields, he said:

"It is not enough that a church shall take good care of its own members, no matter how fully it may supply them with spiritual food. No church can claim to have at all done its duty or faced its rightful responsibility unless it has been constantly alert to seek and find everything that is destructive of men's physique and men's souls that may lie within its reach.

"The churches have not, on the whole, realized that they have a duty to assume social responsibilities, to know and understand their neighborhoods, their cities and their special localities, to examine into actual conditions of living, and learn what they are and what may be done to improve them and to insist that their own members, as well as the state, shall do their utmost to abolish patent existing evils. There has been too much willingness to be ignorant of unpleasant things, too much easy—going blindness to the troubles and needs of numbers of our fellow men.

"If a church has not inspired its members to bold adventure in behalf of the weak and for the sake of the community, it has no right to call itself a church nor to think that it is listening to the call of its great Head."

Among the conditions which were said to be "restraining men's spirituality," there were cited the increase of the feeble-minded, demanding the influence of the church to secure their segregation and care by the state; the plight of the prisoner and the criminal, pleading for probation, reformatory, parole, or penal treatment; the prevention of diseases which increase infant mortality, create orphans by killing parents and reduce families to dependency and even delinquency; the abuse and exploitation of immigrants and other strangers who can better be safeguarded than rescued from vice and crime; the industrial injustice of child labor, overwork of women, low wages, reduced standards of living, which demand of the churches "to stand out boldly as champions of social righteousness."

By assuming their full responsibility in all these fields for social and religious endeavor, Mr. Glenn expressed the opinion that the churches "will gain many more souls than they will lose members, will increase their support, will attract the strongest and most vigorous of our young people and will immensely increase the spiritual power of their communities."

After Alexander Johnson effectively emphasized a church's social work from a layman's point of view by the efficiency of an Indianapolis church in serving its community, J. W. Magruder of Baltimore cited churches which are represented in the active membership of every institution for the betterment of their city. Henry A. Atkinson of the Congregational Brotherhood showed why "a church cannot stay out of the social struggle," and Father J. A. Ryan of the Roman Catholic Seminary at St. Paul brought the notable discussion to its close by stating the position of the Catholic church from this point of view:

"The primary purpose of my church is to save souls and to bring them into conformity with God. This it must do first, but this does not mean that the church is not to devote itself to social work. It is the duty of the church to bring men into right relations with God, and it cannot bring men into right relations with God unless it also brings them into right relations with their fellow men. I do not believe that the church should devote itself exclusively to religious affairs, or to opening its doors one day a week for services. However the church may have failed, after all it has been the greatest influence in bringing about social justice."

In this connection, it should be remembered that Father Ryan has written the best single volume published in America on The Living Wage, and that he presented an able report as chairman of the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor. It is also of interest to note that Father Edwin V. O'Hara of Portland is chairman of the Industrial Welfare Commission of the state of Oregon. Caroline Gleason, who was trained at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy for her work in the Catholic Women's League, became the secretary of this state commission and bore an effective part in securing the minimum wage law in Oregon.

The section meetings rallied church workers and social workers in equal numbers, who participated freely and forcibly in the discussions of concrete conditions and specific lines of practical work in which they are co-operating.

At Los Angeles a decidedly critical attitude toward the church was assumed by some of its most loyal leaders and ablest defenders. Freedom to assume this point of view was probably felt because it was taken while they were all together within the family circle. But if this criticism were needed, it happily and more advantageously was lodged at the bar of the church's conscience, or better still perhaps within the closet of its heart, at the Christian Endeavor convention, rather than at the National Conference of Charities and Correction. At the latter, indeed, a Jewish rabbi made the most spirited rejoinder to the only criticism of the church heard there. It was in the conference sermon by the Rev. A. J. McKelway, whose eloquence, warm-heartedness and exalted loyalty to religious ideals and standards so suffused, tempered and balanced his criticism with loving kindness as to take all the sting out of it. Not within the memory of any of us has the justice, kindness and religion of all the churches been borne closer home to the heart and conscience of social workers than by him in this sermon. While the lightning of his indignation pierced to dividing asunder cant and hypocrisy from sincerity and reality in religion, he had this to say for his brethren in the ministries of all churches:

"It is true that we have with us those whom Micah of old stigmatized as 'priests that teach for hire and prophets that divine for money.' It is also true that the American pulpit, whether represented by Protestant minister or Catholic priest, or Jewish rabbi, while not yet fully awakened to the demand for social justice that so rings in our ears, is sound at the core. Its preachers are preachers of righteousness, though they have not always seen its modern applications. And when it does see, when it does awaken, it will become the noblest agency for arousing the people to an insistent demand for justice in all the relations of life.

He called upon his fellow social workers to remember that "we owe to the church's teachings that we today are engaged in social service." And then he insisted "we owe it to the church to protest against any false views of religion that do not magnify the service of our fellow man." Among such false ideas, against which social workers have made noteworthy protest, is the notion that religion is concerned only, or even mainly, with the other world. But right here the preacher turned to make his most pointed personal appeal, as with impressive solemnity he said:

"While we stand here between two eternities, yet the life that now is has infinite possibilities for the direction of the life that is to be. Religion must hold to the two-worlds theory of life, and it is equally narrow, in our endeavor to brighten and sweeten the life that now is, for us to ignore the life that is to come."

He even went so far as to conclude by insisting that "the thought of one's own death is the golden key that unlocks the soul of every man."

Christian Citizenship at Portland

The second World's Christian Citizenship Conference was held under the auspices of, as it was initiated by, representatives of the more conservative of the Protestant evangelical denominations, some of them identified with the movement to secure a formal recognition of "God in the constitution" and of the Bible in the public schools. The first of these subjects, however, was not included in the program for the eight days, which fulfilled the promise of the announcement that the occasion would be "comprehensively Christian, where no sectarian shibboleth will be heard, no merely denominational note will be struck."

Representative men, ministers and laymen, from many American states and cities and from many foreign countries, including Switzerland, Scotland, France, Italy, China, Japan, Ireland, Turkey, and Canada, read papers and took part in the discussions. Large audiences were in attendance, though there were not as many delegates from religious bodies registered as were expected. Contributions from citizens of Portland are said to have amounted to $20,000. The topics treated covered a wide range of religious, moral, civic, and social interests, including the family, peace, capital and labor, public education, intemperance, prison reform, the Sabbath, social purity, among the more general themes; and such very practically specific discussions as The Direct Democracy by M. De Rougemont of Switzerland; The Conflict of Christianity and Infidelity in France by Dr. Charles Merle d'Aubigne of Paris; Social Conditions in Japan by Joseph S. Motoda of Tokyo; Christianity and the New China by Ng Poon Chew of Canton; The Ethical and Economic Evils of War by Dr. Macdonald of Toronto; The Ethical Element in Systems of Taxation by Lieutenant-Governor Wallace of California; Church Co-operation in Public Charity by Hugh B. McCauley of Philadelphia; Our Social Problem. Is it Economic or Moral? by T. H. Acheson of Pittsburgh, and a sustained attack on The Mormon Menace led by Robert F. Coyle of Denver and Prof. O. F. Davis of New Richmond, Wis., who reported for the commission on that subject.

As at Seattle, so in Portland, the report and discussion on immigration touched most deeply the interest of the coast people not only, but the response of the more tnoughtful delegates from other states and abroad. Walter Laidlaw's report for the commission was considered by many to be the most noteworthy, if not the ablest, utterance in the long series of papers and addresses.

Starting out with "the high heredity imputed to the human soul by Christianity," the high import of the problem of immigration in a Christian conference was taken for granted. But throughout his report Dr. Laidlaw never allowed the spiritual import of the question to be considered apart from its economic and industrial expression. "The risen Christ was made known in the breaking of bread to his first disciples: the reigning Christ shall be made known by the last of them in the very making of bread." Politico-economic interpretations, accounting for the vast migration of the nations, dealt with the increase of population, army and navy expenditures, exports, railway mileage and the changes in American conditions within fifty years in a way which must have seemed strangely new to those accustomed only to deal with humanity religiously in terms of the individual soul or of the other world. But Dr. Laidlaw's conclusions drawn from statistical tables furnished by official reports, were surcharged with the evangelical appeal to bear the Christ-imposed "burden of the soul." He held that the potentiality of emigration from southeastern Europe is higher than that from the lands which gave us our New England, and Canada its Nova Scotia, because of "the coming of new lives, the appeal of new forces, the push of impoverishment, and the comparative lack of opportunity." And he adds, "where the Heavenly Father is sending souls, the American people cannot, unless it has lost its faith, send sneers. It is not our business to denounce, but to announce, and by positive interpretation of friendliness and service, to prove that Americanism and evangelical Christianity are final terms in state and church."

While the somewhat extravagant claims for this distinctively Christian conference, made in the official preliminary announcements of it, as "in many respects the most significant gathering of Christian forces thus far in history," beclouded the anticipations of it in many minds, yet the fulfillments of the program and the results of the occasion gratefully disappointed the fears awakened and greatly exceeded the hopes inspired by the promise of the conference.

Constructive Criticism at the C. E. Convention

It was no less a man than J. A. MacDonald, editor of the Toronto *Globe*, than whom there is no more loyal and able defender of the church, who is more often called to speak upon its greatest platforms, that took his brethren in hand at the Christian Endeavor convention after this fashion:

"All over America there has grown up an industrial absolutism more baneful and much more arrogant than that of any Stuart king; but where is the church of John Knox that will stand against tyranny and oppression, and for the will of God and the rights of men? What does the comfortable church of the well-to-do know about the problem of work or of wages? How can it hear the passionate cry of the children of America, a million of them—some say three millions—caught in the cruel wheels of our vast, heartless, industrial machine? How can it measure the agony of women who must choose between starvation or shame? Why? Because of the church's social apostasy. As in the past, so today, the process of assimilation brings elements of power and efficiency, but involves also compromise and weakness. Once again the church has become the conservator of vested interests and worships 'the god of things as they are.'"

Until the church re-establishes Christ's principles of social relations, he maintained that human and industrial justice must remain a "mere figure of speech." He urged as the duty of the hour a return to the standards of life and relationships established by Christ and practiced by the primitive Christians, among whom "Jews and Romans, Greeks and barbarians, did live together happily and did work together helpfully through all the relations of industrial service in every-day life."

THE RUSSIAN JEW IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY

No finer appreciation of the Russian Jew in American industrial life has appeared anywhere than that by J. E. Williams in the *Daily Independent-Times* of Streator, Ill. (June 28, 1913). Two things seem to have moved him to this expression. One of these causes is his daily contact, for the first time, with these newcomers, as chairman of the board of arbitration, which constitutes one of the main features of the preferential shop agreed upon by Hart, Schaffner & Marx and their employes.[1]

[1] THE SURVEY of July 19, 1913, gives a description of this agreement and an appreciation of Mr. Williams' services in connection therewith and in the adjustment of compensation to the families of the men who lost their lives in the Cherry mine disaster.

Of these first contacts he writes: "I have been meeting here in the flesh the heroes of Zangwill's Melting-Pot, of Mary Antin's Promised Land. I am in daily contact with the latest, the most significant, and in some quarters, the most dreaded of our acquisitions—the Russian Jew. And I am profoundly impressed."

The other thing that moved Mr. Williams is the memory of how much he and his fellow townsfolk lost in not recognizing one of these immigrants when he lived among them. "I shall never forget that Streator held a Dr. Steiner among her immigrants for a year and failed to recognize him." And then he queries thus:

"What other potential Steiners there may be among our new arrivals we do not know, and yet there may be names that will enrich our art, literature, politics, or citizenship—if not in the first, yet almost certainly in the second generation."

Of the rank and file whom he meets in this vast wholesale clothing trade, he speaks in amazement:

"It is really amazing to see the adaptability of these people, their genius in all problems of human relations, their largeness of grasp, their keenness of intellect, and, above all, their responsiveness to ethical ideals.

"Here are people who until six or seven years ago lived in a country and worked at occupations in which trades organization were unheard of. They come here, enter an enormously complicated industry, and in a short time rise to the top as leaders in an organization which their enterprise and genius has in large measure created. Perhaps two-thirds of the people in the industry are of other nationalities, and they are loyal members of the union; but the initiative, the enterprise, the leadership is largely in the hands of those whom the Christian world has despised and persecuted for these 2,000 years—the Russian Jews.

"And they are the leaders because they deserve to be, because of their loyalty, their insight, their enthusiasm coupled with a rare talent for constructive statesmanship."

After describing the complexities of the industrial problems to be solved by employers and employes in this trade, Mr. Williams testifies that the union constituted largely, and still more largely led, by these immigrants, is really making the solution possible.

"Not without difficulty, not without friction, not without stoppages of work—though these have been slight compared with the provocative nature of the task."

Of the spirit of these people as capable of the greater tasks, judged by the capacity tested in the present achievements of their union, he thus speaks:

"In all these operations it has displayed moderation, restraint and constructive ability of a high order. Greater tasks are before it, and I expect it will meet and solve them in the same spirit. The task is nothing less than to demonstrate that in so enormously complicated an industry a peaceful method of operation can be established that will guarantee to the worker the best labor conditions that can be obtained under the competitive system, and to the employer a peaceful and uninterrupted period of operation, and an increased efficiency of production that will compensate him for the better conditions enjoyed by his employes.

Other nationalities are spoken of as of almost equal importance, but Mr. Williams concludes:

"After this experience it is my feeling that the Russian Jew will make the richest intellectual contribution to American life of any of the incoming tribes, and especially will he be valuable in the world of labor, as increasing its power of self-restraint and constructive statesmanship."

Some pen portraits which Mr. Williams draws of his associates in making or keeping the peace illuminate and interpret his characterization of their people.

"The chief deputy in a large sense is the creator and master mind in the garment workers' organization. He is as yet only twenty-six years old, and the most remarkable characteristic to me in one so young is his power of restraint. We expect youth to be fiery, enthusiastic, daring; but we rarely find it coupled with that poise, repose, self-mastery so necessary to great achievement of any sort. I have known him, when he had a strike vote in his pocket, and when a wave of his hand would have summoned his comrades to battle, refuse the temptation to make himself an idolized leader of battle and to see his name in three deck heads in the daily papers, and choose the harder, less spectacular role of a practical constructive builder of an organization that would get results for his people. And that to me is the highest test of courage, of loyalty, of leadership."

The story of a life so romantic and full of adventure that it would crowd the pages of a Russian novel is thus told partly in the words of this other deputy himself:

"It was reading Tolstoi's Resurrection that made a changed man of me. It was like what religious people call conversion. I read it again and again. The picture of Nuckeldoff sank into my brain and I said 'I am that man.' From that time the sporty ways of youth were forsaken and I led a new life.

"That new life led him out of the prosperous career of a merchant into all the loss and peril of the revolutionist. But when asked why he did not become a merchant here in America he replied: 'I have lost all taste for making money. All my enthusiasm has gone into the cause, the labor movement, and I can't get up any interest in a business success.'"

To a working girl's courage and devotion he pays this tribute:

Though well read in modern literature and taking special interest in the drama and music, she is so earnest and sincere in word and act that she is a power among the women workers and a friend and counsellor to the young girls in the industry. Such is the deputy for the vest makers—the chief woman worker in the movement."

These appreciations are those of the religious spirit in industry—all so rare that it may not be recognized as such, though reference to it is not misplaced in this department.

BOOKS

YOUTH AND LIFE

By RANDOLPH S. BOURNE. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 364 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

The judicious reader will begin with the last essay, A Philosophy of Handicap. Here the writer reveals himself and the secret of his power. Nothing more admirable has been written in many a day. Here is philosophy at its best as a guide of life. We have the experience of one who is able to turn necessity to glorious gain. There is a wholesome tonic needed especially in this day. There is no dodging of difficulties, no self-pity, but a manly acceptance of whatever comes. We are taught how to make the best of what seems worst.

There is real insight into the modern meanings of social service. It is treated as a real religion. "All the crises and deeper implications of life seem inevitably to lead back to the question of social improvement and militant learning and doing."

The Philosophy of Handicap with its cheerful courage and its enthusiasm for social righteousness gives us the great contribution of Mr. Bourne. It suggests further work along the same lines. Here is one who is fitted to be an interpreter of one of the most significant movements of our time.

The essay on The Life of Irony belongs to another mood. Here the handicapped man is seeking comfort for himself in watching "the shifting light and play of life" and the endless swirl of things. That irony has its uses is true enough, but Mr. Bourne does not succeed in making us feel all his enthusiasm for it. He himself, in the last analysis, is more of a stoic than an "ironist." Perhaps, however, one may succeed in being both.

The Praise of Youth has all the youthful exuberance that belongs to one who is twenty-five, and who knows that he will never be exactly that age again. But one can not read his book without having the belief that Mr. Bourne will write a still better one ten years from now. Thirty-five is not so very old after all. One's reason for this faith is that Mr. Bourne has got hold of some big ideas, and has shown the power of expressing them. He has said that "for a sincere life one talent is needed, the ability to steer clear of the forces that would warp and conventionalize and harden the personality and its own free choices and bents." This talent he has exhibited, and there is no reason to think that it will be confined to the short-lived period of youth.

SAMUEL MCCHORD CROTHERS.

A SURVEY OF THE WOMAN PROBLEM

By ROSA MAYREDER. Geo. H. Doran Co. 275 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

Frau Rosa Mayreder has occupied for many years a prominent place in the European group of feministic writers. Her Critique of the Feminine Nature, published in 1905, has been one of the most widely read and influential books on this subject in the German language.

The translation of her latest work has made available in English a carefully developed philosophy of feminism. The first outlines were made fifteen years ago, and the theme was gradually developed in a series of essays which form the nucleus of the present volume following their initial publication in various periodicals.

Frau Mayreder's point of view is extremely individualistic. She brings her strongest arguments to bear against the force of custom which hinders the development of independence and personality in women. The effect of these forces she aptly describes as "the tyranny of the norm." On the positive side, she contends for the freedom of the feminine individuality to express and realize itself in a world of fact rather than in a fancied world of outworn ideals. On the whole, however, her method is analytical rather than argumentative. As she says in the preface, "It is the recognition of ideas, not their propagation, for which I have striven."

As an interpreter of the woman movement the author's relation to Ellen Key and Olive Schreiner, whose works have preceded hers to this country, is worth noting. She agrees with Ellen Key in being a strong defender of the free personality. But she is opposed to many of the latter's special teachings. The book contains some very interesting criticism of Ellen Key's favorite theories. She is perhaps more closely allied to Olive Schreiner in her ideas concerning women's work. Also, like Olive Schreiner, she had already expressed her feministic theme in the form of fiction and allegory before she put forth the ripened product in essay form.

Two of the most interesting chapters in the book are those which show how civilization has brought about changes in masculine nature corresponding in importance to the much discussed changes in feminine nature.

KATHARINE ANTHONY.

THE UNREST OF WOMAN

By EDWARD SANFORD MARTIN. D. Appleton & Co. 146 pp. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.09.

With the blessed aloofness of an observer who has the rare power of dissociating himself from what he sees, Mr. Martin comments on the present unrest of woman, and with his usual kindly humor and mellow judgment, he points out that the solution of the problem lies in growing up.

Adolescence is a period of restlessness, of extravagant fancies and equally extravagant action, yet it seems a necessary phase through which all living things must pass, and in spite of its frequent folly it does betoken life and energy struggling for self-expression. But self-expression must have direction. Without self-control it leads to the riot and ruin wrought in England by Pankhurstianism—by those whom Mr. Martin describes as not having "found them-

selves" (at least we hope it is not themselves which they have found). Those who have "found themselves" have found also, as he says, that "inner governor who shall look out of their eyes and see truth and duty, and strengthen their hands to seize them." These women having passed safely through the period of adolescence have attained unto woman's estate.

Mr. Martin considers the unrest of various kinds of women; the student who thinks of life as an academic question; the society agitator who doesn't think at all; the social worker to whom life is presented in terms of the pain and suffering of women until her vision is blinded to the wholeness of life; and finally the feminist whose views are so comprehensive that she believes woman should do all her own work and all of man's too. "If"—as Mr. Martin says—"if women with unimpaired power to do the things that women alone can do could compete successfully with men in the rest of the employments, they would be far superior creatures to men." Are we ready to contend that they are, for unless we do, as even the feminists have not yet been able to devise a substitute for motherhood before the birth of the child, perhaps we might also allow the fathers to stay on their job a little longer.

And this brings us to Mrs. Belmont whose arguments Mr. Martin disposes of with the short shrift they merit. To her criticism of the Constitution as "a document which divides the people by an arbitrary line of sex," "and hence" is not "in touch with modern growth," he retorts: "That was the way the Creator divided the people, and if He is not in touch with modern growth it behooves modern growth to get into touch with Him at its earliest convenience."

Is not the Creator also perhaps in a measure responsible for the "horrible alterntive," as Miss Thomas characterizes the choice a woman may be called on to make between marriage and the life of a scholar? (Does she, by the way, mean a scholar? Is not scholarship rather an attitude of mind mellowed by past study with which nothing, not even marriage, can interfere? Does she not rather mean a student?) Miss Thomas asks, "How many men scholars would there be if we compelled them to make such an inhuman choice?" Do we "compel" women to make this choice? Is it not rather the laws which govern their own natures? Modern science has as yet found no way to perpetuate the race except through the old methods —women must be mothers if they marry and the Lord grants them children, and being a mother means often months of suffering and years of anxiety and labor that the children born may be brought up to fulfil their highest destiny. This compulsion is not of our making—rather nature has simply cast us in her own mould, and in this our privilege no man can share. "The great vocation of woman is motherhood. It is in that she is indispensable and unrivalled." Mr. Martin takes life as he sees it and his vision is unclouded by theories. Is there anyone who will deny that he is right?

Miss Addams is the greatest asset which the cause of woman suffrage possesses or ever has possessed because, as Mr. Martin says, of "her self-effacing personality, and the manner of her life." Yet even with Miss Addams, could not her judgment be helped by a greater sense of proportion? The advocacy of measures which benefit a part of humanity at the expense of the whole is seldom wise. In the long run, such measures are not of benefit even to the few, for St. Paul was right when he said that we are members one of another. Women can not be helped except by helping the whole world, and the world will not be helped by concentrating attention on any one class to the exclusion of others—whether this class be rich or poor; whether it be those who are physiologically fit or unfit. It used to be the survival of the fittest, now it is the poor and often the unfit on whom attention is concentrated, but it is only a change of emphasis on the class, the injustice of the principle remains the same. The trouble with social work today is this concentration—this feeling of class which is being fostered among the working people. We are sowing the wind. Heaven grant we may not reap the whirlwind.

Such a book as The Unrest of Woman is one of the guide-posts which, through its sanity and its human understanding, must help to point the way which we must walk.

MRS. WILLIAM LOWELL PUTNAM.

THE HUMAN SLAUGHTER-HOUSE

By WILHELM LAMSZUS. E. A. Stokes Co. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY $.56.

Not long ago a thin volume, The Impeachment of President Israels, put in one man's mouth, with stunning simplicity and force, all the social and national and economic arguments against war. Now another thin book, The Human Slaughter-House, puts the individual side, the feeling of the man in the ranks who must oppose soft flesh and brain against the precision of perfected machines and the triumphs of chemists and electricians.

These two books, one German the other American, signify much, for they imbed in fiction or something akin to it the growing fervor of the revolt against war. Oratory and statistics cluster thickly about the peace movement but it is only beginning to produce the sort of writing which will shoulder its way into the long shelves filled by the war books from Troy to Kirk Kilisseh.

There is unexpected coincidence in the publication of the English translation of the second book just before the Gettysburg celebration. The climax at Gettysburg came when a row of Pickett's men charged again through the wheat field to be welcomed with hearty handclasps by the Yankees who had been their foes. And the climax of the book comes in the German infantryman's insane vision of the men of two great armies firing into the air and rushing into each other's arms.

The Human Slaughter-House is the simple narrative of a private who tells in a hundred short pages of his going to war "for the Fatherland" and of a few days' fighting. There's only a bit about the parting from his wife and chil-

dren and a few remarks by the other men, but like every line of the book their very brevity is pregnant. Only three of his company survived a charge on a rapid-fire battery masked by trees. His comrades are blown to bits by bombs from airships, and by the mere pushing of a button one man destroys a whole regiment which charges over mined ground. A single twitching hand is thrown at the German's feet. A man with half a face comes running out of the dark whining for mercy. Such as these, and worse, until he goes mad along with many of his fellows. Why not, if thousands of the Japs and stolid Russians lost their minds?

The points of the book are two: that the nerves of modern man cannot stand war—he smashes up, goes mad; and the reason for his madness—the awful, crushing, bloody, surety of the modern devices for killing. "Once it was a knightly death, an honorable soldier's death; now it is death by machinery. . . . We are being hustled to death by experts, by mechanicians. And just as they turn out buttons and pins by wholesale methods of production, so they are now turning out the crippled and the dead by machinery." All they lack to complete the job is burying machines, and these he thinks will come soon because they will be a necessity of the next great war.

The absorbingly interesting part of it all, a matter of mere speculation, is as to the growth of such feeling among the workingmen of the world—the fellows who must be food for powder. There is some evidence in the fact that the Kaiser, though fighting the army tax bill through the Reichstag, had to recall his dismissal of the author as a public school teacher; and in the sale of 100,000 copies of the book in Germany in three mont'·s, though Hamburg, where it was first put in type, suppressed it. Now, a few months later, it is marching round the world in eight languages.

ARTHUR P. KELLOGG.

THE REAL DEMOCRACY

By J. E. F. MANN, N. J. SIEVERS and R. W. T. COX. Longmans, Green & Co. 276 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

The first essays of the Rota Club, a group of political economists in London which took its inspiration from Hilaire Belloc, appear in book form under the title of The Real Democracy. The contributions, by J. E. F. Mann, N. J. Sievers and R. W. T. Cox, comprise a history of the changes which have taken place in political governments throughout the world with a study of the principles of the philosophy involved. After analyzing the history and applying the philosophy, the authors propose the logical step to be taken which will introduce measures tending to cure present evils and prevent their recurrence.

It is shown that to the end of the pagan world the state was based on slavery, with society divided horizontally into two strata. The ruling element composed the upper stratum, and the servile class the lower, constituting an unstable condition. The effect of the Christian Church was to establish the dignity of labor, and the awakening intelligence of the working people caused them to form craft guilds, which brought about a readjustment of society into groups separated from each other by vertical divisions. The weakening and final collapse of the Guild system are attributed to the emergence of trade from the local intermunicipal and the pelagic, to the international and oceanic stage which it neglected to resist, and which the crystallization of the nations into their various monarchic states tended to encourage.

The development of the capitalistic and proletarian system is usually considered as a natural evolution, and therefore inevitable as an economic necessity. People cannot see how they could get on without large scale production; and yet, owing to the tremendous evils which accompany it, due to its horizontal social strata, a dissatisfaction with its working is growing up. This is expressing itself in statements that it is a failure, and must be replaced by something different, and harking back to the guild system with its vertical divisions which worked well. On the one hand the questions are asked: "How can men be citizen artisans expressing their personalities in their every day labor if that labor takes place under another man's roof and under another man's direction? How can men be equals on the political platform if they are master and man in the factory?" On the other hand, it is shown that under the present system the greater part of the created wealth flows into the pockets of the few who own, and yet the productive activity of tomorrow must result from the demand of the many whose power for developing demand is continuously lessening.

This system is therefore not necessary to production, but hostile to it. Its continuance means its extinction. Mere raising of wages or shortening of hours result only in higher cost of living.

Democracy has recognized so far only political power. The masses are politically free, but economically dependent. The proletarian may easily record a vote but be in want. It was established before industry extended beyond the home of the voter. As industry grew the voter retained the property right of his industry. His enterprise was his own; he could do with it as he would. He blinked the fact that by his own admission his employes were his slaves. So the industrial groups composing the greater number of the people are industrial monarchies, although existing in a democracy. The inconsistency is too apparent to persist.

The weakness of the type of collectivism known as Socialism is summed up in the proverb, "What is everybody's business is nobody's business!" That proper organization is necessary to secure efficient management; that the taking over, by the state, of property now owned by the employer would necessitate taxing everybody to pay the employer for his property, and as he would know better how to handle it afterwards than anyone else, he would be put in charge and paid to operate it.

Having analyzed all the various other sug-

gested plans and determined their failings, the proposition is advanced to enter into what is termed "the Associative State," where all the individual enterprises in an industry associate themselves together after the manner of a guild. By remunerating the various working members, partly by wages and partly by dividends, each would be given an incentive to obtain an economic resource large or small.

It is impossible to abolish competition or its necessary accompaniment, profit, but its accidental accompaniments, cheapness and destitution, can be abolished. Competition is essential to social progress. If competition between groups is substituted for competition between individuals, the fatal consequences of free competition will be eliminated. We should temper the instinct for self-advancement by the desire for group advancement. We should train men to play for their team, that the game of progress should go on. The industrial group must be recognized in the political organization. The conduct of civic life must be the business of the masses. The business of production must be inspired with a civic significance. Citizens must be organized into associations of producers.

It is the citizens and not wealth which the state exists to develop. Therefore it is essential that the present workers and not the past workers be considered. It is the producers, not the consumers, who must control the state. If society is suffering from a disease which is essentially economic, the curative force must itself be economic and must proceed from principles and motives contrary to those which gave rise to the disease. The disease, so far as it is economic, is the concentration of ownership in a few hands. The remedy must be the diffusion of ownership into many hands.

The analysis of the situation is clear-cut and irrefutable, and the remedy to be applied is undoubtedly the right one, but whether or not the method is practical, the reader must decide.

Working on the principle that the acquisition of wealth normally means an exchange by which each of a number of men gives what is to him less useful and gets what is to him more useful, it is believed that this exchange should be regulated so as to be kept normal, and that this regulation can be effected by so arranging through legal and economic means the balance of advantage, which is the increment of wealth, that it will weigh down on the side of the small man and tilt up on the side of the big man. This, it is expected, will bring about a large number of small owners in place of a small number of large owners or capitalists.

Thus we come back to the guild form of industrial grouping and the dividing of society into vertical sections. It is thought that the trade unions can be made one factor in this change and the manufacturers' associations another, while the consuming public would act as the legal and economic regulator through government representation and so be protected. Thus every member of the guild would become a citizen of an industrial community within the state, and in this way industrially as well as politically free.[1]

H. F. J. Porter.

A PREFACE TO POLITICS

By Walter Lippmann. Mitchell Kennerley. 318 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey, $1.60.

Among the numerous recent volumes on politics, Walter Lippmann's book is one of the most notable. Written in a vigorous English, it discusses the new statecraft with brilliant suggestiveness.

Mr. Lippmann calls it a preliminary sketch for a theory of politics. But it is more than this. It is a keen and vital analysis of modern political ideas. He has had the opportunity to look at politics from the inside and his criticism of much that passes for reform is thoughtful and valuable.

A paragraph from the first chapter, on Routineer and Inventor, furnishes the keynote of the book: "It is our desperate adherence to an old method that has produced the confusion of political life. Because we have insisted upon looking at government as a frame and governing as a routine, because in short we have been static in our theories, politics has such an unreal relation to actual conditions. Feckless—that is what our politics is. It is literally eccentric: it has been centered mechanically instead of vitally. We have, it seems, been seduced by a fictitious analogy: we have hoped for machine regularity when we needed human initiative and leadership, when life was crying that its inventive abilities should be freed."

The topics of Mr. Lippmann's essays give an excellent insight into the subject matter of the book: Routineer and Inventor; The Taboo; The Changing Focus; The Golden Rule and After; Well Meaning but Unmeaning; The Chicago Vice Report; Some Necessary Iconoclasm; The Making of Creeds; The Red Herring; Revolution and Culture.

It is a pleasure to recommend this book. It is worthy of being read carefully by every one who is interested in the new spirit in American political life. Clear thinking and plain speaking concerning the things that are foremost today, are its salient characteristics.

Leo Mannheimer.

IMMIGRATION

By Henry Pratt Fairchild. The Macmillan Co. 455 pp. Price $1.75; by mail of The Survey $1.90.

The mass of material gathered by the Immigration Commission has been the more or less direct incitement to many books on immigration, no less than five worthy of serious mention having reached the reviewer's desk in the last year and a half. First came Professor Jenks and Dr. Lauck, themselves directors of the investigations of the commission, with an official summary of their results in the form of a separate treatise. Dr. Roberts' The New Immigration, is less indebted to the work of the commission, being mainly a record of observations,

[1] It is interesting to note that the author's suggestions are very much in line with recommendations brought forward by Mr. Porter himself in The Survey of January 7, 1911.—Ed.

on the whole favorable to the new immigrant. Dr. Hourwich in Immigration and Labor and Dr. Warne in The Immigrant Invasion, consider the economic aspects of immigration chiefly, the one writer favorable, the other unfavorable to the immigrant.

Professor Fairchild's purpose is to treat immigration in all its aspects, and not simply as an "American public problem," but as a sociological phenomenon of worldwide significance. In working out his subject, however, this promise is hardly fulfilled. In practice he has kept pretty closely within the bounds of the material available to American students, and the greater part of his book is occupied with a history, description and discussion of the immigrant in America.

The book opens with a detailed historical survey of immigration to the United States, which adds many interesting and instructive bits to the gleanings already gathered from the rich field of old newspapers, documents and reports. Then follows a clear summary of Federal legislation which will be useful to the student.

Then we find chapters on the familiar topics, drawn from the familiar sources—changes in volume and racial composition, causes of emigration, social and economic status of immigrants, distribution, standard of living, wages, pauperism, crime and insanity, births and marriages, and finally a discussion of all these facts in their bearing on social welfare.

Professor Fairchild's conclusions range him on the side of the restrictionists, but not among those whose only ground of restriction is the evil done by the immigrant to the native-born population. On the contrary, he is to be credited with pointing out many of the fallacies involved in ascribing crime, pauperism and other ills to the character of the immigrant, and with showing distinctly and definitely the blame resting in our own industrial system.

Whether the immigrant does or does not debase American-born labor, the fact that he himself is living under unfavorable conditions is an evil. As the author well says: "If the American workman happens to be a foreigner, it is just as important for the welfare of the nation and of humanity that he be properly housed, fed, clothed, educated and amused as if he were a native," and "one of the strongest arguments for restriction at the present time is that the United States is not yet qualified to accept the responsibility of admitting unlimited numbers of eager seekers for advantage and giving them in fullest measure those things which they desire and which their earnest efforts merit."

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN.

HANDBOOK OF MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING
By BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH. D. Appleton & Co. 318 pp. Price $2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.14.

This volume, prepared under the direction of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City, brings together in more permanent form some of the material which has been issued by the Metz fund of the bureau under the title of Short Talks on Municipal Accounting and Reporting. These talks were prepared by Ulysses L. Leonhauser and summarized in turn the principles underlying the practice and procedure set forth in the Manual of Accounting and Business Procedure of the City of New York.

The volume just referred to was one result of the co-operation of Mr. Metz, during three years of his term as comptroller in New York, and the Bureau of Municipal Research, and was promulgated by him as an executive order under his power to prescribe the forms for keeping and recording all city accounts. The book aims to be a simple exposition of a scientific system of accounting and reporting for municipal utilities which will produce complete, accurate and prompt information at the least possible cost. It contains chapters on such subjects as revenues and expenditures, general accounting balance sheets, appropriation and fund accounts, the capital account balance sheet, sinking funds and trust funds, etc.

The book emphasizes the fact that the widespread belief that there is nothing in common between the occupation of the municipal bookkeeper and what has too often been called commercial bookkeeping is a misconception. The historic reason for the belief is that hitherto few cities have maintained any accounts other than those of appropriations—accounts which are required in order to keep the officers out of jail. Practically no accounts have been kept pertaining to subjects in which the officer as administrator and the citizen as beneficiary are interested. Few cities have kept accounts of property, stores, equipment, or even of their liabilities in full, and few cities keep operation and cost accounts. If the matters of interest which have been left out of the picture in municipal bookkeeping are supplied, the differences that now obtain between public and private bookkeeping almost melt away.

The volume outlines a system which, with modifications, is applicable to a city of any size. As a matter of fact it has been adopted by New York, the largest American city, and by Montclair, New Jersey, a town of less than 25,000 inhabitants. In New York thousands of clerks and bookkeepers are required to assemble the records and information needed by officials and the public. In Montclair the entire system is carried out by a single bookkeeper.

The volume contains a large number of forms and an unusually complete index of almost one hundred pages.

JAMES P. HEATON.

THE REDUCTION OF DOMESTIC FLIES
By EDWARD HALFORD ROSS. J. B. Lippincott Co. 103 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

The author is known by his good work on The Reduction of Domestic Mosquitoes and The Prevention of Fever on the Suez Canal. His present book is an earnest statement of the problem of the house fly in relation to filth and infections, with many practical suggestions for its solution. He would reduce the number of flies by doing away with their breeding places.

Citing the parallel sanitary work with mosquitoes in relation to malaria and yellow fever, the author discusses the importance of domestic

flies. No exact figures are given to show the damage done by them but many of the worst cases, notably those of typhoid in the Boer and Spanish-American wars, are marshalled in convincing manner, and emphasis is directed toward illustrating the relation of flies to infantile enteritis. Chapters are devoted to familiar facts of the life history of the fly; to the natural enemies of flies, from fowls to fungi (the author concludes that man must shoulder his responsibility and himself be the greatest enemy); to methods of fly reduction and civic organization of the work, the author's position being that the whole matter must be taken on as a regular part of the public sanitation of the town, city or district; and to oppositions, which everyone who undertakes such work should read. The concluding chapter deals with Sanitary Education, Flies, and the Coming Generations—"in all schools elementary sanitation should be taught as a routine; and the facts known about flies and their danger to health should be included in the curriculum. Thus the rising generation will learn to limit disease and will grow up educated in some of the methods of saving life."

The book is full of good advice and practical suggestions, especially along the line of organization of anti-fly campaigns and the making of maps of fly-breeding places. With so much good material, the pity is that the author did not defer publication until after he had tried the reduction of flies in at least one city. As it is the book will do much to discourage fly-fighting. If England with her centuries of civilization has not perfected a system of prompt disposal of organic waste, what can be expected of the rapidly growing American city with its constant need of more money and its burden of ignorant foreign population?

If the author were in the business ot carrying on an anti-fly campaign, it is certain that he would soon relinquish his idea of killing eggs and larvae. This he would find a very difficult and expensive matter. The writer has seen fly maggots crawling about for hours in 40 per cent formaldehyde.

In the event of another edition of the book, we would earnestly call the author's attention to the very effective means of reducing the number of flies in a city by killing off the mother or over-wintering fly before it gets a chance to breed, and by the excellent system of outdoor trapping that is used with such good results in American cities.

JEAN DAWSON.

MARXISM VERSUS SOCIALISM

By VLADIMIR G. SIMKHOVITCH. Henry Holt and Co. 207 pp. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

Professor Simkhovitch has here given us an admirable summary of the arguments against Marxism. He has presented lucidly, and at times brilliantly, the conclusions which have been reached by Böhm-Bawerk, Sombart, Stammler, Bernstein, and other critics of Marx's system. The argument is well sustained throughout and the book is illumined and enriched by the fruits of a wide, desultory and curious reading.

It is impossible within the narrow limits of this review to give even an outline of the long argument. We often forget, in reading the somewhat amorphous Socialist lucubrations of the present, how neatly and powerfully compact was the original Marxist philosophy. Fifty years have undermined and forever demolished the edifice, but so integrated was the theory, so closely interlinked and interwoven were all its parts, its assumptions, its deductions, its conclusions, that an attempt to prove, disprove or even state the theory necessitates a reference to an immense and multifarious body of social facts. The magnitude of the task of worthily presenting the argument against Marx constitutes the very obstacle in the path of a brief yet adequate appreciation of the performance.

On the whole, Professor Simkhovitch has done extremely well. Despite an occasional tendency to wander into devious, though always interesting bypaths, the author maintains a sure sense of proportion and an unusual acquaintance with the whole literature of Marxist criticism, and more especially with the work of the Germans. In Chapters IV to VII he summarizes the statistics that have been rapidly accumulating during latter decades, which prove definitely that the conclusions of Marx concerning the concentration of production in industry and agriculture, the disappearance of the middle class and the inevitable increase in misery of the proletariat, were in some cases grossly exaggerated and in others incontestably false. In other chapters, Professor Simkhovitch traces the history of the class war theory, and deals exhaustively not only with this doctrine but with Marx's theory of crises and with the hypothesis of an inevitable cataclysm. In Chapter XII he presents an able argument against Marx's theory of value with a somewhat inadequate acknowledgment of his own dependence on Böhm-Bawerk.

Professor Simkhovitch sums up with the statement that "the great system of scientific socialism, which Marx had built up with so much learning and acumen" has now "become an arsenal of arguments against the coming of socialism." That realistic theory "which organized, uplifted, unified the socialist movement throughout the world" has "now turned against international, revolutionary socialism." Revisionists, today or tomorrow, will control the platforms and policies of the Socialist Parties, but what they are preaching is merely social reform. Social reform, however, "cannot arouse the passionate ardor that is kindled by the apocalyptic vision of the social cataclysm. The road to social reform is flat and dusty; the journey along it is hard and dull. It is a wise instinct, therefore, that moves the socialists who have become social reformers to cling to the earlier vision and intone, as of old, their imprecatory psalms. But the contrast between their policies and their theories, between what they do and what they say, tempts one to say of them, inverting the Biblical quotation: 'The hands are the hands of Jacob, but the voice is the voice of Esau.'"

WALTER E. WEYL.

THE TREND OF THINGS

THE National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York, publishes thirteen bulletins for the guidance of those planning exhibits. The titles and authors follow (prices vary from one to five cents, with large reductions when bought in quantity): History of the Child Welfare Exhibition Movement; Organization; Cost; Construction; Floor-Plan; Twelve Good Screens and Why They are Good; Screen Plans; Screen Plans as Filled Out by Exhibitors; Publicity Committee; Organization of Explainers; The Program; After the Child Welfare Exhibit What? Neighborhood Child Welfare Exhibits.

The bulletins are written by Charles F. Powlison, general secretary of the National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee; Anna Louise Strong, director of child welfare exhibits in Kansas City, St. Louis, Northampton, Montreal, Louisville, Providence, and Rochester; and Frank C. Myers, executive secretary of the New York Child Welfare Committee.



E. Stetson Crawford in Collier's.

THE OASIS.

THE following suggestion of a more profitable use to which to put money at present expended on war preparation comes from a peace advocate:

> In all the history of our Republic we have lost less than 15,000 men by foreign bullets. We have no enemies and began every foreign war ourselves. Every year 600,000 Americans—40 per cent of all on the death list—die needlessly from preventable causes. These precious lives, many of them of breadwinners, take in money value alone $1,000,000,000 every year from our Nation's income. These 600,000 lives are lost by tuberculosis (130,000); by typhoid (over 30,000); by violent deaths—homicide, suicide, preventable accidents (over 100,000); by starvation, exposure, poisonous milk, foul air, congestion, and other evils which money and foresight could have prevented. The last new battleship costs as much as all that is annually spent by cities, States, and Nation to remove the great white plague.

* * *

LITTLE BROTHER

MAY PRESTON SLOSSON in the *Independent*

Playing in the city street,
Little Brother!
Running errands with swift feet;
Passing me with footsteps fleet;
Ought we not to know each other—
Little Brother?

Care comes early at our call—
Little Brother;
Far too heavy burdens fall
On your shoulders slight and small.
Would that I could lift them all,
Little Brother!

In the world's relentless mart,
Little Brother,
Each must bear his manly part,
Earn his bread with toil and smart,
—But *your* courage breaks my heart
Little Brother!

Surely there are, unconfest,
(Little Brother)
Longings in your boyish breast?
Teach me how to help you best—
How we each may help the other—
Little Brother!

* * *

WOHELO is the name of the new magazine for the Camp Fire Girls. It is issued from 118 East 28th Street, New York. The first number (July) contains an article on Camp Fire Girls Symbols, by Mrs. L. H. Gulick, and a description of an auxiliary organization of the younger girls, the Blue Birds.

* * *

ARTHUR D. DEAN, chief of the Division of Vocational Schools of the New York State Education Department, makes these distinctions:

Standpatters read a pedagogy of a yesterday.
Backpatters say that everything is just lovely.
Pitapatters—well, they just pitapat!
Social-minded, progressive teachers read THE SURVEY.

"THE Outcast" by the Italian, Ada Negri, whom he characterizes as the "sister of charity of the class war," who "sings the inarticulate longings of the oppressed, the vague aspirations of the poor and the outcasts," is translated by Arturo Giovannitti in the *International*:

They're thousands, millions—I behold and wonder
What myriad hordes they are.
Their ranks that grumble like a distant thunder
Are plodding wide and far.

They drag along beneath the wintry lashes
With footsteps tired and slow;
Bare are their heads, their raiments are of ashes,
Their looks with fever glow.

They seek for me; they are arrived; their paces
Like billows of the sea;
Their sad, gray forms, their wan consumptive faces
Are encircling me.

They hide me, press me onward in their roaming;
I see their wistful eyes,
I hear their wailings in the thickening gloaming,
Their curses and their sighs.

"We come from homes that weep into the heavens,
We come from restless cots,
Whereon the body, like a dough that leavens,
Gradually molds and rots.

"We grovel from the slum and from the gutter,
And as along we go,
Our shadows cast upon the byways flutter
Like shrouds of death and woe.

"We groped and sought in vain in our confusion
For an ideal of strife,
For a belief, a dream, e'en an illusion
To justify our life.

"But they repulsed our task and our endeavor
And smote us in the dust.
Where, then, are strength and hope?
They're dead forever.
Have mercy—we have lost."

Into the light the sun is raining o'er us;
Our stifled prayers above
Bursts and ascends the festal and sonorous
Anthem of toil and love.

On snaking rails through mountain ways uncommon
The steaming monsters roar,
While industries, both arms and sinews summons
With blaring trumps of war.

A thousand lips for other lips are yearning
In passionate desire;
A thousand lives with valiant ardor burning
Leap in the furnace fire.

And we are useless .... What cold hand has thrown us
Down? Who betrayed our trust?
What somber fate has cast its blight upon us?
Have mercy—we are lost

* * *

IN the middle of April appeared the first issue of a new British weekly, the *New Statesman*, which aims to deal with public affairs from the standpoint of a "sane and practical collectivism." On the board of directors are George Bernard Shaw and Mr. and Mrs. Sidney Webb, all of whom are members of the Fabian Society. The general policy of the periodical will be Fabian, though the editors state that they intend to bring to light and to appreciate in a wide catholic spirit all those features in other projects which make for social progress. One important object which the new journal will attempt to achieve is:

> "The filling up of the many gaps which still have to be made good before collectivism can be regarded as providing a complete policy of social organization and of government. With regard to much of the work with which Parliament has to deal there is at present no developed body of distinctly collectivist thought, especially on such matters as armaments, the Government of India, the relations between the colonies and the mother country, alien immigration, fiscal policy, the liquor traffic, the relation between the state and the organization of religion."

The *New Statesman* has current comment on all events of importance, and it has sections on literature, art, music and the drama. It covers both home and foreign affairs. The address is 10 Great Queen Street, Kingsway, London.

* * *

A RECENT addition to the literature of criminology is the study of criminal physique of 1,500 prisoners in the Wisconsin State Prison, made by Dr. Rock Sleyster, physician in charge of the prison and secretary of the state medical society. The prisoners are studied in groups and by far the most significant are the figures for recidivists. In his analysis of the figures Dr. Sleyster says:

> "These show marked physical inferiority in the habitual offender. It is surprising to find them the youngest of the classes given. This is partially explained by the fact that I have included in this class the large number of young men we are receiving who have been previously committed to reform schools and reformatories. These men of an average age of 33 years lack 2.1 inches of the height of the average Wisconsin boy just out of high school, lack 2.5 inches of the height of the average American of their age and 2.7 inches of the height of the average Harvard student as reported by Professor Sargent.
>
> "They are well nourished but are markedly deficient in chest and expansion measurements. These last measurements may be partially accounted for by the lack of physical exercise in the open air while subject to previous incarceration in this and other institutions. This could not by any argument, however, account for the degree of deficiency in stature, which can be explained only as a marked and unmistakable stigma of degeneracy.
>
> "Associated with these, I find in this class the highest percentage of other physical stigmata, such as degenerate palates, ears, facial and cranial asymmetry, etc., though these are merely mentioned and not covered in this paper."

* * *

SUCH A SHAME!

Social Agitator—Isn't it a shame the way they work the help in this store? Fifteen hours a day, and wages almost nothing!"

Companion—Why do you trade here?

S. A.—Oh, they sell things so much cheaper.—*Chicago Times.*

VOLUME XXX, No. 22 WEEK OF AUGUST 30, 1913

THE SURVEY



"Grandma, what is a palm garden?"

—Donahey in the Cleveland Plain Dealer

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THE PITH OF IT

JUDGE Van Fleet, in the Diggs-Caminetti case, makes a flat footed definition of the federal white slave act, holding the crime to be transportation for immoral purpose regardless of the character of the woman transported, which had been made the basis of the defense. P. 655.

A village minister puts neighborliness and good will before church attendance and by this means brings the Christian Spirit into a village community. This is one achievement of a "community engineer" described at the rural social congress held at Amherst this month. P. 655.

BIRMINGHAM, the last of the big cities in the union to provide playgrounds for its children has joined the procession. P. 657.



NEW WORK FOR BOY SCOUTS.
Donahey in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

TUSKEEGEE takes stock of the returns on its experiment in practical rural training in an Alabama county, and finds the hut become in many cases a home. P. 657.

THE distant mountains overlooking Seattle give to one social worker a new perspective on social work and a new view of her own significance. P. 659.

AN Italian reviews the complex problem of social hygiene in America, where immigration and economic changes between them are constantly modifying our human stock. P. 659.

ELECTRICITY and its relation to dust; coal dust and its relation to dangerous gases; chimney soot and its relation to cancer—these are some of the new relations of cause and effect that the study of industrial diseases has revealed. P. 662.

THE SURVEY

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MY CONSCIENCE

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY in the *Century*.

Sometimes my Conscience says, says he,
"Don't you know me?"
And I, says I, skeered through and through,
"Of course I do.
You air a nice chap ever' way,
I'm here to say!
You make me cry—you make me pray,
And all them good things thataway—
That is, at *night*. Where do you stay
Durin' the day?"

And then my Conscience says, onc't more,
"You know me—shore?"
"Oh, yes," says I, a-trimblin' faint,
"You 're jes' a saint!
Your ways is all so holy-right,
I love you better ever' night
You come around,—'tel plum daylight,
When you air out o' sight!"

And then my Conscience sort o' grits
His teeth, and spits
On his two hands and grabs, of course,
Some old remorse,
And beats me with the big butt-end
O' *that* thing—'tel my closiest friend
'Ud hardly know me. "Now," says he,
"Be keerful as you 'd orto be
And *allus* think o' me!"

THOUGH cancer is still eradicable only by the knife, an expert believes that with the progress of research non-operative treatment will offer the hope, if not of certain cure, at least of aleviation and postponement of death. P. 664.

THE COMMON WELFARE

TOMLINSON AND DIGGS

The conviction of Maury I. Diggs by a federal jury last week in California was made the occasion by Judge Van Fleet of a flat footed definition of the exact meaning of the white slave act. The Mann act was, of course, upheld by the U. S. Supreme Court last February, but there has been difference of opinion among federal judges and prosecutors on the question of how far coercion, and what might be called the "contributory character", to adapt an industrial accident phrase, of the woman should count in bringing the man to book.

The law was drawn on broad lines—in advance of the laws of California and many other states with respect to the same class of offenders operating within their borders. It makes it a violation for any person to knowingly persuade, induce, coerce, or cause or to aid or assist any woman or girl to go from one state to another for prostitution, debauchery or other immoral purpose, with or without her consent. The maximum penalty, if the victim is over eighteen, was made five years' imprisonment and $5,000 fine; twice that amount if she is under eighteen.

As pointed out in THE SURVEY of March 8, comparatively light sentences have been imposed in different jurisdictions,—in a Pittsburgh case where the woman was an acknowledged prostitute, in a Louisiana case in which the women were negro inmates of the New Orleans levee, and in another California case in which the prosecuting attorney ventured the opinion that to make a crime of interstate transportation of prostitutes "places a premium on the daughters of our own state to be dragged into such a life".

In the Diggs-Caminetti case the defense—which will appeal—contended that no criminally immoral purpose had been proved. But on this point Judge Van Fleet all but paraphrased Kipling's "Tomlinson" in which it is borne in upon the latter's naked and yammering soul that the sins we commit two by two must be answered for one by one. Said Judge Van Fleet:

"The act, so far as here involved, provides in substance that any person who shall knowingly transport..... in interstate commerce any woman or girl for the purpose of prostitution or debauchery, or for any other immoral purpose ..... shall be deemed guilty of a felony and punished as therein provided.

"As I have heretofore intimated to you, it is immaterial what the character of the two girls involved in these charges was at the time of the acts charged. The act denounces the carrying in interstate commerce for the immoral purposes specified of any woman or girl..... regardless of whether the girl or woman who is subject of the act be lewd or chaste or whether or not the man has himself previously had intercourse with her.

"If it appears that the defendant has suggested to or attempted to induce any witness in this case to give evidence as to the facts in controversy in any respect not in accordance with the truth..... you should and may take such attempts into consideration in determining the guilt of the defendant.

"And even if you find that the defendant and his companion, Caminetti, were actuated in their departure or flight from Sacramento by a fear of exposure or arrest, but that nevertheless in taking these two girls along there existed the intention to subject them to the immoral purposes charged, the defendant is guilty."

RURAL LEADERS ON THEIR PROBLEMS

A village minister went to conduct a funeral in the rural district adjoining his town. He found a hundred people there, and on asking where they went to church was told nowhere. He had lived adjacent to this community for seventeen years, but thought it no concern of his. This time, he saw light; found that only three of the two hundred people thereabouts ever went to church; started services in the schoolhouses Sunday afternoons; discovered that these touched only those already religiously inclined; instituted various social and educational activities, among which was a county fair, with genuine agricultural exhibits, no side shows, nothing sold, only local talent and games for amusement, and

with an attendance of three thousand. To-day, after four years of this, he finds the entire community—every individual in it—possessed of a new spirit of neighborliness and good-will, and actually raised to a higher plane of living. The final test, from the churches standpoint, has been met, showing sixty-nine church members where before there were three, and every one of the two hundred people looking to the minister as friend and pastor.

This was one story of concrete achievement told at the conference for Rural Community Leaders—formerly known as Rural Social Workers—held at Amherst the first week in August. Here were discussed more general topics also, among them the unique system by which Massachusetts is making it possible for country boys of high school age to learn agriculture without leaving the farm, four-fifths of their time being put into farming under the state's supervision, at home, and only one-fifth upon book learning at school. It appeared from figures given by R. W. Stimson of the State Board of Education, that the first year of this plan, twenty-five boys, from every section of the State, earned from their farming an average of two hundred dollars, in addition to making satisfactory progress in the theory of agriculture and the other subjects of the school curriculum.

In the conference section on civic betterment, the subjects ran all the way from how to save your best landscape to a practical discussion of the new Massachusetts town housing law. Especially should be noted the discussions of the boy problem, under the leadership of Geo. D. Chamberlain of Springfield, and of the sex problems of the country boy and girl.

Mark W. Richardson, secretary of the State Board of Health made sanitation a responsibility of the rural church when he told the ministers how important a part they could play in the detection and correction of unsanitary conditions and in the education of the people in the eradication of the common communicable diseases.

The most notable innovation in the conference subjects, however, was the care and prevention of defectives. Rural conferences in the past have for the most part dealt with normal human beings and constructive problems, and therein has lain their hope; but the poor, the delinquent, the defective, have finally drawn the attention of rural workers to them, chiefly, it is true, through the medium of urban organizations. Both in the town administration section and in the women's work section, the case of the rural delinquents, dependents, and defectives was put, the cost counted, and the remedy discussed. In the former, John D. Willard, agent for the Massachusetts Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, quoted Judge Wallis of England to the effect that "the average female vagrant will at the end of a century be represented by 200 to 250 living descendents"; and urged that we "prevent the birth of children by unfit parents by preventing the marriage of such persons; break up unlawful cohabitations; create sentiment in communities; isolate, by restraint if neccessary, loose characters in the country." Mrs. A. M. Norris put it this way: "Do you realize that it takes only about 12 per cent of the present generation to produce 50 per cent of the next? Who constitute this 12 per cent? Is it our racial best?"

The section on town administration found its most vital problem in efficient management of town finance, discussion of which was led by Charles F. Gettemy, director of the Bureau of Statistics. Massachusetts has taken an advanced stand in the supervision of the finances of its town, a problem most important and most neglected by the small town, and one that is occupying more and more attention each year at the Amherst Conferences.

Only three sections met at a time during the conference. The afternoons were given to round table conferences of all the members—the first on educational problems, the second on religious problems, and the third on actual achievements of community organizations—and to demonstrations of organized play, under Laura Post of Wellesley College. The evenings were given to addresses, by Professor Wilhelm Miller of the University of Illinois, David Snedden, Massachusetts commissioner of education, Frederick Lynch, secretary of the commission on peace and arbitration of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, and Congressman A. F. Lever, author of the Lever Agricultural Extension Bill.

COMMUNITY ENGINEER vs. COMMUNITY LEADER

The dominant note struck by the Conference, in meeting after meeting, was the importance of the time element in producing lasting results in rural communities, an element which makes it necessary, where possible, to build in such a way as not to be dependent upon individuals, or even organizations. George Frederick Wells of Tyringham brought this out in a seminar meeting upon the pastor as a community engineer, where he pointed out the difference between a community worker, who pitches in and does things himself, a community leader, who gets things accomplished through others but by his own constant presence and inspiration, and a community engineer, who discovers and sets in motion causes which will operate even if he is absent. It was these basic causes, that lie beneath the individual achievements presented, which this conference came nearer to revealing than any of its predecessors.

The conference this year was made the culmination of the regular summer school, described for the first time as a School for Rural Social Workers. Included in the courses offered this summer were three on New England agriculture aspects; two on community co-operation and community development; one on the rural church; three on home economics; three on the rural school; one on play, and one on rural literature.

A longer established school for rural social workers is the School for Leadership in Country Life held under the auspices of the New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University. This is a ten days' summer school, held for the third time this year, June 24-July 4.

At the first conference in 1911, there was a total enrollment of twenty-three persons who came from five states; last year fifty-nine persons came from ten states. This year the total enrollment reached ninety persons from twenty-two states, Washington, D. C. and Toronto, Canada. The persons in attendance were farmers, farm women, rural teachers and principals, district superintendents of schools, college professors, college students, grange officers and workers, farmers' institute lecturers, farm bureau agents, rural librarian, rural social investigator, rural pastors, secretaries of rural Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, rural Sunday school superintendent, representatives of rural philanthropic enterprises, boy scout officers, country merchants, civil engineers, and kindergartners.

From the beginning the purpose of the school has been to provide courses of training for all classes of rural leaders and to offer fundamental courses that would be of value to all rural social workers, rather than to offer specialized courses for particular classes of rural workers. From the first the desirability of providing a three years' graded course leading to a certificate was forseen, and in the school this year first and second year courses were offered. Third year courses will be added to the school next year and in addition to this years curriculum courses in sanitation, hygiene and recreation will be offered.

Courses of instruction offered this year were in rural leadership, ethics, sociology, economics, social surveys, play and athletics, the farm home and the family and extension teaching in agriculture. On the faculty were J. T. Crane, acting president of the University, Liberty Hyde Bailey; G. N. Lauman, dean of the School of Leadership in Country Life; L. M. Hill, state secretary for county work of the Young Men's Christian Association; Thomas N. Carver of the United States Bureau of Agriculture; Martha van Rensselear, professor of home economics at Cornell and L. K. Mathews of the Boy Scouts of America.

BIRMINGHAM CATCHES UP TO PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT

The playground movement has been started in Birmingham, up to this summer the only playgroundless city in the United States with a population of over 100,000. Seven recreation centers have been opened under trained supervisors, and the summer work is in full swing. Of the possibilities of the Birmingham movement, Field Secretary T. S. Settle says: "There is no city in the South more in need of a recreational system than Birmingham is. There certainly isn't any other with such possibilities for developing a nearly perfect playground and recreational system. With a few thousand dollars, Birmingham can actually get better results than New York can, with millions, because of the opportunities here."

The "lay of the land" in Birmingham is especially picturesque and adapted to this plan, for it has hill and valley and wide spaces of fields and woods in very stone's throw of many schools and churches. There are twenty-one parks in the city—or rather space set aside for parks, with some small attempt at landscape gardening in a few of them.

Playgrounds have now been formed and partially equipped in Avondale, the cotton mill suburb where a zoo is also being started; at East End Park; at Woodlawn, a residence section; on the South Highlands; at Behrens Park; at East Lake; at the Neighborhood House, a settlement among the Syrians, Italians and poorer working classes of Birmingham; and finally in the grounds about the Detention Home for children, as part of the Juvenile Court.

The local movement was set on foot by William M. McGrath, secretary of the Birmingham Associated Charities, who interested the Chamber of Commerce in sending for the field secretary for the south of the National Playground Association, to make a survey of playground possibilities at Birmingham.

Having made a survey of the situation, Mr. Settle located the places best for play-grounds and submitted a report calling for fourteen recreational centers in and about the city.

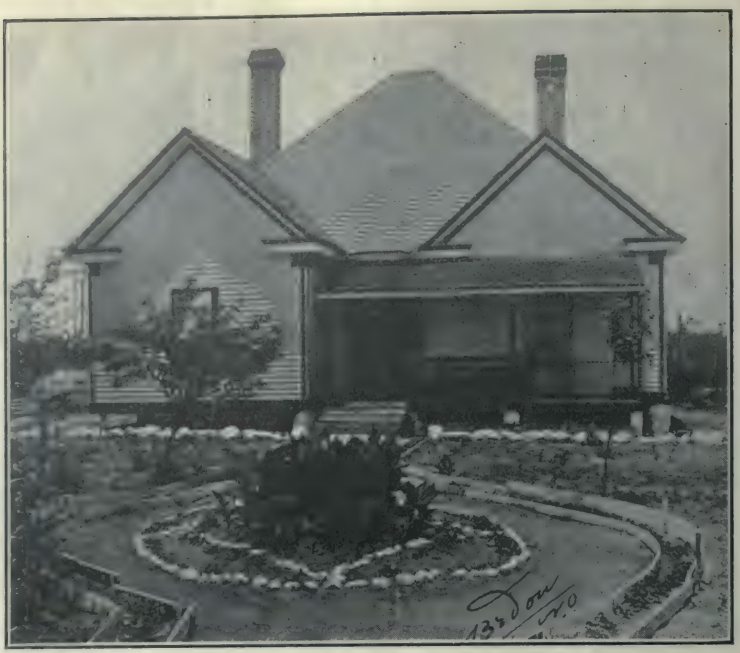
LEASE OF NEW LIFE IN NEGRO COUNTRY HOMES

Striking returns on the practical rural training given in the Negro schools of Macon County, Ala.,[1] are found in the general improvement of the home, and home life of that district shown by a recent investigation by Tuskegee.

Of old, the country folk bought their meal, flour, sugar, coffee and the like in paper sacks and in paper sacks they remained. But in these

[1]See THE SURVEY of March 15, 1913, page 837.

schools the children get the idea of a place for everything and everything in its place. Near wooden boxes, small kegs, tin boxes have been scrubbed and cleansed, some even labeled, and the foods put away in them. Canned fruit and vegetables, as a result of the school canning clubs, stand on the shelves. Paint and whitewash have found their way into the homes. The ceiled rooms are painted, some of them in two colors crudely imitating borders. Rugs of some sort are on the floors and glass windows in many places supplant the wooden shutters which open on hinges much like a door. The porches, the fences, the stables are whitewashed.



ONE PRODUCT OF THE RURAL SCHOOL MOVEMENT

On one or two porches are found equipment that would do well in the "Helpful Hints" column of a household magazine. The gospel of the tooth-brush has made itself felt. On the porch, with the well hard by, is a home-made wash-stand which contains a large hand basin. Just to the right are several towels, each in its place, while above has been nailed a long leather strap with a loop between each two nails. Each member of the family has his loop and keeps his toothbrush in it. Lest there be some confusion, some little coloring is put on the handle of each brush to distinguish it from the others. Different indeed is this from the days of the "company tooth brush" given to all guests who spent the night at the country home.

Last and most gratifying of all, in many of these homes the children have toys to play with, a rare sight in the Negro country home. While the investigating committee was at one of the homes the father came in from work and to the surprise of all present picked up his babe and fondled and kissed it. One of the ladies on the committee was so agreeably surprised that then and there she exclaimed to the man: "Well, you are the first country father that I have ever seen kiss his baby."

A few years ago in this same county, the schools were leaky, windowless and infested with vermin. The people were struggling to organize and build but knew not how. Help came in the form of a check from Tuskegee, about one-third of the total cost of one school building, together with advice and suggestion These rural folk seized a new hold on life. New or remodeled homes followed new schools, then came gardens, poultry, pigs, better furniture, happier children, and happier parents. In a word, the new schools give the rural folk the "fever of want, work and ambition."

These are the general results to the whole rural community. Of particular results in individual cases many stories are told. One mother who disapproved of her girl's wasting in school time that might be spent in "book learning," was converted at a time of domestic emergency when she found to her surprise that her daughter, whose help she had never before asked, could mend and cook and clean. The only danger is that such a girl—one who likes to make herself useful—will be unconsciously put to too much use. Another mother had a boy, a lad of 12, who took cooking in school. One day when she was ill she allowed him to cook the meals. Ever since he has regularly cooked the breakfast of the household, and has done the greater part of managing and buying the food. This gave the mother a new lease on life, as her husband had to get away early to his work, and as there were a half dozen small children to be bathed and dressed for the day.

Another mother testified of the care her boy takes of his clothes, keeping them clean and looking after buttons himself. The son of another had become an enthusiastic grower of corn, winning the rural school corn prize for two or three years in succession.

THE VISION OF THE MOUNTAINS

ELHEL HOBART
Secretary Massachusetts Association of Women Workers

Iceland poppies, gleam of snow,
Summer sunshine,—far below
Emerald waters cloudy white,
And far above, an unnamed light
On granite peaks against the blue!

I sometimes think we may not see
Completed, the reality
Of Loveliness, until the rain
Of winter blurs the world again,
And some far city's trodden way
Brings back the essence of a day
Like long forgotten dreams come true!

To those of us who crossed the Continent with the Field party to Seattle[1] it is hard to remember where the Canadian Rockies ended and the conference began. To one at least, the memory of stirring speech and the uplift of new personal contacts will be forever associated with the reflections of snow-peaked mountains in the exquisite green of Emerald Lake at sunset,—and the glowing, across Puget Sound, of Mt. Ranier like some great, magical, pink pearl. But this commingling of scenery with the main business of the day, far from proving distracting, leaves one in a curiously clarified state of mind.

To come to the conference with the vision of mountains still fresh in one's eyes, gives a rare perspective on the problems of social service. One's old limitations and new possibilities, and a high hope born of both, looms startlingly clear. One begins to realize that the "social worker" per se does not count for so very much, that social work, after all, can hardly be professionalized into one recognized calling like medicine, preaching or the law. Some of the qualities most necessary to the success of the social worker, decision, initiative, judgment may become disconcertingly exaggerated and distorted—without the perspective of a long look at distant mountains. Officiousness, a disability to mind one's own affairs, a pious conviction that we, only we the social workers, can set the world aright, are grinning ogres likely to pounce from behind the hiding place of Initiative and Decision.

Just before I left Boston one of my fellow-workers accosted a rather shabbily dressed woman in our street car.

"I don't wish to seem interfering," said she with her most tactful, friendly social-worker smile, "but I've been told that a baby as young as yours shouldn't be fed from a bottle. Cow's milk, you know—"

"Dr. R. told me to use the bottle," answered the woman patiently.

Everyone knows that Dr. R. is our best baby specialist.

My friend subsided, to thoughts, I hope, of her own department of Social Service which happens to be Savings Bank Insurance.

"The two qualities most essential to be a good social worker," said Mr. J. on the drive from Lake Louise to the Ten Peaks, "are a sense of justice and a sense of humor."

Alas! Perhaps because we are often a little overtired, we social workers grow to take life so little humorously. We forget that it is neither your work nor mine that will set the world aright, neither medical social service, probation work, child welfare, playgrounds,—but everything taken all together that is going to "do the trick." We forget that even school teachers, employers, factory hands, telephone operatives, domestic servants (and their mistresses!), may have a socialized point of view.

Social work as a profession is comparatively new: our very sense of consecration to it makes possible pitfalls—an occasional lack of humility, of vision, of humor. We must learn to live, we social workers, not by our work alone,—but by mountains and by play and by very distant vistas and far perspectives, by the touch at the National Conference with all sorts of people—"doctors (wonderful men from Portland and Spokane!), merchants, lawyers, chiefs," not professional social workers, all of them, but just people with the social point of view. Indeed, as I look back upon Mt. Ranier and long days happily companioned out-of-doors, on the enthusiasms and the convictions of the Conference, poured generously in from so many sources and so diverse, and as I look upon the tiny spoke that I call my work in the world's great wheel of progress, I wonder if the "social worker" as such exists at all.

[1]The National Conference of Charities and Correction.

RACIAL HYGIENE IN THE UNITED STATES

[From a foreigner's point of view]

GINO C. SPERANZA

IN A RECENT number of the *Rivista Coloniale* of Rome Dr. Alessandro Clerici reviews our legislation which aims at safeguarding our "native stock" against the degeneration of its racial or "national" type. The article though brief is notable not merely from the interesting manner in which it treats the subject but because of its calm and unbiased attitude towards the subject of inquiry—an attitude sadly lacking in most studies of things American by Italian writers of which Luigi Villari's recent book on the United States is a glaring example.

Dr. Clerici points out how the questions of racial hygiene in North America present themselves in a more complicated form than in Europe where the native stock of each country is well fixed and where economic changes and the evolution of customs are relatively slow. In Europe, therefore, the forces which may affect a given nationality can be easily controlled by proper legislative measures. With us, instead, immigration is so heavy that it may modify in essential elements the "parent stock" and especially that part of it which directs social movements. So, likewise, there is no doubt that customs with us are unstable and our "ideas of individual and political" morality most uncertain.

In the dangers incident to the violent changes that take place among us, Dr. Clerici finds justification for many of the radical measures which our legislators have resorted to, though they appear excessive and inopportune to many sociologists and political men of Europe. Among these measures may be cited our immigration laws, the legislation aiming at Negro separation and disfranchisement and the sterilization of criminals.

The problem of protecting our national stock is further accentuated by two factors: our falling birth rate and the numerical insufficiency of the native stock to develop our lands or to protect them for military purposes. While a falling birth rate is observable also among European nations, yet in those countries (with the possible exception of France) there is an excess of population in relation to soil resources; with us instead the "native stock" is not only scarce in relation to the possibilities of land exploitation but it has become so specialized "in industrial and business pursuits as to be now incapable of undertaking on a sufficiently effective scale our forefathers' work of improving and exploiting our land resources which constituted then greatness of power.

A decreased birth rate among Americans as ethnologists agree, does not reflect a decrease in physiological capacity, for the "Yankees," as the author tells us, are "physically inferior to no race." Yet, despite such decrease, our population is in constant increase owing to an average annual immigration to our shores of nearly one million persons. It is this alien element which gives us a supernormal index of births.

The restrictive measures of 1907 against undesirables though applied with no very definite tests, represent a fair selective principle working on this rough alien mass in justifiable response to certain civic and hygienic demands of the country. But the severity of the application of such selective process is automatically tempered by the need of the country for supplying the scarcity of the native stock. Especially severe is the physical, mental and economic examination of immigrants from certain parts of Europe either because of an especially low cultural level of the applicants or because of their especially efficient labor productiveness which would create a dangerous competition with native labor. Such restrictive legislation is also prophylactic in character excluding as it does certain alleged contagious diseases. So that in general it may be said that such legislation "quite effectively meets the object of preventing the immigrant element from lowering the hygienic level of the native stock."

Closely connected with the immigration problem is that of the Negro. Negroes, like immigrants, Dr. Clerici holds are "indispensable as labor machines and are likewise more or less undesirable as elements of manhood." To deal with this situation, Americans are pursuing a policy not unlike that followed in the case of immigrants—"a policy of tolerance mixed with suppressed hostility." This is evidenced by legislation in the southern states, keeping whites and blacks separate in all stages of life from the elementary schools to marriage. This policy of clean-cut separation according to Dr. Clerici, received the unofficial approval of the majority of the European hygienists who attended the International Congress of Hygiene in Washington. Their opinion seemed based on an alleged inferiority of brain capacity deduced in part on the alleged failure of most efforts in the last ten years to improve the mentality of the Negro. But granting that the Negro race is susceptible to a slow improvement, the author concludes that its present moral and intellectual level is so far below that of the native white that racial admixture would result in the deterioration of the white element.

Lastly, he briefly examines the legislation of some of our states for the sterilization of certain criminals and the feeble minded, and the provisions against the marriage of persons affected with certain diseases. He approves of the latter but doubts the value of the former except as a deterrent in certain small aggregations of population rather than as a hygienic remedy.

It is surprising what interest Italians in Italy are taking in the questions of immigration to our country. The Turkish war and the accretion of territorial empire for a while turned attention away from the problems of the millions of Italian immigrants that constitute an impressive "floating" Italian colony. But Italy again begins to realize that such a floating colony has more elements of real empire than Lybia and the Tripolitan coast. Interest is undoubtedly strongest as regards her sons in this country and it is encouraging to see at least one Italian who as Dr. Clerici, analyzes impersonally and with fair intent, the problems of the promised land.

HEALTH

THE theses written by students for their doctorate usually arouse the amusement of those of us who are not university professors for they seem to deal with such minute and unimportant knowledge—The Regeneration of Nerve Cells in Planarian Worms, for example, or Did the Romans say Avrum or Aurum. We are inclined to say, "What a waste of time over nothing," but after all it is careful study like this that forms the bricks of the great building of knowledge.

In sociology small bricks are needed too and therefore we look with respect on a paper that has just come into our hands, an intensive study of a small section of one ward in a Kansas town. Wilbur L. Beauchamp has made a sanitary survey of thirty-six houses in the fourth ward of Lawrence, and his study covers every possible feature which could have bearing on the physical life of the inhabitants of these houses. Like all such intensive studies it is of interest chiefly to "Fachleute," but it is recommended as a model of thoroughness and care to students who are contemplating work of this sort.

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THE Nursing and Health Branch of the Alumni Association of Teachers College, Columbia University has issued a bulletin calling attention to the profession of nursing as a field of activity for women that is growing in importance, in variety and in attractiveness. It is only the space of one woman's life since the first school for nursing was established by Florence Nightingale in St. Thomas Hospital, London, and now there are said to be in the United States alone 100,000 trained women practising this profession. In spite of this the supply is not equal to the demand, for the nurse has now made her way into all sorts of new fields and is still as necessary as ever in her old domains, hospital and private nursing.

The bulletin mentions among these new branches of work, public health nursing, including district and visiting nurses and infant welfare work, which has increased so rapidly in recent years, hospital social service, welfare work in factories and department stores, school nursing, army and navy and Red Cross nursing, and the work of district nurse in connection with home and foreign missions, while nurses have filled successfully positions as secretaries of child welfare, mental hygiene and tuberculosis societies and have also acted in the capacity of sanitary inspectors, police matrons and probation officers.

The great advantages of this vocation over others which are open to women are, first, that the training requires no large financial outlay and the graduate is sure of immediate employment; second, that no one can urge against the nursing profession the objection made to many other occupations for women, namely, that they do not help in fitting a woman for her probable future as homekeeper and mother. Hospital work gives training in household management, in cooking and dietetics, in sanitation, and in the care of children.

The bulletin concludes with practical suggestions as to the best way to enter the nursing profession and with a timely warning against the allurements of the "correspondence schools" of nursing.

* * *

THE use of anti-typhoid vaccination among children has as yet received little attention, perhaps because we do not ordinarily think of typhoid fever as a disease of childhood. Yet, according to no less an authority than Osler, this is a disease of youth and early adult life. Out of 1500 cases treated in the Johns Hopkins Hospital 231 were under fifteen years of age, and 255 were between the ages of fifteen and twenty.

In a recent issue of *The Journal of the American Medical Association,* Major Russell of the Army Medical Corps discusses the inoculation of 359 children, between the ages of two and sixteen years who have been vaccinated by fifty different physicians in many parts of the United States. No harmful effects have been reported in any of the 359 children and, so far as known, none has contracted typhoid fever, although some of the vaccinations were made over three years ago. Major Russell regards it as a particularly valuable method in the case of children and young people leaving home for summer vacations, school, college, etc.

The importance of checking typhoid among the young is shown by the fact that in the registration area of the United States there were in 1909, the last year for which complete mortality statistics are available, a total of 3,366 deaths from typhoid fever in patients under twenty years of age, out of a total of 10,722 of all ages, or almost one-third of all deaths from the disease. They were distributed according to ages as follows: under two years, 97; under three years, 139; under four years, 132; under five years, 110; five to nine years, 647; ten to nineteen years, 2,174. A very large proportion of these deaths could, without question, be prevented by the more frequent use of antityphoid vaccine.

SOME NEW OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES[1]

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A CENTURY ago, factory owners, in order to increase production and have a reliable source of energy, substituted steam for water as motive power. This was followed by industrial and social events of a far-reaching nature. The replacement of steam by electricity in modern days is no less a step in advance.

One effect of the replacement of water power by steam was dislocation of industries. Factories were no longer built upon the banks of rural streams, but in towns where labor was abundant, or in close proximity to coal fields where fuel was cheap. One of the drawbacks to the use of coal is the smoke which is created. This shuts out sunlight, and so contaminates the atmosphere as to render it less fit for breathing, while it increases the susceptibility of the respiratory organs to disease. Some of the large iron manufacturing districts in England have always a high death rate from pneumonia and acute bronchial affections. It is known that since Germany has become more industrial, her mortality rate from pulmonary diseases, other than tuberculosis, has markedly risen, and this too during a period when the number of deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis has been falling. For this rise in the mortality rate the increasingly large volumes of smoke thrown into the atmosphere are said to be answerable.

Where electricity is the motive power in factories and on railroads, the atmosphere remains clear. By substituting electricity for steam, one danger at least is thus got rid of, but electricity has dangers of its own, dangers of an acute and serious nature, and so subtle in their incidence as frequentlv and unexpectedly to entrap the unwary. We can never tell exactly what number of deaths from acute pulmonary diseases are due to the effects of smoke and fog alone. But in countries where deaths from electricity are notified, the number of persons killed, also the number of persons seriously injured, can be estimated.

In Great Britain the number of electrical accidents occurring in generating stations during 1911 was 74 compared with 58 for 1910, the number of deaths being 4 for each year. In factories the cases numbered 290 for 1911 and 275 for 1910, the deaths being 7 in 1911 and 5 in 1910.

It is interesting to note that, while in Great Britain the use of electrical energy for motive power has risen from 30,999 horse-power in December, 1902, to 774,000 in December, 1911, there has been practically speaking no increase in the number of electrical accidents since 1907. The check in the number of accidents according to the electrical inspector of factories followed the issue of draft regulations by which the attention of occupiers and engineers was directed to questions of safety.

As bearing upon the growing application of electricity to the industrial needs of France, the increasing number of persons notified as having suffered from electrical injuries is not without significance. In 1907 there were 571 persons injured; in 1908, 773; 1909, 778; in 1910, 909; while in 1911 the numbers rose to 1027.

It is no light toll which this comparatively unknown power so recently introduced into our industries is exacting from the workers. It is one in regard to the operation of which working men must be ever on their guard; for the occasions upon which electrical currents can be used, will not tend to diminish as time goes on, but to increase. Apart from its use as an illuminating agent and for motive purposes, it is impossible as yet to estimate the dangers likely to arise in industrial enterprises where electricity is becoming increasingly employed. Old methods of production in chemical works are disappearing, new methods into which electricity enters are taking their place, and these are not free from danger. Because the current can be readily turned on in a factory, electricity is a force of wide application.

There is for the student who will enquire into the subject a wide field for investigation in the electrification of dust, and how far it explains explosions occurring in factories of which no adequate cause can be found, also those occurring in coal mines, when the mines are empty.

Dust is the *bête noire* of industry. How to get rid of it is the important problem. Although dust is generally spoken of as matter in a state of fine division, it is something more than this. As a prelude to colliery explosions it is not alone that coal is present in the atmosphere in the form of extremely minute particles, but that each particle is surrounded by a layer of gas which imparts buoyancy to it and enables it to remain suspended in the air, even though it is heavier than the atmosphere. It may be perhaps on account of electrical conditions, the finely divided state of its particles, or what is more likely as the result of the operations of circumstances of which at present we know little, that coal in the form of dust and in the presence of atmospheric air or gas behaves somewhat differently to coal in bulk.

Coal when removed fresh from the mine gives off gas freely; the greater part of which is methane; so that, if dust is examined which is lying in the crevices of the rock in the mainways of a mine, it contains probably not one-tenth of the amount of methane which is present in lump coal.

[1]Presidential address read before the Congress of the Royal Institute of Public Health, Paris, May 16 last.

In coal mines there is therefore constantly going on an interchange of gases, the replacement of lighter gases by heavier and vice versa, a form of respiration in a word, which not only must have some influence upon the quality of air which the miner must breathe, but must also play not an unimportant part in the initiation and spread of colliery explosions.

Although at first sight apparently a trivial subject, the behaviour of dust in day-light and in darkness, in currents of air and in moist and dry atmospheres, also its influence upon industrial life are among the most important problems of the age.

A congress such as this could hardly meet in Paris without reference being made to white lead and its dangers. The desirability of finding substitutes for white lead especially for house decoration has for the last six years and more been the subject of serious debates in both Houses of the French Legislature. A decision has at last been reached. By the act of July 20, 1909, it is stipulated that after January 1, 1915, the use of white lead mixtures of linseed oil and lead, also of products containing white lead, is forbidden in all kinds of painting carried on by working painters whether in the interior or the exterior of buildings. Even now a large number of master painters and decorators are prohibiting the use of white lead for internal decorative purposes. At present white lead is not allowed in the painting of most of the government buildings.

The attitude assumed by France in this matter has attracted in Great Britain the attention not only of members of Parliament and social reformers, but of persons employed in the manufacture and use of paints containing lead. The Association of Paint and Varnish Manufacturers has by a series of questions issued to users and sellers of paints in England and Scotland tried to obtain opinions as to the desirability of replacing lead by some such comparatively harmless product as zinc white. Of forty-five who replied, forty-three expressed themselves in favour of white lead for the exterior of buildings; for inside work seventeen preferred zinc white to lead.

For internal decoration it seems to me there is no reason why zinc white should not be adopted, while for external painting of houses it does not appear to the majority of master painters, and these are the men who ought to know, that zinc white possesses quite the covering power and the durability of white lead. Experience alone can decide, but even if it can be demonstrated that white lead is superior for external decorative purposes, reformers will maintain that the gain is not worth the cost to human life, since among house painters there is a large amount of sickness which is preventable, while death from lead poisoning is not uncommon.

* * *

Is occupation a cause of cancer is a question not without significance at the present time, since in some countries there is a distinct rise in the mortality rate from cancer. A few years ago I drew attention to the occurrence of warts on the arms of men who were engaged in boiling and mixing oils obtained from shale, and I pointed out that the warts break down and become converted into epitheliomatous ulcers. For such a form of epithelioma one of my patients had his right forearm amputated; but the operation did not save his life, owing to secondary deposits in the internal organs.

The relationship of the products of the incomplete combustion of coal and cancer has long been known. There is a difference between raw coal and the products obtained from it during combustion. Manipulation of coal is not attended by any risk of cancer, but the handling of soot, for example, predisposes to it. In Great Britain we are familiar with chimney sweep's cancer. Something therefore is present in soot in a chemically active form which irritates the skin and leads to cancer. That the scrotal cancer of chimney sweeps is the result of irritation caused by soot is confirmed by the youthful age and occupation of its victims. Years ago Earl published notes of three cases of cancer occurring on the hands of gardeners who had been distributing soot among plants. All of these men were under thirty. Earl's father described a case of cancer of the scrotum in a boy of eight years of age, who was a chimney sweep, and Sir James Paget observed the disease of the ears of workmen who had carried sacks of soot on their shoulders.

Mortality figures show that in England and Wales cancer among chimney sweeps is twice as frequent as in occupied males generally. The comparative mortality figures for cancer among chimney sweeps between the ages of twenty-six and sixty-five was for the three years ending 1903, 133 as compared with 63 occupied males at the same ages. We must therefore admit that in chimney sweeps, occupation is the cause of cancer.

It has long been known that persons engaged in the distillation of tar and the manufacture of grease and of briquettes which contain coal tar oils, exhibit a peculiar swarthiness of the skin and are liable to warts and epithelioma.

The skin becomes dark and swarthy; then come warts followed by ulceration which assumes malignant character. Of 245 fuel workers examined by Dr. T. A. Legge, fifty-one were found to be affected by warts. These warts at first are non-malignant. They only become epitheliomatous afterward. The frequency with which malignant growths of the bladder are found in aniline workers is a subject of not less importance than the occurrence of epithelioma in chimney sweeps and in the men who make briquettes. In 1895 Rehm drew attention to the occurrence of vesical tumors in men working in fuchsine. In the fuchsine room of one factory he found two men suffering from vesical papilloma and one man the victim of sarcoma of the bladder. The men were all under forty-five years of age. By 1904, Rehm had collected data of other twenty cases of bladder tumors in

aniline dye-workers: eight were carcinoma, five papilloma and in seven the type of tumor was uncertain. In 1905 he found that in eighteen German dye-factories in which aniline and aromatic bases were used, there had been between 1888 and 1906, thirty-three cases of malignant disease of the bladder; eighteen of the men had been operated upon, the other fifteen had died; eleven of the workmen were still alive, some had had recurrences; each of the patients had been in the dye-works for twenty years or more. Leuenberger of Zurich in his monograph recently published gives the history of eighteen cases.

As the town of Basle is one of the centers of the aniline industry, it may be well to compare the number of deaths from vesical growths in aniline workers and in the male population general of Basle. Taking the ten years ending 1900 of the 5,500 male patients who attended the surgical clinique of the university, four suffered from bladder tumour. During the ten years ending 1910, 9,650 attended, of those sixteen were cases of bladder tumour, and of these ten were aniline workers and two were cloth dyers. Three-quarters of the cases of bladder tumour occurred in aniline workers and cloth dyers. We cannot look upon all this as a coincidence. It is an illustration of occupation being a cause of malignant disease, and of the necessity for bringing to bear upon trades the resources of industrial hygiene and the influence of beneficent legislation.

* * *

Just as each new invention brings its own malady, so may disease follow in the footsteps of discovery. While the discovery of Roentgen rays and of radium has been of the greatest service to the human race, men have died victims of their influence. Burning is one of the effects of radium. Death has claimed through painful suffering and prolonged illness men who have worked with Roentgen rays of high intensity. The development of epithelioma upon the hand and forearm of Mr. Edison's private assistant and which necessitated the removal by surgical operation of one forearm and later on amputation of the opposite hand, followed a few months afterwards by death of the patient, are facts well known to most of us. With other cases of cancer in radiologists we are also familiar, as well as with the thickened, cracked and painful condition of the skin of the hands observed in persons employed in this kind of work.

Inventions in keeping pace with modern requirements create dangers and risks to life in those who work them, dangers which were unforeseen and unexpected, but these need neither create in us alarm nor fill us with dismay, for the resources of man are able to supply the remedy.

THE MENACE OF CANCER

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THE cancer question is undoubtedly entitled to serious public consideration, not only because of the terrible and insidious character of cancerous affections, but also because of the constantly rising death rate, with a resulting heavy mortality in adult life. There are approximately in the United States 75,000 deaths from cancer per annum, and 2,000 a year in New Jersey. For the civilized world, upon the best obtainable returns, the number of deaths from cancer is approximately half a million a year.

Conceding all that can reasonably be said on the ground of possible inaccuracy of the statistical information, it can no longer be questioned that cancer is on the increase in the United States, though to a variable degree, according to age, sex, race and locality. The age factor is of most importance, since cancer is relatively rare in early life and quite common over forty. The average age of death from cancer of all forms is fifty-nine years for the registration area of the United States, or, respectively, sixty years for males and fifty-eight years for females.

Of the total mortality at ages of forty-five to sixty-four the proportion of deaths from cancer is 7 per cent for males and 16 per cent for females. At ages over forty-five cancer is of greater importance than tuberculosis, since the number of deaths from cancer in 1910 was 34,525 in the registration area, against 21,968 deaths from tuberculosis. The death rate from cancer increased slowly up to the age of thirty-five, subsequent to which the rate increased rapidly to the end of life, being higher throughout at ages of twenty-five and over for women, chiefly on account of the mortality from cancer of the breast and organs of generation.

The cancer death rate is apparently about the same in cities and rural districts, but information on the subject is rather misleading without the correction of deaths of cancer patients in cities from surrounding country districts. The rate is higher for the white population than for the colored, but this might be, in part at least, the result of superficial or indifferent diagnosis. Previous to the Civil War, cancer had been considered rare among the Negroes of the South, but the cancer death rates among the colored at the present time are approaching the rates for the white population, and with particular reference to cancer of the uterus the rates for colored women are in excess of the corresponding rates for white women. It would seem that cancer is exceedingly rare among Indians, and the disease also is apparently not common among the Chinese in the

[1]Summary of an address given before the Academy of Medicine of Northern New Jersey.

United States and China, or among the East Indians, including the natives of Ceylon.

Cancer death rates for different countries, while not strictly comparable, on account of the varying age constitution of the population, discloses such surprising differences that it would seem safe to conclude that local conditions are at least partially responsible for the prevalence or absence of cancer. The rate is highest for Switzerland, the Netherlands and Norway, and lowest for Jamaica, Servia and Ceylon. The United States occupies about a midway position, with a rate slightly lower than Germany and Austria and slightly higher than Ireland and New Zealand. The mortality from cancer among Europeans in Ceylon is very low.

Comparing mortality from cancer by organs and parts and according to sex, ages forty and over, it is shown in the returns for the United States registration area that the mortality from cancer of the stomach and liver is about the same for men and women; cancer of the rectum, intestines and peritoneum is more common among women, and cancer of the buccal cavity and skin is much more common among men. Excluding cancer of the generative organs and the breast, the cancer death rates of the two sexes are about the same, or, respectively, 154 per 100,000 for males and 162 for females. Aside from the cancers common to both sexes, the death rate from cancer of the generative organs among women is 80 per 100,000 of population, and of the breast 50. It is, therefore, largely the special liability of women to cancers of the generative organs and the breast that accounts for the higher death rate from cancer among women generally.

An interesting analysis is presented of the mortality from cancer by race and organs affected, on the basis of a special study of the cancer statistics of the District of Columbia. For all cancers the death rates are higher for whites than for colored, and for both sexes, except at earlier ages. For cancer of the female generative organs, however, the death rates among colored people are higher throughout every period of life, and combining all ages the actual excess in the death rate of colored women from cancer of the generative organs is 39 per 100,000 of population, or forty-six per cent. This fact of a greater liability to cancer of the generative organs on the part of Negro women is in marked contrast to the earlier and apparently quite trustworthy observations that cancer of the uterus especially had been comparatively rare during the period of slavery.

An analysis of cancer statistics by conjugal condition requires most painstaking analysis, for which data are, as a rule, not available. With special reference, however, to cancer of the female generative organs, it would seem fairly safe to conclude that such cancers are less common among single women than among married women and widows.

Regarding the alleged heredity of cancer, there would seem to be no very trustworthy statistical evidence to substantiate this point of view. Closely allied to this question is the possibility of cancer transmission from man to man, but in this case also the evidence is at present inconclusive. The German, Hungarian and Dutch investigations fail to support the theory of cancer houses or cancer neighborhoods, but more specialized and extensive investigations may furnish support to the parasitic theory of cancer and the infectious nature of cancerous affections.

More conclusive is the evidence that certain occupations predispose to cancer, particularly such as expose to coal soot and other products of coal combustion. The common occurrence of cancer among workers in tar and pitch has made necessary the adoption of special regulations for the protection of workers employed in the manufacture of patent fuel or briquettes. Much more information, however, is required before precise conclusions would be warranted concerning the special liability of certain occupations to cancerous affections.

As far as it is possible to judge, persons predisposed to cancer are above the average in weight, with a due regard to age and sex. The information, however, is hardly sufficient for final conclusions, and more extended research is necessary to establish the correlation of excess in weight to cancer occurrence.

As a source of useful information hospital statistics should be more utilized in cancer research than has heretofore been the case, but for this purpose it is necessary that uniform methods of tabulation and analysis should be adopted. The most useful statistics at present are those of Johns Hopkins Hospital, according to which the operative mortality rate in cancer has been comparatively low, and about the same for white and colored patients.

The geographical distribution of cancer, with special reference to New Jersey, shows decided variations. For illustration, a maximum rate of 126 for Hunterdon County and a minimum rate of 86 for Middlesex County. The highest rate for cities was for Morristown and Long Branch, and the lowest rates occurred in Bayonne and Englewood.

For a thorough study of the local incidence of cancer the deaths in institutions require to be re-distributed according to the patients' residence, but at present no such correction is made in the annual reports of the state board of health. The facts, however, are available and a complete analysis by townships, with a due regard to local topography cannot only be made at comparatively small expense, but such an investigation would throw much light upon one of the most important aspects of the cancer problem.

Finally, as regards the question whether the statistical evidence of an increase in cancer can be relied upon as trustworthy, it would seem that no mere improvements in diagnosis or death certification can explain the gradual rise in the cancer death rate in American states and cities during the last thirty or forty years. A special analysis of the combined statistics of American cities since 1870, and separately for New Jersey, New York and Philadelphia, sustains the con-

clusion that the increase in cancer is real and not merely apparent, as the result of improvement in statistical practices. The increase has been much greater, however, at advanced ages and particularly so at sixty and over, and for both sexes. Considering, for illustration, the cancer mortality of Massachusetts for the five years ending 1910, it appears that the cancer death rate at sixty and over has increased 99.8 per 100,000 for males and 80.5 for females. In New Jersey the rate at all ages has increased from an average of 36 per 100,000 of population during the four years ending 1882 to 70.6 during 1908-1912. In New York City the rate has increased from 54 during the first four years to 81 during the last, and in Philadelphia from 45 to 85. A similar increase has been observed in practically all civilized countries, and making due allowance for improvement in medical diagnosis and death certification, there still remains no serious question of doubt but that the liability to cancerous affections is greater at present than during the past.

The menace of cancer is, therefore, real and not imagined, and of special interest to the adult population, or those over forty years of age. Cancer is one of the most dreaded afflictions of mankind, and while much is to be said in favor of efforts to cure or alleviate the disease by non-operative treatment, the statistical evidence would seem to be in favor of the complete extirpation of cancerous tissue by operation at the earliest possible moment.

Public education on the subject is of the utmost importance, but is now almost completely neglected. A nation-wide campaign for education on the indications of incipient cancers, or even non-malignant tumors, would aid materially medical and surgical efforts to reduce the mortality from this preventable disease, with truly enormous benefits to mankind. Such educational efforts have been successful in Germany and other European countries and they would certainly be even more successful in the United States. Toward this end the work of cancer research funds and intelligently conducted investigations by associated effort would produce most useful results.

In brief, cancer is a fearful menace to civilized mankind, causing at the present time about 75,000 deaths per year in the United States and about 500,000 deaths in the civilized world. The only certain help for the disease is a thoroughly qualified surgical operation at the earliest possible moment, when the disease is first recognized, but the evidence is accumulating that non-operative treatment also offers the hope, if not of a certain cure, at least of a material alleviation of pain and a postponement of death for several years.

THE TUBERCULOSIS PREVENTORIUM

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IN THE spring of 1909, four years ago, it was decided to organize an institution for poorly nourished children exposed to tuberculous infection in their homes. At that time no such institution existed in this country. It was not mere chance, however, that brought this concept to the minds of those who were anxious to serve in a good cause, but the logical result of a realization, which was becoming more acute as the result of successive investigations, that tuberculosis is essentially a disease of childhood, that although deaths from this disease occur in adult life, infections with tubercle bacilli generally may be traced to early youth.

Tests, by means of tuberculin reactions, which had been simplified and extensively used just previous to this time, had shown that in this country, as well as abroad, a large number of children of school age gave a positive tuberculin reaction. Furthermore, it became generally known that in the great cities, such as New York, there were thousands of children far below average in physical development and slightly infected with tuberculosis, who were living under miserable hygienic conditions with members of the family suffering from communicable tuberculosis. There was no place to send these children; in the summer, some could be sheltered for a few weeks in fresh air homes; in the winter, a very few could be sent out of the city by unusual effort, but there was no institution in New York or in the United States which had as its creed the care of this large group of afflicted children. Such was the basic social condition which led to the foundation of a preventorium.

The preventorium movement is not only part of the general tuberculosis campaign, a link in a long chain, of which other links are the various sanatoria for the tuberculous, the tuberculosis dispensaries, the boats, and the camps, but it is also a link in general child welfare work.

Child welfare work must include the care of the young from birth to adolescence. It must include activities for infant welfare, school hygiene, playgrounds, nurseries, etc., and, also for preventoria. There is little wisdom in zealously pushing work in one direction if it is not balanced with progress in another; slight value in enthusiastically saving infants if no provision is made to save them from tuberculosis a few years later. The result of such well intentioned but unbalanced effort will be merely a shifting of mortality statistics, the decrease of infant mortality being in a large measure counterbalanced by increase of deaths among older children. Estimates of the number of poorly nourished, physically handicapped children in the city of New York may vary greatly, and are difficult to compile, but all estimates agree in placing these figures far in the thousands. It

is clear that at present the community can not look after such a large number of children. The preventorium has endeavored to select the most needy of this large group: the children who are not only poorly nourished, but in addition are exposed to infection in their homes. Dr. Hermann Biggs has estimated that New York City has 40,000 of these young unfortunates. If any group can be chosen as marked to fall by the wayside, it is the children of the tuberculosis poor children not only predisposed but exposed to tuberculosis. Many of them are destined to die in childhood, and thereby to nullify the efforts of those who rescued them in infancy. Others will live on to drag down the physical and mental standards of the rising generation and of the nation. So much for the position of the preventorium in child welfare work at large and in the tuberculosis campaign in particular.

At the preventorium in Farmingdale, N. J., over 150 children are accommodated. They are kept for an average period of about three months, so that the institution may provide for about six hundred children a year. In addition to a reception pavilion, where all children are quarantined for three weeks in order to prevent infection of the larger group, there are four open-air shacks each accommodating thirty-two children. There is a small infirmary, school rooms for boys and girls, a large administration building with a dining-room which seats all the children, and, last but not least, 170 acres of land in the sandy pine belt, over which the children may roam and play.

The plan of treatment is simple: Plenty of good food, a twenty-four-hour day in the open air, an intimate acquaintanceship with the fields and the woods, and a practical lesson in cleanliness and hygiene. The children, as may be imagined, gain in weight, improve in physical condition, bearing, mentality, and spirits. Indeed, in some cases such a metamorphosis takes place, that it is difficult to realize that the same child is being discharged, who was examined some few months previously upon admission. The average gain in weight has been about seven pounds. There have been some phenomenal gains in weight, a few of twenty-five pounds.

Children are accepted between the ages of four and fourteen years, which makes it necessary to provide school instruction for them, so that they do not fall behind in their studies, when they return to school in the city. There are at the preventorium three licensed teachers, and a two-hour school period is provided. This amount of instruction—ten hours a week——has been found sufficient to keep the children up to public school grade. If it were deemed wise to increase the period of instruction, many of these children could be advanced a class. This mental invigoration of the children may be attributed partly to the improvement of their physical condition, and in part to the stimulating effect of the open-air school. In this connection, it may be said that the preventorium's records show that the children are one grade in scholarship below the nominal standing for their age. Many of them are even more backward, thus exemplifying how physical and mental vigor go hand in hand.

In addition to the general instruction which is conducted along the lines of that in the public school, girls are instructed in sewing. In the summer the boys work at gardening, and almost all children do chores in the shacks or in the dining-room.

A preventorium to do its full amount of good should be closely associated with the other anti-tuberculosis activities of the community. Institutions have become so numerous, and the problem of caring for the sick and needy so complex, that any organization which attempts to stand alone is apt rather to block than to favor the wheels of progress.

The work of the Farmingdale preventorium is intimately interlocked with that of the many tuberculosis clinics in the various boroughs of New York. These clinics, under the direction of Dr. James Alexander Miller, are the admitting stations of the institution and their chiefs act as its admitting physicians. They recommend children for admission to the institution, selecting the children of tuberculous adults who come to them for treatment. All the children are examined before they are finally accepted for admission, at the hospital admission bureau, the central office of New York for all activities concerned with tuberclulosis.

During the three to six months' stay of the children at Farmingdale conditions in their homes are investigated. This is one of the most difficult problems encountered in the work. There are some homes that are impossible to improve. Others can be bettered by sending the tuberculous member of the family to a sanatorium by giving instruction on cleanliness, hygiene, and the proper disposal of sputum,, by considering their needs with relief organizations and obtaining aid or additional assistance. Every six months after release the children are revisited in the home, and their physical condition and surroundings noted.

In a large metropolis with a heterogeneous population such as New York, follow-up work is enmeshed with difficulties; the people move so frequently that they are lost sight of. At first this important work was greatly handicapped by the failure to locate families, but more recently, since upon admission there have been recorded not only the home address of the child, but in addition two other addresses of friends or relatives to whom reference can be made for information, our records show fewer lacunae in this respect. If a child is found not to be doing well, a second or even a third visit to the preventorium is recommended. Many children have been at Farmingdale more than once; they are welcomed for a second time if their condition shows retrogression.

It is premature to attempt to present in statistical form, results of the preventorium's work. However, it may safely be said that these children maintain their improvement in weight and strength surprisingly well; that they are taught a lesson in hygiene, and that a method of living is demonstrated to them which never can be blotted from their memory; that not only

the advantages but the pleasure of life in fresh air has been instilled into their very natures.

In addition to the care of the children, the preventorium for the next few years has been lending a helping hand to the general tuberculosis campaign. It has employed, by preference, cured tuberculosis patients who have been discharged from various sanatoria. This undertaking was entered upon with some hesitation but has been demonstrated to possess marked practicabiliy. At present, there are at Farmingdal,e ten people of this class, five as attendants and five employed in other capacities. Occasionally the sad experience has been met of a patient received from a sanatorium who did not maintain her health, but on the whole, it has been successful, and Farmingdale has reason to feel much encouraged in what may be called its auxiliary tuberculosis work. Now it is considered a duty of the institution to provide for a class who are placed in the dilemma of being told that they are well, but find themselves unable to obtain suitable occupation.

Such is the preventorium at Farmingdale described in a few words. It derives its support from the voluntary contributions of friends, as well as from a per capita allowance from the city. The per capita cost has been about one dollar a day including all expenses. It is hoped that after the scope of the institution's work is understood, it may act as a stimulus to the organization of many more preventoria in the large municipalities of the country.

COMMUNICATIONS

LEAGUE OF INVESTORS

To the Editor:

I am one of the small (very small) investors who would most gratefully welcome a "white list" to help us choose the least unfair places to invest our money. I hope extremely that it can be done, and would like to become a member of any organization which would work toward that end.

Sarah N. Cleghorn.

Manchester, Vt.

THE SURVEY AS MEDICINE

To the Editor:

The Survey has been carefully read by me each week since its publication was begun. I value it as a magazine that covers the field of social service intelligently, thoroughly and broadly. With the financial backing of large capitalists; it is so free from their dictation as to publish many articles that would seem to invite their criticism.

Its handling of news concerning the Lawrence Strike seemed to be more in sympathy with the revolutionary agitators who fomented the strike than with the people whose duty it was to conserve life and liberty. But while that course hurt the feelings of the people who usually read The Survey, it proved the independence of the editorial management. It may have been like disagreeable medicine to some of us, but we cannot blame the physician whose intentions were more benevolent than wise. Sobered by that with which I do not agree, and soothed or uplifted by that which pleases, I shall continue to read The Survey with profit.

Clark Carter.

[Secretary Lawrence City Mission.]
Lawrence, Mass.

VACUUM CLEANER APPLIED TO SOCIETY

To the Editor:

Minnesota is considering a woman's reformatory. A request for inside facts led the writer to compile the data of a decade of experience. The writer's first step was to single out the reformatory girl and her class and collect the inside facts concerning them. This proved to be the wrong order of procedure. It explains why reformatory work has to be repeated again and again. The debris of the upper world falls upon the nether world after it is swept and garnished.

Our best reformatory work, and it is said to be the best in the world, is behind the old-fashioned housekeeper. In her house cleaning she cleaned the ceiling and the walls before she did the floor so as to save double work. Reformatory work should begin with the highest classes. Yes, it should begin with the best man and the best woman and not the worst. This was the truth the writer stumbled upon in searching the inner life of the sporting girl, the class most difficult to reform.

More than this it seems to the writer, after a careful study of the subject, that as our house cleaning methods have been modernized so our methods of cleaning society should also be modernized. We should have the most improved implements. It is only the person who is emptied of self-sufficiency who is fit to vacuum clean society. No matter how respectable it may be considered, we should condemn ourselves for letting our lower instincts get the better of our higher nature. The writer believes that this in other forms and under other circumstances is the root of the social evil. In respectable society we should not brand as eccentric the man who dares defy the instinct of self-preservation. The nether world demands of respectable society the highest possible ideals.

We must go to the nether world and add their kindness and loyalty to our ten commandments. We should cull the best from the codes of every nation, class and age, or better yet, listen to the "small, still voice" that may come to us through a child, the Bible or a tender conscience.

Our best institutions are on the merit system. The nether world is on a higher moral plane. The lowest habitues are willing to pay for the privilege of keeping their code of morals. How can we expect them to make progress in our care when the first thing we ask them to do in our reformatories is to take a backward step by making it pay to be good in an artificially arranged system. The discharged reformatory inmate soon finds out that one does not receive prompt pay for goodness in the outside world.

Elizabeth Jewett Easton.

St. Paul, Minn.

"PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS"

To the Editor:

Dr. Devine's article[1] on mother's pensions seems to show that even the learned doctors of our social ills may disagree, as to this matter. So perhaps it is not surprising that a plain mother may still go on thinking that such aid is in reality preventative in that it reaches the affairs of the home at a crisis, and tides them over without loss of self-respect. You see, mothers, in spite of the sociologists, feel themselves, for once, on their own ground in this matter; and in possession of all their faculties, will continue to think that as far as children are concerned, not they, but the learned doctors, are in the amateur class.

As far as care and time and money for children's needs are concerned, they, and they alone, feel that they know how imperative those needs are, and from the mere fact of being able to gain more aid for more mothers by state subsidies the idea seems to them of value. They, and perhaps they only, can also feel the importance of preserving self-respect as an asset, to be saved by the new attitude of the states. It is not, for them, "a mere sentiment and solemn pretense of changing the names of things."

Why, to most of us, is a marriage service a wholesome formality, if changing the name, if deriving comfort from legal sanction (even sometimes of a bad husband), is merely "a solemn pretense"?

The question seems to me to touch the social evil and the housing problem (as shown in Chapter IV of Miss Addams' "A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil"), the menace of child-labor, of the sweat-shops, and neglected childhood and starved motherhood on many sides. Why is a free chance to live and grow, for a child, any worse than free education? A child does not ask where things come from, at first. He only knows that he is cold, or hungry, or neglected. In the nature of the case he is dependent, on some one.

Dr. Devine asks one question, which I should like to try to answer. He asks: "Who are the sudden heroes of a brand new program of state subsidies to mothers, that they have grown so scornful of poor relief administration, of religious alms, of a thousand forms of organized benevolence, of the charity which, in all ages, organized and unorganized, has comforted the afflicted, fed the hungry, succored the widow and the fatherless?"

They are, if I am permitted to answer what I believe, the old-fashioned givers, the passing of whom Dr. Devine goes on to deplore. They are the people, too, whom Dr. Devine and The Survey are waking up, who are not satisfied to go all through life, having their ideas predigested for them; more than all, they are social workers, who have come to distrust some of the methods of social work. Starting out with a blind faith in philanthropic methods, I have found, time and again, not that the work was so much hampered as some have found it, by "investigation, the keeping of records, discriminating aid, etc.," but that the work was not exact, and not careful and that its faults were not mitigated by that human sympathy which would atone for human faults.

This is not always true, but it has become proverbial, and we see why. If we could have always with us the great people of the earth, like Miss Addams, Miss Lathrop, Judge Mack, and others, there would be no such proverbs as those the poor now murmur among themselves.

State aid, to my mind, is an advance, as showing the policy of the nation, to conserve its children and its homes, and in recognizing the mother as a factor in that campaign, for the welfare of all.

Clara Cahill Park.

Wallaston, Mass.

[1] "Pensions for Mothers" by Edward T. Devine, The Survey, July 5, p. 457.

RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION

To the Editor:

The Survey of July 26, contained Mr. Kohler's letter answering my correction of his previous misstatements with a number of additional misstatements and errors, only a few of which your limited space will permit my correcting now.

For instance, he says the average annual immigration from 1908 to 1912 was 858,597, when the official annual reports of the Bureau of Immigration shows the following annual alien admissions: In 1908, 924,695; 1909, 944,235; 1910, 1,198,037; 1911, 1,030,300; 1912, 1,017,155, making a total of 5,114,422 for the five years, or 1,022,885 per annum.

Mr. Kohler, throughout his letter and also his previous article, habitually makes the mistake of taking a part for the whole. In estimating the average annual alien arrivals, he added merely "immigrant aliens," only a part of the total arrivals as is quite apparent from table I on page 66, of the 1912 annual report, which he overlooked. Likewise in quoting the commission's report he mistakes the opinion of an investigator for the conclusions of the nine commissioners, which are to be found in a carefully prepared statement on pages 23-48 of Volume I, and on page 25 of which, in discussing the "causes" of immigration, the commissioners conclude: "A large number are induced by quasi-labor agents who combine supplying laborers to the large employers with the selling of steamship tickets. Another important agency in promoting emigration from Europe is the many thousands of steamship ticket agents and sub-agents operating in the emigrant furnishing districts of southern and eastern Europe." The commission admits the extensive use of letters by these "labor agents" and "steamship agents," but Mr. Kohler falls into the error of mistaking the meash they use for a cause.

Neither Senator Dillingham nor Professor Jenks could have possibly "publicly denied" that the commission recommended restriction by means of the literacy test, for they report (Vol-

ume I, page 48): "The commission as a whole (all nine members) recommends restriction as demanded by economic, moral, and social considerations"; and "A majority (eight of the nine members, Mr. Bennet alone dissenting) favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting undesirable immigration." Senator Dillingham argued, and a letter from Professor Jenks was read in the Senate, in favor of the literacy test and the fifty-two page Dillingham Immigration Commission bill on February 18 last, when the Senate by a vote of four to one passed the bill over the twelve-line veto. Mr. Kohler must have confused ex-Congressman Bennet with these distinguished commissioners. Of course, it is well known that Mr. Bennet was very active in Washington and elsewhere in opposition to this needed legislation, and has repeatedly made the precise statements Mr. Kohler wrongfully attributes to Commissioners Dillingham and Jenks.

Mr. Kohler is also in error in his racial fear that the reading test would keep out his people, the Jews, for every male adult Jew can read Yiddish and this dialect is specifically mentioned in the bill.

J. H. PATTEN.

Washington, D. C.

"PART TIME" FOR NEWSBOYS

TO THE EDITOR:

The newsboy offers an important problem to the vocational advisor. In every city, we have large numbers of juveniles, engaged in this, one of the worst of "blind alley" employments.

Upon the approach of maturity, the large number are forced to leave this occupation because of its unremunerative character, irregularity of hours and social undesirability. The community has then forced into its commercial and industrial activities a large number of untrained men who help to make up the ranks of the unskilled and unemployed.

A large part of this evil may be removed by apprenticeship in skilled trades under "part time" employment. Roughly, sixty to seventy-five per cent of the earnings of the average newsboy are made from four to six in the afternoon. With but small loss to his earnings, he could spend the rest of the day in the shop, and thus work out his apprenticeship. This loss may be made up in part or whole by the employer—a return equivalent to the value of the work done by the apprentice. As the boy has an income outside of his small earnings as an apprentice, he need not be deterred from entering a trade because of the low wages or of the long years of apprenticeship. The only concession on the part of the employer essential to the working out of the plan is that the boy be allowed to leave an hour or more before the usual closing time.

The newsboy deserves consideration. His condition is due practically always to the unfortunate economic condition of himself or of his family, very rarely the result of heedless choice of occupation. Disregarding the problem tends to the development of a group of inefficient citizens.

A. ROSENSTEIN.

[Holder, Newsboys' Harvard Scholarship, 1908-10; Educational Director, Boston Newsboys' Club, 1910-12.]

WHERE BEECHER SOLD SLAVE GIRLS

TO THE EDITOR:

The discussion in your pages as to whether Henry Ward Beecher's public selling of slave girls at auction was at the Broadway Tabernacle, New York, or in Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, is the ancient debate over again of the two sisters of the gold-and-silver shield. Both are right.

The New York sale of the Edmonton sisters was in the old Tabernacle in 1848, as related by Lyman Abbott. But in the family "biography" of Mr. Beecher by his son, William C. Beecher, and his son-in-law, Rev. Samuel Scoville, besides a full account of that, is the story of the sale of a pretty mulatto child, called "Pink." She had been sent north by her owner, trusting in Mr. Beecher's word that, failing the money for her redemption, she should be sent back. In Plymouth Church she was "bought and overbought," educated, named Rose Ward, and became a missionary to her people. And in June, 1856, still another—a young mother, with her two-year-old child—was similarly redeemed during a Plymouth Church Sunday morning service.

Mr. Beecher was eminently one who "practiced what he preached."

JOHN R. HOWARD.

Montclair, N. J.

HUNTING A JOB

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of May 17, I was much interested to read Hunting a Job. Many times I have wondered why such an agency as the one described, was not to be found. I am sure its need was very great and its success ought to be a foregone conclusion.

I myself was "hunting a job" some time ago and tried Young Men's Christian Associations and Boys' Club Organizations and also registered with a "social agency" but in vain. I knew there was a place where I was needed, just as much as I needed a place, but to get together, there was the rub.

This new organization ought to be the connecting link in any such contingency and I for one wish it all success and will do what I can, if there is anything I can do, to help it along. It should get into touch with all organizations and institutions of whatever kind so long as they are intended for social uplift, not only in New York city but in New York state as well. I see no reason why such organizations or institutions should not pay an annual fee of a moderate amount so that the bureau may be self supporting from the start. It should be possible through this bureau to prevent so many "misfits" being employed in social work.

GEORGE E. MARX.

[Supt. Charlton Industrial Farm School.]

Ballston Lake, N. Y.

TREND



I am the immigrant.
Since the dawn of creation my restless feet have beaten new paths across the earth.
My uneasy bark has tossed on all seas.
My wanderlust was born of the craving for more liberty and a better wage for the sweat of my face.
I looked towards the United States with eyes kindled by the fire of ambition and heart quickened with new-born hope.
I approached its gates with great expectation.
I entered in with fine hope.
I have shouldered my burden as the American man-of-all-work.
I contribute eighty-five per cent of all the labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industries.
I do seven-tenths of the bituminous coal mining.
I do seventy-eight per cent of all the work in the woolen mills.
I contribute nine-tenths of all the labor in the cotton mills.
I make nineteen-twentieths of all the clothing.
I manufacture more than half the shoes.
I build four-fifths of all the furniture.
I make half of the collars, cuffs and shirts.
I turn out four-fifths of all the leather.
I make half the gloves.
I refine nearly nineteen-twentieths of the sugar.
I make half of the tobacco and cigars.
And yet, I am the great American problem.
When I pour out my blood on your altar of labor, and lay down my life as a sacrifice to your god of toil, men make no more comment than at the fall of a sparrow.
But my brawn is woven into the warp and woof of the fabric of your national being.
My children shall be your children and your land shall be my land because my sweat and my blood will cement the foundations of the America of To-morrow.
If I can be fused into the body politic the melting pot will have stood the supreme test.

—From the publishers announcement of F. J. Haskin's Immigrant.

From the writings of Jane Addams, "a plea for more play, more pay, and more education for our factory girls and boys" has been compiled and printed for private distribution to the members of the Chicago Association of Commerce, by one of their number. Himself an employer of many women, he believes that this little pamphlet of twenty-four pages, "will interest other employers of women and boys because much is now being said about pending legislation covering hours and conditions of labor." He adds that it is sent "not with an idea that it offers a solution of pending industrial problems, but because it directs attention to the need for thought and consideration of many difficulties facing employers, which hitherto have had little thought, and not much sane discussion".

WASTE

BERTON BRALEY in *Farm & Fireside.*

Forest and field and orchard, mountains of coal and ore,
Mighty has been their bounty, limitless seemed their store;
So we have blithely squandered, so we have sacked and spoiled.
Boasting about our "progress," bragging of how we toiled,
Drunken with nature's bounty, we laid our plenteous gain
To the magic of Yankee hustle, to the vigor of Yankee brain,
And we looted the goodly forests and planted the wasteful crop,
And we hooted the careful prophet who said that the loot must stop!

But we're learning our little lesson, and we relish it not at all,
And we're paying for past excesses in bills that are far from small.
We gutted and gouged our forests—and the floods came roaring down
To ruin the farmer's acres and ravage and wreck the town.
Over and over and over we planted the same old field,
With the same old crop repeated, then sighed at the dwindling yield.
And we wasted our coal and iron, nor cared for the wealth we lost,
Till the price moved up and onward, and we growled at the added cost.

We are learning our little lesson, but we have not learned it true,
For we waste in some directions the same as we used to do.
Our natural gas we squander to poison the healthy air,
We're wasting our oil-flow blindly, and nobody seems to care.
In factory, farm and forest we're throwing our wealth away,
And the bill for our careless living our children will have to pay.
Tariff and trusts and wages are problems that must be faced,
But the greatest of all our problems is the problem of careless waste.

THE modern city is described as a City of Death, by Charlotte Perkins Gilman in *The Forerunner*:

A city licked and nibbled night and day
By sullen fires that fret behind their bars;
By myriad fires, enslaved, rebellious, filled
With smoldering hate—that blazes now and then
And men and women die, chocked, crushed, and burned.

A city piped with poison, room by room;
The small black mouth whose venom fills the air,
And men and women die, unwounded, still——. . .

A city fed with poison, milk and meat,
All the rich plenty of the fruitful earth,
All that men make, all that we needs must eat,
Even the medicine that shouts aloud
Its cure for all our ills—this poison too,
Slow, varied, indistinguishable death.

A city whose foul rivers, self-defiled,
Spread our disease to helpless water-folk,
And they, in quiet undiscerned revenge
Slay us again, with indiscriminate aim.

A city in whose streets red murder runs;
Not only sordid crime, but Juggernaut,
A thousand Juggernauts, at railroad speed,
Charging upon their victims young and old,
And careless as a cyclone of the trail
Of death and crippled ruin left behind.

A city whose own thick mephitic air
Insidiously destroys its citizens;
Whose buildings rob us of the blessed sun,
The cleansing wind, the very breath of life;
Whose weltering rush of swarming human forms,
Forced hurtling through foul subterranean tubes
Kills more than bodies, coarsens mind and soul,
Destroys all grace and kindly courtesy,
And steadily degrades our humanness
To slavish acquiescence in its shame.

POSITIVE IN HIS VIEWS

"Do you believe in a minimum wage for girls?"

"Sure, I pay it"—*Detroit Free Press.*

FROM BEHIND THE BARS

"Some men who jump at conclusions land in here," wrote Register No. 3419 in a recent issue of *Good Words*.

Good Words is a four-page monthly published at the United States Penitentiary at Atlanta, Ga., and Register No. 3419 is its editor-in-chief. The magazine has the approval of the Department of Justice, and aims at the "encouragement and educational advancement of the prisoners." "Contributed articles of verse or prose," it announces, "will be published if they are clean, pointed and meritorious, and free from objectionable matter."

Here are some sample contributions from the prisoners:

THE UPWARD TREND

By Register Number 2331

I've pondered much about the way
Men treat their fellow-men to-day,
And have concluded that if we
Will try, we can not fail to see,
The world is on an upward trend,
And crime is hastening to its end.
Some men there be—but they are few,
Compared with those who're just and true—
That frown, and scowl, and criticise,
And every generous act despise,
But there's a vast and grand array
Of men in this good world to-day,
Who gladly lend a helping hand
To him who's sinking in the sand.
The time was, not so long ago,
The only answer heard was, NO!
To all appeals sent forth by men
Who'd sunk beneath their load of sin.
But now, for every man that falls
A thousand heed his anxious calls.
Cheer up, O pessimistic friend,
The world is on an upward trend!

Our Wooden Anniversary, Five years a prisoner.

Many a man could get to the top of the ladder if somebody would only hold it for him.

One good old hymn we have never been able to sing with the right amount of enthusiasm here, is, "Blest Be the Tie that Binds."

Fine clothes are fine to behold when they enfold a beautiful character, but wrap them about a dead man and they are the charnel house of loathsomeness.

We should bear in mind that, going to prison does not degrade a man—it only publishes his degradation. The man, if guilty, has degraded himself before going there. There are, doubtless, thousands who have thus degraded themselves, but who have not yet, and, perhaps, never will, go to prison. But some time, some where, and in some way, their sins will find them out. The accounts of all men must be balanced. This is the law from which there is no final escape.

Many a man's downfall was caused by a steep bluff.

One satisfaction our folks have is the fact that they now *know* where we are nights.

The man behind us, worries us too little; the man in front of us, worries us too much. So much for human selfishness and envy.

When a man asks you for information, tell him what you know, but spare him from hearing what you don't know. He knows that already.

Centuries of example have not yet convinced the powers that be of the futility of punishment. Where one man has been reformed by punishment a thousand have been reformed by mercy. Human nature rebels against coercion. It is not difficult to lead, but very difficult to drive a man. Drive men and you will not easily gain your ends. Lead them and you will accomplish wonders. Moses, Jesus, Mohammed, Luther, and others who have accomplished things in the world, were leaders, not drivers of men.



AS ONE CARTOONIST SEES THE PURE FOOD CAMPAIGN.

The report of the third year's work of the St. Louis Committee for Social Service Among Colored People reports two notable accomplishments. One of these is a full local investigation of all industries in which colored people are employed; the other is the first report in the country on the legal segregation of Negroes. The committee, two-thirds of whose members are Negroes, has done much to put an end to discrimination against colored people in private institutions.

AT THE CLOSED GATE OF JUSTICE
JAMES D. CORROTHERS in the *Century*.

To be a Negro in a day like this
  Demands forgiveness. Bruised with blow on blow,
Betrayed, like him whose woe-dimmed eyes gave bliss,
  Still must one succor those who brought one low,
To be a Negro in a day like this.

To be a Negro in a day like this
  Demands rare patience—patience that can wait
In utter darkness. 'T is the path to miss,
  And knock, unheeded, at an iron gate,
To be a Negro in a day like this.

To be a Negro in a day like this
  Demands strange loyalty. We serve a flag
Which is to us white freedom's emphasis.
  Ah! one must love when truth and justice lag,
To be a Negro in a day like this.

To be a Negro in a day like this—
  Alas! Lord God, what evil have we done?
Still shines the gate, all gold and amethyst,
  But I pass by, the glorious goal unwon,
"Merely a Negro"—in a day like *this!*

JOTTINGS

CITIZEN TRAINING AT CORNELL

The Cornell Civic and Social Committee, organized by a group of Cornellians at last year's National Conference of Charities and Correction, with John Ihlder as chairman, has been instrumental in establishing at Cornell a course in citizenship for the year 1913-14.

Emphasis will be laid upon the opportunities provided the individual citizen to take an active, constructive part in community life, the object being to recruit among undergraduates those whose eyes have been opened to the country's problems.

Fourteen lectures will be given at the university by men who are actively engaged in civic and social work, and an equal number of recitation periods under Prof. W. F. Willcox, are provided. The subjects of the lectures are: the citizen and his community, the citizen and the homes of the community, the schools, public health, recreation needs of the community, problems of poverty, crime, labor, immigration, physical development of the community, politics, church, press, and the citizen and civic and social organizations.

The lecturers are Clinton Rogers Woodruff, National Municipal League; Edward T. Devine, Dr. Herman M. Biggs, chairman of the special health commissioners appointed by Governor Sulzer to revise the public health law of New York state; Paul U. Kellogg, Graham Taylor, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, U. S. Immigration Commission; Henry Bruere, Bureau of Municipal Research; John M. Glenn, Russell Sage Foundation; Franklin Mathews, Columbia University; Munson Havens, Cleveland Chamber of Commerce; Porter R. Lee, New York School of Philanthropy; Lee F. Hanmer and Clarence F. Perry, Russell Sage Foundation, and John Ihlder, National Housing Association.

TUBERCULOSIS SURVEY IN GEORGIA

In accordance with the terms of a bequest by the late Col. W. G. Raoul of Atlanta, Ga., $50,000 has been turned over to a board of trustees, the income to be expended for anti-tuberculosis work in the state of Georgia. Mrs. F. G. Hodgson of Atlanta is president of the board.

It is planned to expend the first year's interest amounting to about $3,000 together with $2,000 raised from the sale of Red Cross seals last year in making a preliminary survey of the state for the purpose of determining the needs in the anti-tuberculosis field. Dixon Van Blarcom, field secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis will assist in organizing the survey. After this preliminary work it is planned, if necessary, to organize a state anti-tuberculosis association in co-operation with which body the trustees for the Raoul fund will work. It is estimated that the combined receipts from the fund and the sale of Red Cross seals should reach $6,000 to $7,000 annually.

SWITZERLAND'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

The mortality from tuberculosis of the lungs in Switzerland has gradually but steadily fallen from 22.3 in 10,000 of its population in 1871 to 17 in 1910. The decrease has been more marked in the larger towns because it is there that the fight against the disease has been principally waged.

A system of secret reporting has been inaugurated which makes it unnecessary for the physician to violate his patients' confidence. The Swiss death certificate has a coupon, on which is written the name of the deceased and which

the doctor, after carefully filling in all questions on the certificate, separates from the card so that the latter contains no name. The card is mailed free of postage to the civil registrar, who transmits it to the statistical office. Berlin has adopted the same method.

With a population of 3,765,000 souls, Switzerland maintains twelve federal sanatoria with about a thousand beds for tubercular patients from the working classes. Each bed costs less than $1,100 while the expense of treatment varies from fifty to ninety-three cents a day. Forty-five centers have been established throughout the country for the information and care of people afflicted with tuberculosis. Patients who have become a serious danger to their surroundings, are removed to hospitals, until a place is found for them in a sanatorium. Prophylactic measures consist of children's school sanatoria and vacation and holiday colonies for the reception of weak, anaemic and predisposed children.

A PROGRESSIVE LEGISLATURE

"Some legislatures are created for great things, some for small,
And why some legislatures are created is not recorded at all,
But the legislature of 1913 had a legitimate call."

In this jubilant way a Michigan correspondent calls attention to the "high water mark in health conserving legislation" attained by the Legislature of his state this year. As proof that the legislators met a majority of their duties in the field of health he says:

"The Odell sterilization law; State Board of Health control of municipal water and garbage disposal; increased appropriation for health work; a hotel measure; an act strengthening the nuisance law of the state; the feeble-minded commission; prevention of blindness measure; and an epileptic colony farm are among the more important bills that were introduced and enacted into laws."

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

SEPTEMBER CONFERENCES.

AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, Colorado Springs, Colo., September 9th to 13th, 1913. Secretary, Selskar M. Gunn, 755 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

CANADIAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION Third Annual Congress, Regina, Saskatchewan, Can., September 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, R. H. Murray, Regina, Sask.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE CONFERENCE, International, Antwerp, Belgium, September 26-28, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing Miss Pauline Goldmark, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

HOUSING, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe, director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

SETTLEMENTS, Conference of. Pittsburgh, Pa., September 24-26. Sec'y, Robert A. Woods, 20 Union Park, Boston.

STUDENTS ("Corda Fratres"), Eighth International Congress of. Ithaca, N. Y., August 29-September 13, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing the Cornell Cosmopolitan Club, Ithaca, N. Y.

TOWN PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF MUNICIPAL LIFE, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, summer 1913. General Sec'y, Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association on. Ghent, Belgium, September 3-6, 1913. American Section Secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23rd Street, New York.

LATER MEETINGS.

INTERNATIONAL.

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, June, 1914. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam.

FARM WOMEN, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, England, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

PURITY CONGRESS, Seventh International. Minneapolis, Minn., November 7-12, 1913. Information can be secured by addressing World's Purity Federation, La Crosse, Wis.

NATIONAL.

ACADEMY OF MEDICINE, American. Atlantic Cty, N. J., May 29-June 1, 1914. Sec'y, Charles McIntire, Easton, Pa.

COMMISSION ON SOCIAL SERVICE OF PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH, October 13-18, 1913, New York. Address, Rev. F. M. Crouch, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York.

CONSERVATION CONGRESS, National. Washington, D. C., November 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, Thomas R. Shipp, Indianapolis, Ind.

FIRE PREVENTION CONFERENCE, National. Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 13-18, 1913. Chairman Fire Prevention Commission, Powell Evans, Philadelphia, Pa.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Seventh annual convention. Grand Rapids, Mich., October 19-25, 1913. Sec'y, A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Washington, D. C., November 14-17, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, March 5-8, 1914. New Haven, Conn. Sec'y, Henry F. Cope, 332 So. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

STATE AND LOCAL.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Fourteenth New York State Conference of. Buffalo, N. Y., November 18-20, 1913. Sec'y, Marcus A. Beeman, 105 East 22nd Street, New York.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Northampton, Mass., October 21-23, 1913. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Twenty-Second Minnesota State Conference of. Minneapolis, Minn., October 25-28, 1913. Sec'y, Miss Caroline M. Crosby, Minneapolis, Minn.

EXHIBITIONS.

INTERNATIONAL.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, San Francisco, Cal.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION. San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

SAFETY AND SANITATION, International Exposition of. New York, Dec. 11-20, 1913. Director General, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York City.

NATIONAL.

CONSERVATION EXPOSITION, National. Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

EXHIBITION OF RESCUE AND FIRST AID APPLIANCES, American Mining Congress, October 20-24, 1913. Philadelphia, Pa. Sec'y, J. F. Calbreath, Denver, Colo.

SOCIAL SERVICE EXHIBITION, Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church, October 13-18, New York.

VOLUME XXX, No. 23

WEEK OF SEPTEMBER 6, 1913

THE SURVEY

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A KIDS' GANG OF THE ORANGES WITH EDISON AS ONE OF THE BUNCH



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EDISON vs. EUCLID

HAS HE INVENTED A

MOVING-STAIRWAY TO LEARNING

WHAT THEY THINK OF IT

BEN B. LINDSEY	*JUDGE OF A JUVENILE COURT*
JOHN DEWEY	*PHILOSOPHER OF EDUCATION*
LEONARD P. AYRES	*EXPERT ON CHILD RETARDATION*
A. D. CHANDLER	*PRESIDENT OF A SCHOOL BOARD*
HENRY H. GODDARD	*DIRECTOR IN RESEARCH IN FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS*
ARTHUR D. DEAN	*EXPERT ON VOCATIONAL TRAINING*
R. R. REEDER	*SUPERINTENDENT OF AN ORPHANAGE*
MARIETTA L. JOHNSON	*EXPERIMENTER IN "ORGANIC EDUCATION"*
HENRY W. THURSTON	*FORMER CHIEF PROBATION OFFICER*

No. V

REAL BALLOT REFORM AT LAST

The Secret Mechanical Ballot Solves the Problem

Haying season in politics is just starting after the summer doldrums. Election day will soon be here—bonfires, noise, midnight crowds and all.

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Election officials, candidates, partisans and voters anxious to secure efficiency, quick and accurate returns, simplicity and economy should apply the principles of scientific management to elections. Our booklet shows why the

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Justice to the voter and the community demands that steps be taken at once to prevent the repetition this fall of needlessly clumsy election methods. Let us show you the modern way.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

MASSACHUSETTS TO STUDY ITS IMMIGRANTS' PROBLEMS

The state of Massachusetts believes it should actively help its immigrants assimilate its institutions rather than leave them to the uncertain mercies of chance and circumstance. The last Legislature created a Commission on Immigration and instructed it to "make a full investigation of the status and general condition of immigrants within the commonwealth, including their way of living, distribution, occupation, educational opportunities and business opportunities and facilities, and also their relation to the industrial, social and economic condition of all the people of the commonwealth." The commission is further instructed to make its investigations "with a view to obtaining information for the enactment of such laws as will bring non-English-speaking foreigners, resident or transient, into sympathetic relation with American institutions and customs."

This state commission will devote its attention to matters of state concern, giving no attention to Federal questions of restriction and the like. It feels that in the heartless exploitation of the immigrant, too often by men of the same race, in the lack of educational facilities adapted to the immigrant's peculiar needs, in the failure to bring the immigrant laborer to the place where his labor counts—in these and many more such questions it will have ample subjects for study.

The commission will therefore be following the main lines laid down by the New York Commission of 1908; which confined itself to internal problems of assimilation and led to the creation of a state bureau under Frances A. Kellor.

Grace Abbott, director of the Immigrant's Protective League of Chicago, has taken a six month's leave of absence from her duties in Illinois, and is acting as executive secretary of the commission. She has made exhaustive studies of immigrants in this country and before they came, and has given particular attention to the people of Southern Europe, especially Bulgarians and Greeks. According to her statement there are hundreds of cases where girls simply drop out of sight after they arrive safely at our ports of entry. Many of these undoubtedly reached their relatives and friends; many others, although they did not succeed in doing this, have, by the merest chance, found people who were kind and helped them in securing work; but from much evidence, there appears to be a large number of others who cannot be accounted for in these ways. How many real white slave tragedies are included in this list it is hard to say.

Immigrants have suffered particularly from unscrupulous employment agencies which not only overcharged them for finding employment but have been entirely indifferent to the length of the employment or the situation of the immigrant when the work was over. The commission hopes to devise some plan of state free employment bureaus, which will bring together immigrants eager to work and farmers and manufacturers eager to find workers.

The Massachusetts Commission will avail itself of data accumulated by other investigating bodies, but will supplement this information with the results of its own inquiries. Always, however, its controlling purpose will be "to endeavor to realize, in the form of bills to be enacted into law, such a code of comity as will bring the immigrant into sympathetic relation with American institutions and customs."

THE SOCIAL CENTER— CENTER OF DEMOCRACY

Throughout the Social Center week at Chautauqua, late in July, Samuel Crothers, the "gentle writer of American thought" and prophet of our best intention, was spokesman of the profoundly religious challenge of democracy and the gospel of the common ground. His addresses, in the devotional hours, gave to the week's discussions not only a spiritual background of human feeling, personal responsibility for public things, but an atmosphere of optimism and good nature.

The central feature of the conference was the address of Frank P. Walsh, chairman of the National Commission on Industrial Relations, upon the political aspect of the social center. This, his first public address since his appointment, on the commission was not only a remarkable exposition of the social center program from the view point of practical politics; it was also an assuring indication that not even John

R. Commons will bring to the work of this board a keener perception, a wider experience, or a more trustworthy instinct for justice and capacity for adjustment than this man whom Dante Barton of the *Kansas City Star* has characterized as "a restorer of faith in human nature, an unadulterated and effective American."

With Mr. Walsh the use of the common schoolhouses as centers of social organization and expression is not a matter of abstract theory but of personal first-hand acquaintance for he was the author of the law establishing the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare and has served since as its attorney. For two years he has been also vice-president of the Social Center Association of America and, during the presidential campaign of last year, headed the Social Center Bureau of the Democratic National Committee which with the other national party committees brought about the opening of school houses in New York, Chicago and elsewhere for political meeting.

Mr. Walsh held the next development in American democracy, to be the permanent primary—"the establishment of the citizenship of every community in its own buildings where men and women can discuss together questions of the day and from which shall come instructions for our legislators, a place from which shall be sent forth the names of those whom we wish to endow with high office."

Mr. Walsh pointed out that, while the direct primary is in itself a good thing, it is at the loss of the conference element that the old convention knew, and this loss can only be made good by establishing a public forum at the primary. Said he: "With every schoolhouse a permanent primary, open to all shades of political belief, I hazard the prediction that within two years it will be considered as immoral to attempt by financial contributions to campaign funds to influence the citizens' choice as it now is to attempt financially to influence the acts of legislators."

The second recent development demanding deliberate organization of the citizenship is, Mr. Walsh's analysis, the spread of the initiative and referendum which makes of the citizens themselves a legislative body. This requires opportunities for free and intelligent discussion, and such opportunities the schoolhouse offers.

So too of the change that has come over the national congress, by which senators are now to be directly elected, and congress has practically ceased to be a deliberative body. The citizens gathered in the schoolhouses must take its place. Finally, the schoolhouse must take the place of the party convention whose death knell was sounded in the last campaign.

Meanwhile, while the possibility of our shifting to delegates and representatives the responsibilities of government is growing less and less, these responsibilities are growing greater and greater, and as citizens we are now confronted with the fundamental problem of establishing justice in the production and distribution of wealth. For the solution of this problem we need such a forum as the social center in the schoolhouse offers.

THE SOCIAL CENTER AS MENTOR OF THE PRESS

The social center as supplementary to the newspaper was the theme of an address by Livy S. Richard of the Newspaper Enterprize Association, the editorial branch of the United Press. While declaring that the newspaper is indispensable and is constantly improving in trustworthiness, Mr. Richard maintained that it not only cannot take the place of neighborly discussion in the development of public intelligence, but, in its character as a privately owned institution, deriving three-fourths of its revenue from the advertiser, it needs the presence of an institution of free communication of intelligence and exchange of information in every neighborhood, as a corrective of its own suppression, distortion or misrepresentation of facts.

The particular need of rural life for such community inspiration as will come through the use of the school as the center not only of organized discussion, entertainment and recreation, but particularly as the machinery of cooperative enterprise, was the subject of an address by Herbert Quick, editor of *Farm and Fireside*.

The social center as a means of our organized adult self-education for the sake of our children was the thought developed by Julia Lathrop of the Children's Bureau. These, and an address by Josephine Preston, Washington State Superintendent of Education, on recent achievement in community organization and social center development in that state, with talks on practical problems of legislation, equipment, etc. were the formal addresses of the conference. The most important sessions of the week in a practical way came in the general discussions for which an hour was set apart each afternoon.

In these conference hours school officials and others from communities in which provision has been made or is now making for social center development took part, and discussion ranged from the splendid opportunity for civic and recreational organization that is now offered Pittsburgh through the fact that all the facilities for public recreation are coming into the

control of a broad-minded Board of Education, to the means of "drawing crowds" for social center meetings. For this latter the neighborhood civic secretary must have, said one participant, "the qualities of an intellectual fight promoter combined with those of a theatrical producer and a managing editor's nose for news, and all the time must never forget that his job is not doing things, but making it convenient for things to be doing."

Other conference topics were the relation of the social center to the vice problem and the feasibility of making public school property the common machinery through which men and women of all churches and of no church may unite for the moral betterment of civic life.

Still another session was largely devoted to the effect of the community use of school houses upon the buildings, the question of damage to property and the soiling of the buildings, and facts were adduced to show that the actual effect of this full use in various communities was to improve the buildings not only in accommodations for adult meeting but for their prime use and to better the cleaning and ventilating systems. Plans and photographs of the splendid New Trier Township High School were shown as illustration of the final result in architecture and equipment of the embodiment of the Social Center idea and practice in the public school.

Special phases of social center development, the use of the schoolhouses, polling places, employment offices, local health offices, branch libraries, motion picture theaters, came up for discussion at another session, as did also tht question of dancing in the school houses, and its wholesome feasibility where "the older people are furnishing the right sort of chaperonage, being present not to prevent the young people's having a good time, but to have a good time themselves."

A CHURCH COME INTO ITS OWN

When the Church of St. Michael and All Angels was built, at a cost of over a quarter of a million dollars, in the most squalid section of Anniston, Alabama, in the heart of the mills, machine shops and slums of the little city, there was some protest from certain of the "other half" of Anniston. "It's just a shame to put that magnificent church in such a locality." "Who will ever go there?" "Why, it's entirely too good for the people in that neighborhood. They will never appreciate it."

These were some of the things said. But the desire of its builder, John W. Noble, one of the founders of Anniston and the son of an English foundryman and machinist, was to give to the city's workers the most beautiful place in the South in which to worship. In this he succeeded in part, for the church became the pride of Anniston, its one "show place," apart from the furnaces. But for years its mission remained unfulfilled; it did not belong to the workers. Its congregation was made up for the most part of people from "the other side."

Today all this is being changed by its new pastor, Charles K. Weller. The church property covers more than a square block, and this block, useless for the people until now, Mr. Weller is transforming into a playground and athletic field. In the Sisters 'Home, a $25,000 structure directly adjoining the church, which had been idle for years, an institutional church has been started. A reading room and library has been opened here, and shower baths for the boys have been installed in the basement. A large school room has been obtained by tearing out an expensive stained glass partition, and steps are being taken to secure a teacher. All Anniston is helping the work of restoring this church to its own.



THE 1913 RED CROSS STAMPS

Last year almost half a hundred million were sold; this year the Red Cross will double the number printed.

CONFECTIONERS IN CHICAGO FIGHT GAMBLING DEVICES

The Retail Confectioners' Association of Chicago, through its committee on unfair competition, has issued a protest against the so-called "innocent" gambling devices. It has aroused sufficient co-operation to secure from the city administration a police order suppressing gambling for candy, but exempting, at the mayor's behest, dice-throwing for cigars, drinks and other merchandise:

> "Did it ever occur to you that the old time, race-track gambling was not near as bad as the gambling today tolerated by the present administration in allowing open gambling to be carried on in hotels, cigar stores, pool rooms, drug stores, saloons, barber shops, restaurants, etc., throughout the city, with dice, punch boards, raffle cards, etc., for candy and merchandise, to the detriment of the legitimate retail merchant, also the corrupting of the morals of the young man, who takes his first gambling lesson by being invited to take a chance on an innocent raffle card or punch board?
>
> "The raffle and dice games in our city are causing more hardship today than any other form of gambling ever did.
>
> "The Retail Confectioners' Association of Chicago have tried by every honorable means to stop this gambling in their product, but up to the present time have not been able to have but spasmodic action taken by our city authorities.
>
> "Don't you think something should be done to stop this great evil?
>
> "Have you given this a thought?
>
> "We ask your co-operation in suppressing this evil."

VOLUNTARY ARBITRATION VERSUS "GOING TO LAW"

For several years persons connected with welfare work in the Jewish Community of Baltimore City have deplored the large amount of petty litigation between Jews, because it was felt that the result of this constant going to law was to inculcate a lack of respect for the courts among immigrants, a hostile spirit on the part of the court officials to the litigants and their witnesses, and to create local feuds in the neighborhoods concerned, which breed much permanent bitterness.

Under these circumstances there has been organized in Baltimore under the auspices of the Hebrew Benevolent Society, the United Hebrew Charities and the Independent Order B'rith Sholon, a Jewish court of arbitration. Here disputes and cases of every kind, except those cases where arbitration is not permitted under the laws of the state, are heard impartially and patiently, and judgments rendered promptly and inexpensively.

A committee of seven administers the affairs of the court, which consists of two business men selected by the committee and a third judge selected by the parties to the dispute from among a list of rabbis prepared by the committee. Additional judges may be procured in special cases by agreement of the parties, and the payment of a fee of $2.00 for each new judge. No judge is permitted to sit in any case in which he is in any wise interested, or in which one of the litigants is related to him, unless both litigants consent to his acting in such case.

The court meets on two nights each week for the hearing of cases, but a permanent clerk is provided whose duty it is to docket all cases which may be brought to him and to advise the parties impartially as to the best manner of bringing out the testimony in their favor. The testimony may be given either in Yiddish or in English, according to the desire and ability of the witnesses, and neither party to the suit is permitted to be represented by counsel.

Of course no one can be compelled to submit himself to the jurisdiction of this tribunal, the arbitration proceedings being purely voluntary, but a successful effort is being made to arouse a sentiment in its favor among the Jewish Community, and to cause a certain loss of prestige to attach itself to a refusal to submit to the court's jurisdiction.

While the court has only been in operation for a period of about three months, and it is perhaps, too early to judge of its success, it has already given promise of much usefulness. A constantly increasing volume of cases is being heard by it, and the litigants concerned have in almost all cases accepted its ruling in good faith and with good humor.

CINCINNATI'S ICE STRIKE

The Cincinnati ice strike, which lasted three hot weeks in July, ended in a victory for the drivers, helpers, engineers and firemen of the ice companies. Even more than the garbage strike in New York, it brought out with tragic and pathetic vividness the suffering brought upon a community when some branch of the public service goes out, and raised anew the question of public suzerainty over such conflicts.

More distinctive still was the fact that it forced the municipal government, as a health measure and protection to the public, to go into the ice business—first, by buying ice and utilizing the fire department for its distribution, and finally by seizing eight of the community's largest ice plants and operating them. Incidentally, it was de-

monstrated that the city could operate an ice plant, and do so at a profit.

When the drivers and helpers went out on strike for recognition of their newly-formed union and for better wages, it soon became apparent that there would be great suffering in the city, unless drastic action were taken at once. Mayor Henry T. Hunt, Safety Director Denis F. Cash, Health Officer J. H. Landis, and Superintendent Otto P. Geier of the Department of Charities and Correction, immediately became active in the matter. They made efforts to bring the ice manufacturers and the strikers together, and several joint conferences were held, but to no avail. In the meantime the officials, spurred on by the mayor, made arrangements with a brewery, which operates the largest ice plant in the city, for the purchase of as much of its output as it could spare. This proved to be only fifty tons a day—to supply a city whose normal summer consumption amounts to 2,500 tons. The traction company was called upon for assistance, and donated the use of several work-cars to haul the ice, it being practically impossible to get drivers to move it by wagon. Every engine house on a car line was then designated an ice station. The ice was delivered there daily, and the fire fighters turned ice-men.

But fifty tons was only a drop in the bucket. The city was passing through one of the hottest spells on record, and the suffering threatened to become intense. Neither side in the strike was yielding. The engineers and firemen, in sympathy with the strikers, refused to make more ice, and agreed to remain at the plants only to keep the temperature sufficiently low to save the thousands of tons of ice in storage. This storage ice the manufacturers refused to sell to the city. A dozen breweries similarly refused to sell to the city on the ground that they were manufacturing only for their regular customers, the saloons.

The city firemen thereupon received instructions to sell the ice only to families with children, or where there was sickness. The scenes at every fire house were pathetic. No breadline ever represented so much anxiety, such eagerness to get possession of a life-saving commodity. It was not a rare sight to see prosperous business men brushing elbows in the ice-line with scavengers. Automobiles waited to rush the precious loads to the homes of the wealthy. The firemen were permitted to know no distinction. Rich and poor alike had to wait their turn in line; and when the ice gave out the rich as well as the poor were among the disappointed.

In the meantime City Purchasing Agent Stephen McGrath was busy telegraphing orders throughout the Middle West for ice. A big supply was finally secured, and this began coming into the city, sometimes at the rate of 400 tons a day or more. This relieved the stringency to a considerable extent. The ice manufacturers also sold storage ice over their platforms for an hour every day, and this, too, helped.

Then the shipments of ice into the city began to dwindle. Manufacturers in other cities began cancelling contracts, claiming they could not send more. Inquiries instituted by the city officials later led Mayor Hunt to make the charge, in a telegram to United States Attorney-General McReynolds, that the manufacturers were banded together in a trust, known as the Middle States Ice Producers' Exchange, and that they refused to ship into Cincinnati upon the direction of the secretary, a Cincinnati ice manufacturer. Hunt asked for a federal investigation. Special investigators of the Department of Justice are now at work in Cincinnati gathering evidence which will probably be placed before the federal grand jury for the southern district of Ohio.

The refrigerating engineers and firemen, failing to come to a satisfactory understanding with the manufacturers, finally abandoned the plants altogether. This meant that the ice in storage, through the increased temperature due to the non-operation of the refrigerating machinery, would melt together and become useless.

The city decided to acquire immediately as much as possible of this storage ice before it became too late. The largest ice company agreed to sell 2,500 tons stored in two plants and the union engineers and firemen agreed to go back to work at those plants for the city to keep up the temperatures and save the ice.

Even this offered no satisfactory solution to the problem of supplying ice to the people. It was found that the top layers of the stored ice had melted together, and it was necessary to attack it with picks, axes, and crowbars to break it. Scarcity of labor to do this was another serious problem.

HOW CINCINNATI SEIZED THE PLANTS

Safety Director Cash, early in the strike, had publicly declared that the city would seize and operate the ice plants, if necessary, to protect the public. Acting City Solicitor Stanley W. Merrell held that the general laws defining the powers of the Board of Health in cases of great public emergency would provide sufficient authority. He prepared a resolution, to be offered at the meeting of the board, empowering the health officer to confiscate all ice and to seize plants and operate them, as a health emergency measure. At the same time the Cincinnati Academy of Medicine held a public meeting and appointed a committee to urge the city authorities to pursue such a course.

The board adopted the resolution. Guy W.

Mallon was appointed by the health officer to take charge of the operation of the plants. Accompanied by several detachments of police, eight of the largest ice plants were seized. In several instances the police had to use axes to chop their way in. The union engineers and firemen went back as city employes, and the manufacture of ice was resumed immediately. The ice manufacturers had stated that it would take from three days to a week to get the plants running again. The city had them running in from twelve to thirty-six hours. City Auditor Ira D. C. Washburn placed auditors and clerks in charge of the financial end of the operation. Ice was being made, sold over the platforms, and distributed to the engine houses. The public, made nervous and anxious by the ins and outs of the situation, breathed a sigh of relief. Now the strike could go on indefinitely. City operation seemed a success.

On the second day of the municipal operation of the plants three of the ice companies brought suit to oust the city from their plants before Superior Court Judges Frederick Spiegel and Robert Pugh. The latter heard the testimony of the plaintiffs, but refused to grant the temporary injunction asked. The trial continued day after day. Mothers with babes in their arms came to testify in behalf of the city. They told how their babies had suffered because they could get no ice. The verdict of the coroner was introduced in the case of a baby that had died. The coroner held that the cause of death was lack of ice; that but for the ice strike the baby's life would have been saved. Lawyers watched the case with interest. The city had established a precedent in seizing the ice plants; it was now for the court to stamp this precedent with approval or set it aside.

Before a decision could be reached the strike was settled. The manufacturers conceded practically all the contested points, even though in many instances it meant that the men would go back to work at lower wages than they had been getting before they were unionized.

When the strikers returned to the employ of the ice companies, the city had been operating the plants for eleven to thirteen days. Advocates of municipal ownership point out that the city sold ice at a cost contemplated to cover only its actual expenses. This made the cost five cents for twenty pounds. The ice companies had charged, and still charge, ten cents for twenty-five pounds. A feeling of panic was converted into a sense of security when the city began operating the plants. The city made liberal use of its police powers and its other resources in securing a right of way for a commodity that is necessary to preserve life and health.

When the ice companies took back the plants several of them found that they owed the city money for operating the plants and leaving them with more ice made than they had when the strike started. Several others made claims for damages against the city. When these claims are settled and all other expenses paid, the city will still be ahead several thousand dollars, according to Mallon, although it tried only to cover expenses.

The success of the venture, and the apparent necessity for protecting the city in the future against the danger of the repetition of an ice famine, have led Mayor Hunt and Dr. Geier to launch a movement for a municipal ice plant. An effort will be made to incorporate a plank in a proposed new city charter which will give the city the necessary powers.

"A REMEMBER"

[Few of us realize that among the young men who wait on us in hotels and restaurants there may be many who are thinking and feeling as the following lines suggest. The author of these verses is a young Italian waiter—once a shoeblack—who finds in such writing the chief solace of a difficult and homesick life. The editors are sure that all who read the verses will feel the genuine emotion that leads to a search for rhythmic expression in a tongue as yet unfamiliar. It will be noticed that some of the phrases which sound most quaint to American ears are literal translations from the Italian.—Ed.]

Silent lies the nature and all,
Under the deep mistery of the dream,
While, agoing around as in fall
Shines the moon, of the sky as queen.

Shines the moon, and the stars above
In their splendor: attracts the world.
The night, in her shads of secret love,
Brings peace and the quiet of old.

Slow movement down below the valley,
Languid murmur, from the river run,
Over the hills start the calling early,
Of the birds, for the night as crown.

A breath are soft breeze moves around
Shakes the leves of the forest near
Some remembers makes my heart wonder
As the remember of the my folks dear.



A KIDS' GANG OF THE ORANGES WITH EDISON AS ONE OF THE BUNCH

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EDISON *vs.* EUCLID

HAS HE INVENTED

A MOVING STAIRWAY TO LEARNING

A SYMPOSIUM WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY WINTHROP D. LANE

A SMALL domestic animal twelve or fifteen inches long and nine inches high—four legs ending in sharp claws—body covered with long hair—rounded head—ears near top of head—whiskers—long tail.

If you should take a pencil and try to draw the animal which this description puts into your mind, you would be quite likely to get something like the sketch on the next page. This is the image which the words conjured up before a member of THE SURVEY staff. The description was intended for that of a cat, but the artist had not been told this.

Crude as the description is, it is perhaps no more so than many of the attempts to put conceptions into the minds of children by words alone. And the success of the artist, in keeping literally to the description, while failing utterly to grasp the image in the mind of the one who used the words, illustrates aptly the theories which have evoked a new force in education—a force which, say its advocates, will convert our blackboards into slate roofs and send our text books to the ragman.

This force is the motion picture—but not the kind you pay a nickel to see in a theater that caters to the general public. It is not even the so-called "educational film" showing distant parts of the world or setting forth the purposes and methods of propagandist organizations. It is the film which, if Thomas A. Edison is a prophet, will teach the elementary branches throughout the eight years of the public school; will carry the spectator into nature's laboratory, staging the laws of physics and giving line and form to the processes of chemistry; teaching arithmetic by pictures and letting grammar in through the eye.

For if a child had never seen a cat and had to depend for its notion of that animal upon some such list of characteristics as the one given above, it would be doing pretty well to come as close to the truth as the sketch shown. Yet it is upon just such data that the child does have to depend for its notion of many things—for example, of how a pump pumps. You may draw a diagram of a pump, but the very essence of a pump is movement. Unless you show movement you do not show a pump. So Mr. Edison has prepared a film showing six different kinds of pumps at work—the valves shuttling backward and forward, the water rising and falling with the movement of the handle, the spout streaming. It is all so plain, he says, that a

six-year-old of average intelligence can understand the elementary principles involved.

Rumors of what was going on in the great inventor's laboratory at West Orange, N. J., have for some time been floating to the outside world. But rumors are at best unsatisfactory things, and it was a desire to learn at first hand the nature of this revolution in education that induced THE SURVEY to go to West Orange recently and see for itself.

There was another purpose, however. Mr. Edison, if reports were true, was setting up as an insurgent in a new and technical field. Education, so far as the world was aware, was not a familiar subject to him. How far had he safeguarded himself against mistakes? What caution had he taken to shun wrong principles and to escape the dangers of a false psychology of learning? The whole value of his plans hinged upon the answers to these questions.

Accordingly THE SURVEY helped bring a party of specialists in the direction of West Orange. None welcomed them more cordially than Mr. Edison himself. Their outlook upon the training of youth was from many angles. One had long ago qualified as the leader of that movement which would reconstruct the public school so as to obtain a closer union of mental, manual and social instruction; one had turned an orphanage into an experiment station in education; another was the head of a state department of vocational training; one was an educational investigator and one a student of mental defectiveness; one had started a school of organic education in the South and another had spent years in daily contact with youthful law-breakers.

These men and women listened in Mr. Edison's private laboratory to a statement of his schemes and saw a half dozen of the films which he hopes to put into the public schools. Their comments, critical and constructive, are here published. For the first time the public is afforded the judgment of experts on the merits of the inventor's educational revolution.

But if any of these had thought that Mr. Edison was going about his work blindly, or without carefully planned methods and lines of attack, he was doomed to surprise. Early in his experimenting in this field Mr. Edison made a list of between seven hundred and a thousan subjects for scenarios. Only fifty or sixty of these have so far been put into scenario form. The procedure is to assign a subject to a specialist with instructions to prepare a scenario for class room use. Thus the habits and activities of a fly were given to one who knew all about flies, the making of Bessemer steel to one who knew all about that process. The first draft of a scenario is submitted to M. R. Hutchinson, chief engineer of the laboratory, for correction and criticism. From him it goes to William H. Meadowcroft, Mr. Edison's assistant. It is then turned over to an expert, who works up the film.

But the making of the film is only the beginning. When it is ready, the pictures are projected on the screen in the library for Mr. Edison's criticisms, which are of the most searching character. Changes, if any, are made and then various audiences are called in to see the film on the screen. One of the most helpful of these is a group of children who tell freely what impresses them. By a process of deduction this indicates what fails to "get across" to their young minds. When all this has been done, the scenario pretty likely has to be rewritten and the first film to go to the scrap heap. The process is kept up until a satisfactory film on each subject has been prepared.



WORD PICTURE OF A CAT.

To carry on this work Mr. Edison has already added to his force specialists in astronomy, chemistry, mechanics, natural philosophy, physics and many other subjects. An experienced photographer has been given *carte blanche* to take films in various parts of the world. With the staff and equipment at present available the laboratory is prepared to elucidate by motion pictures such studies as bacteriology, astronomy, botany, chemistry, entomology, forestry, geography, geology, history, horticulture, mechanics and mechanism, physics, technique of industries, arts and trades, and zoology. The scope of operations is constantly being enlarged.

If it be objected that it is an absurdity to try to teach physics to youngsters of five or six Mr. Edison's answer is to point to his film on the pump. If chemistry be held to be too abstruce, he points to the film which shows crystal formations in various chemical solutions many times magnified—some shooting like skyrockets through space, some networking and dovetailing into a solid mat, others darting out and then down until a perfect staircase is before the eye. And so on for the other subjects.

There is a touch of the romantic in the sight of this veteran inventor devoting the later years



BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

The boy sees history in the making by means of the moving picture film. There is more of heroism and patriotism in this scenario than of the pomp and circumstance of war. It is not an anti-peace film.



BEFORE THE BATTLE.



DEATH OF NELSON.



DECK OF H. M. S. VICTORY AT THE END OF THE BATTLE.

of his life to the more intelligent education of youth. Perhaps the memory of his own childhood, spent largely on the railroad where he sold newspapers as a train boy, comes back to him as he works. Having contributed so much through his work on the incandescent electric light to illumination for the physical eye, he is now hoping to turn a finer ray on the mind itself. Much has been done in the way of scientific management in the field of bodily toil. Perhaps Mr. Edison thinks of himself as the efficiency engineer reaching into the mental processes—for, of course, time-saving and greater efficiency in education are of the very essence of his dreams.

The history of his interest in motion pictures for teaching shows this. As he has watched thousands of men come and go in his West Orange shops and laboratories, some of them quite unfit for the work they all wanted to do, it has seemed to him that the dominant and fundamental deficiency among them has been an inability to think logically and consecutively. Many of them, of course, were simply too lazy to think. But even this Mr. Edison took to be largely the result of never having formed the thinking habit. By the time they reached him it was too late to give them that habit. So he has harked back to their early training and has concluded that they were not taught how to think when young.

Mr. Edison believes that up to the age of fifteen or sixteen the formation or growth of cross fibers in the brain takes place. Before this growth is ended is the time, he declares, to teach habits of thinking. If not done then the lost ground can never be recovered.

Recently he said to one of his co-workers:[1]

"Did you ever think that an infant six or eight months old has already acquired quite some knowledge? Besides being well acquainted with the family and the commissary department, the average child of that age knows a whole lot of things—sufficient, indeed, to indicate many desires and to make its displeasure known if matters are not to its liking. It can not talk or exchange ideas, but it can see, and thus the beginnings of infant life are based largely on what the eyes convey to the brain. By the time the child can talk, it has acquired an amount of knowledge that is much greater than we appreciate and probably more in extent than it ever acquires in the same period of time later in life.

"Then, when it grows old enough to go to school, we teach it twenty-six arbitrary characters and afterwards show it how to group these characters into words. Later on we attempt to show the more mature child something of nature, literature, arithmetic, art, science, all through an agglomeration of words which, if well remembered, appeal only to the ear and intellect. No wonder the processes of education are slow.

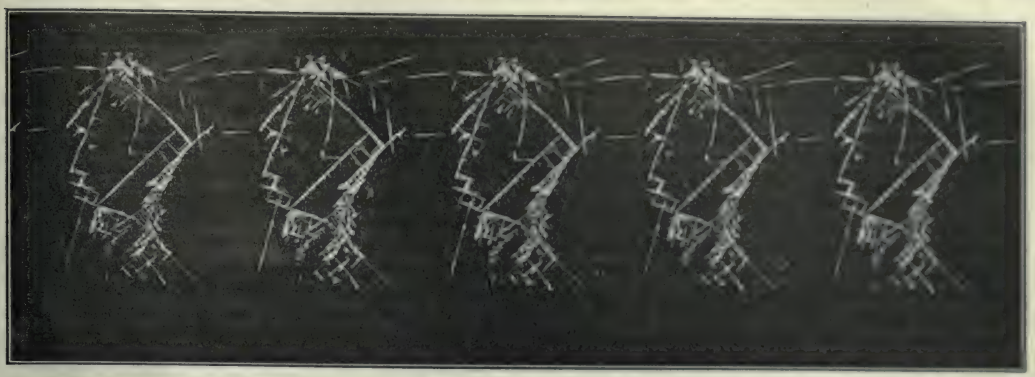
"For the sake of argument, let us suppose that the young child just learning to spell cat, dog, had never seen an animal. How could an intelligent concept of a cat or a dog be conveyed to that childish mind? Draw a picture of it, you say? Precisely. That is just what I am aiming to do as regards the education of young people, from the A B C class up to the more abstruse studies. I am not going to make drawings of things, however, but propose to show in motion pictures actual places, scenes and people of various countries, their manners, customs and amusements, their manufactures and their work generally; also the kinds of manufactures and processes in the arts and sciences; also reproductions of historical scenes, and so on."

Whoever would study the history of Mr. Edison's interest in this subject must not underestimate the influence of the interminable questions of his young son, who has lately shown much of the paternal inquisitiveness. Mr. Edison has watched the lad trying to satisfy the yearnings of his mind by knowledge derived from text books and has often seen him break the traces with a volley of questions, and more recently of experiments also, which no written word could meet. All this, of course, has set the father to thinking harder than ever. Quite possibly also, a pathetic touch has been added to his searching by his own infirmity, deafness. For this has probable made him more keenly alive to the avidity with which the brain grasps the meaning of things seen with the eyes.

But it is not only intellectual advantages which Mr. Edison sees in his motion pictures. He believes them to be potentialities for moral growth also.

"Just think," he said recently to an interviewer for the *Saturday Evening Post*, "if we give them, every day for eight years, lessons in morals by means of a stirring moving picture—lessons they can understand and like—if we do this for eight years, through the whole course, no one can estimate the moral good of it. I have noticed that the time to make good moral citizens is when the children are between eleven and twelve years, or round there. Then they are interested in everything. Their minds are awake. They want to know about everything. Then you can impress them, mold them any way you please. If you wait until they are fifteen years old most of them are gone; that is, if they have started out to be bad and were bad up to this time, and nothing was done to change them *then*—why, they are likely to be bad all their lives. But if you can catch them about that time you can impress them for all their lives and make them moral. That is one of the highest things I hope for from this moving picture teaching."

[1] This quotation is taken from an article which appeared in *Leslie's Weekly* of September 19, 1912.



SYMPOSIUM

WORDS, WORDS, THE BESETTING SIN. BY R. R. REEDER, Superintendent, New York Orphan Asylum.

The demonstration of a proposed scheme for elementary instruction given us in Mr. Edison's laboratory was the most interesting educational exhibit I have ever seen. Merely as a show it was interesting in itself, but as a new method of object teaching and as suggestive of the unlimited possibilities of the motion picture in the field of elementary education it was far more interesting.

Although the child may build very imposing superstructures upon slight foundations of sense perception, yet he is always "short" on the observation and experience side of his school instruction. The broader and richer his sense experience the more stable, serviceable and complete the structure of understanding, reason and imagination he rests and erects upon it.

The function of the motion picture as an instrument and method of education is almost staggering to the imagination. It is the closest thing to actual experience that has yet been dis covered. The discovery of the picture by Comenius was the greatest advance in education up to his time. Besides giving pleasure to the young learner it greatly extended his mental horizon, gave vision and wings to his imagination. But while the picture brought great gain in extent it frequently carried to the child mind very little of content.

Object teaching came next and has become a great aid in primary education. But object teaching loses over the picture in extent what it gains in content.

It is difficult at this stage of development to classify the motion picture as an instrument of education. That it far surpasses the still picture—which is to it a sort of mummy compared to a live man—no one who witnessed the demonstration can doubt. It is as much more than a picture as actual doing is more than observation. It is the picture quickened into life and set to work.

Among the questions and lines of investigation suggested by the demonstration were these:

To what extent can the educative process in the elementary school be reduced to observation?

What proportion of the curriculum can be shaped up into the form of motion pictures? Some subjects will not lend themselves readily or helpfully perhaps to the moving picture treatment. Some subjects may be better presented through a process of reasoning, thinking rather than seeing coming first, observation following



A SCORE OF FILMS SHOW CRYSTAL FORMATIONS IN VARIOUS CHEMICAL SOLUTIONS

rather than preceding the induction or deduction as the case may be. This, I think, would be true in teaching the theory and construction of pumps. The various kinds of pumps at work as shown in the motion picture demonstration would mean very little to the child who had not studied the laws of pump construction and motion. You cannot *see* how some things work until you *understand* the why and how of them.

How much time would be gained by this attractive and rapid method of presenting the facts of nature, of science of physics and of the various industries?

Would this method of instruction relieve the present condition of an overworked memory and to what extent?

By thus making the school experience of the child more interesting, more lucid and more intense, how much time each day would be set free for play, and in the upper grades for industrial occupation?

To what extent would instruction by motion pictures reduce truancy and retardation and hold in school those hundreds of thousands who every year drop out on account of lack of interest in study and a desire to go to work?

Notwithstanding modern improvement and enrichment of the curriculum the besetting sin of instruction is still "words, words, words." How much of this will the motion picture correct and eliminate?

I came away from the exhibit impressed with the tremendous possibilities of the moving picture in the field of elementary education. I felt that there was "millions in it," figuratively speaking, at least, and no less perhaps literally too.

LADLING LEARNING INTO CHILDREN. BY LEONARD P. AYRES, RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

IN THE BAD OLD DAYS the courses of study in our schools afforded a maximum of unpleasantness diluted with a minimum of interest. Now Mr. Edison has devised a new sort of school work calculated to supply a maximum of interest and no unpleasantness at all. In olden times pupils who learned to tolerate prolonged application to their studies found any other undertaking in life easy and agreeable by contrast. But if we should pursue our comparison and conclude that the result of using Mr. Edison's educational motion pictures will be to render all school studies so pleasant that the pupils will find any other kind of work intolerable, we should undoubtedly be in error.

The materials of the new educational device consist of wonderfully clever motion pictures of natural phenomena in motion. They portray with startling vividness the workings of pumps in which we look through transparent walls and see the valves opening and shutting, and the water rising with each piston stroke. There are transparent working models of steel converters in which the whole process developed by Bessemer is seen in vivid detail. Other films show the development of the house fly through all its different stages. The caterpillar encloses itself in the chrysalis, and later emerges a beautiful butterfly. By means of motion pictures taken through powerful miscroscopes the minutest forms of plant and animal life are seen, the development of cell growths becomes a vivid reality, and one watches in every detail the formation of the most beautiful and intricate sorts of crystals.

As each new process is portrayed, short, clear, printed sentences of explanation are thrown upon the screen. As each new object is shown, a human hand bearing a pointer carrying words of explanation, appears from the side and indicates its exact nature and significance. Nothing is left to speculation or imagination. No phase of the process or feature of the object is left unexplained or unnamed.

The educational motion pictures represent supreme success in the presentation of predigested information.

It is this characteristic which constitutes their gravest limitation as instruments of education in the public schools. Their very perfection of detail and interesting character render them dangerously convenient adjuncts of the old "pouring in" method of teaching. This method has characterized our schools for generations. Under it the teacher, orally or through the textbook, gave information to the children each day, questioned them next morning to find out how much they had retained over night, and then gave out that day's allotment of information. The children's minds were treated as though they were tanks into which large amounts of information were poured in the hope that some of it would stick. A good deal of it did stick.

The new educational motion pictures are a most convenient ladle for the pouring-in of information. Under this form of their misuse, the function of the pupils would be to sit in a darkened room while the elements of knowledge were passed before them on a screen. This would obviate the necessity of their giving voluntary attention to their lessons and relieve the teacher of the burden of teaching or assigning them.

The objection to this is that the old plan of lesson-assigning and lesson-hearing was vicious and what we want is not its perfection but its destruction. School work needs to be real instead of artificial. Manual work is being introduced into every progressive school because it enlists the interest and application of children as the mere studying of books does not.

When children work together in the planting of a garden or the making of a relief map in clay, their work is social and co-operative. When they sit silent in a darkened room they are individual and exclusive. When they are making something, material or abstract, because they need it in their business, they are active and alert. When they watch motion pictures or study books because the science period comes at 10:30, they are passive and inert. When they are doing or making something real that has an object behind and a result to come, they are ener-

getic. When they listen to, or watch, or read something that is to them artificial, they are apathetic.

Every tool can be misused. The more effective it is when rightly handled the greater is its capacity for damage when unskillfully wielded. The new motion pictures are an educational tool of great potential value and while their dangers and limitations are real, they are not inherent or unavoidable. While they may be used for the mere imparting of facts, they may also be employed to organize, to illustrate, to clarify, and to summarize knowledge which the children have acquired for themselves through the exercise of guided, intelligent inquisitiveness.

sion that a steel converter is an instrument abou eight inches high, when in point of fact it i more nearly eighteen feet.

Despite all that has been indicated, there ca be no doubt that Mr. Edison is developing a educational instrument that is destined to pla a new and most important part in school work Through it places and processes that have al ways been invisible are made visible and avail able in a compellingly interesting form. Won ders of nature, processes of industry, and achievements of science, formerly too remote o too minute or too hidden to be seen by the or dinary eye, are now within the reach of every schoolroom.



Edison's library in the laboratory building at West Orange. In one of the alcoves at the right is a cot bed where he turns in after a night of puzzle-solving. The day the school men visited him, he had worked until six in the morning and then had a nap until nine.

Whether they will in practice be used mainly to supply information or to clarify knowledge will depend partly on the skill with which they are developed in Mr. Edison's laboratories and partly on the wisdom with which they are used in the schools. If they become truly vital factors in education, it will be because they have been rendered as excellent pedagogically as they now are scientifically.

In matters of mechanical detail, many minor improvements are yet to be made. For example, in the pictures illustrating the working of the ordinary hand pump, the explanatory sentences refer repeatedly to the "up-stroke" and "down-stroke" without indicating whether the reference is to the stroke of the piston or that of the handle in the opposite direction. Again, in illustrating the internal processes of the Bessemer steel converter, the hand which holds the pointer and indicates the parts is about as long as the converter is high. This gives the impres-

PEDAGOGY PLUS SCIENCE NEEDED.

BY HENRY H. GODDARD, VINELAND TRAINING SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED.

IN CONSIDERING Mr. Edison's school film scheme from its pedagogical aspect, it would be well if we could disabuse our minds of the feeling of the marvelous which naturally attaches to the whole subject of motion pictures. Marvelous indeed is the idea of representing on a screen living and moving objects and wonderful is the mind that has been able to overcome the mechanical difficulties in the way of accomplishing it. But that marvel has little to do, and will have still less to do with the value of this as a pedagogical procedure, because as motion pictures become even more common through daily use in the school room, the whole matter will be taken as a matter of course.

Now, then, as a matter of course procedure, what is the value of the motion picture film?



At the outset of the "crystal films," a boy is shown putting salt into the test tube, and then putting the tube over the flame. This at once establishes a connection between the children in the audience and the frost-like traceries on the screen. The children of one of the officers of the Edison Company who saw the films promptly went home and tried crystal making themselves.

For a long time that will be a matter of opinion, and the party that believes its value is great will be subdivided on the method of using it. I believe that the matter is psychologically correct and a great step forward in education. But another man will tell you that real education consists in working Greek roots or mathematical formulas which cannot be done by the motion picture film. Even those who believe in the films will again be subdivided into those who prefer to use them merely as giving information; those who would use them largely as recreation and entertainment; those who would use them as a means of discipline and inciting to thought and action, and so on. In other words, Mr. Edison in supplying the motion picture film is in the position of the publisher who puts out a new anatomical chart. He may put out something that is scientifically, pedagogically correct, but the next thing is to persuade the teacher to use it and to use it correctly and wisely.

It is the same old story—real efficiency depends upon the man behind the gun. When pedagogy becomes a science because we have a body of accepted facts as a basis for our procedure, and when our educational system is manned by people who know those facts and apply them so that we have a high art of teaching or educating, then we can count on the nearly universal acceptance of any device that is based on purely scientific principles.

Fortunately, there are now a few facts known and there are a few people who appreciate those facts and are making every effort to apply them. They welcome gladly every new possibility in the way of making instruction efficient.

It is for these men that Mr. Edison must work. He must make his material as nearly pedagogically correct as our present knowledge will allow and then put it on the market to be used in the wisest way possible.

Unfortunately many people will take up with a new thing, especially with anything so fascinating as moving pictures, who will use them unwisely—not in accordance with true pedagogical principles. To that extent, the movement may be harmful, but this applies no more to motion pictures than to text-books.

All will surely agree that the motion picture has tremendous possibilities as an aid to education, partly as a time saver, because the student can get in a brief time information that would require much longer if obtained in the usual way, but largely because information obtained through a picture, especially a motion picture, is much more accurate and less liable to be misunderstood than that obtained through the printed page.

While the truth of this is recognized, its importance does not begin to be realized by any except those students of experimental pedagogy who have discovered how inaccurate and incomplete is the conception obtained from written description or even verbal description. Most of our present-day instruction really assumes that fairly accurate notions can be obtained from verbal description. That such is not the case is patent to any one who has made a few experiments or a few tests. Indeed, our daily repetitions in school and our examination papers are overwhelming evidence of this if they are viewed in the right light and the mistakes attributed to the real cause.

But pure education is not a process of imparting information. It has been too much so in the past and this is one of the dangers that the motion picture movement will encounter. The temptation to show motion pictures which will tell the whole story, even to the conclusion which should be reasoned out by the student, will be great and will surely be yieded to by the lazy teacher.

That education only is efficient which trains the student to think for himself and given certain facts, certain data from which to draw his own conclusions leads him to work out the problem himself. I think all would agree that the

films that were shown us were calculated to give information rather than to stimulate thought. For example, the pump film with its captions told everything, whereas a true pedagogy would require that the pump be exhibited in action and the student then led to give his own account of how it acted and, of course, better yet, to then go to the laboratory and make a pump for himself and use it in accordance with what he had learned from a part of the motion picture film.

But these matters are comparatively trivial. Mr. Edison only needs, as he himself realizes, some one who is thorougnly conversant with scientific pedagogy to go over his films and make the necessary corrections to prepare them for proper pedagogical use.

A far greater and more difficult problem will be the one of selection. Of the many things that are available for motion picture use, what are the most important ones to be presented from an educational standpoint? No absolute answer can be given. It is the old problem of the classification of the sciences. But here again, the educational expert, while he can not give an absolute answer, can yet make selection within limits which will be satisfactory to the educator. It would not be difficult, for instance, to decide upon a list of films which practically everybody would agree upon as essential. Another group could be named that would be practically useless for educational purposes. A third group, the intermediate, might well be prepared to be used by those who wish them.

To sum up, in my opinion, Mr. Edison's idea is of the utmost value to education. His task in carrying it out is twofold: First, to provide apparatus of such simple construction that the price is within reach of all school people and also that can be managed by the ordinary teacher, so that there is no material obstacle to its universal use; second, the preparation of a series of films that are as nearly pedagogically correct as they can be made and covering as wide a range of subjects as education may be able to use. The final selection of films and their actual method of use will have to be left to the teacher as is now left the use of the text book.

INSINCERE WORK THE ROOT OF EVIL.

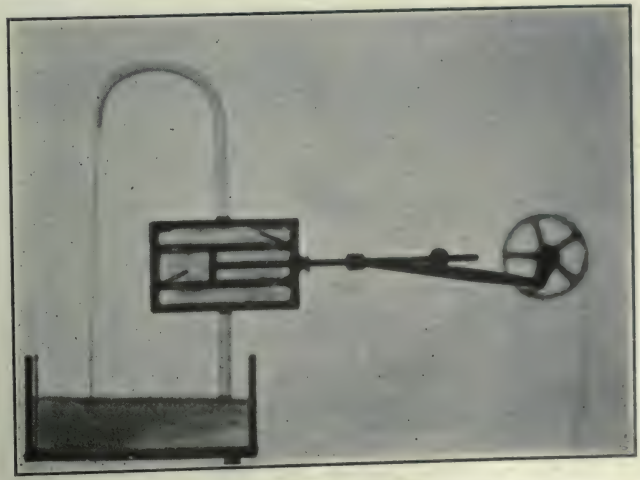
BY MARIETTA L. JOHNSON, SCHOOL OF ORGANIC EDUCATION, FAIRHOPE, ALA.

A VISIT to Mr. Edison's laboratory must fill the heart of a teacher with hope, for we are beginning to realize that learning has become a task which repels the child, instead of being a response to an inner desire, a joyous exercise of the mind following natural interests. The progressive teacher longs to find a way in which children may acquire education without the stress and strain that endangers the nervous system. Mr. Edison has found a way.

Children love to learn and will always be sincere in learning if we can only provide the proper conditions for earnest work. The beginning of the immorality which prevails today in our schools, is the forced, insincere, half-hearted work which we see is quite preventable.

The substitution of delightful experience for dreary detail study is of inestimable value. True development lies in the line of joyful experience. The nature of the child may not with impunity be thwarted. If we would have a better race, we must obey the law of development. Sincerity in study and work is the essential foundation for all moral growth. The child who experiences the events of the past by means of vivid motion pictures, is in no danger of doing half-hearted, insincere work in history at least.

The historical events which Mr. Edison portrays in a series of motion pictures must give the child a conception of the times and char-



Force pump. One of the great variety of pumps shown on the films. Glass sides enable the children to see how the valves work.

There is to be furnished to the teachers with each one of these educational films a printed explanation, so that 75% of the time will be taken up by explanation of each section of the film. The brief explanations on the films themselves are but a small part of what will be furnished to teachers.

acters which no amount of reading could do, When such a series is followed or accompanied by text book work, the true conception is assured. If the "speaking pictures" can be perfected and the historical events dramatized and presented, the study of history will become a delight comparable only to play—and who can estimate the educational value of play?

Mr. Edison's science films are a wonderful achievement. Such views arouse a deep interest in the mysteries of nature. Geology, botany, zoology, thus simplified and presented to children stimulate curiosity and interest and should result in endless investigation and experimentation.

Nature is a sealed book to the average child. Even where "nature study" occupies a place on the program, the work is often so formal as to arouse resistance instead of interest. The city child is not the only one to whom nature is unknown. The child in the country has no intelligent contact with nature, and his life is usually so barren that the pictures illustrating geography, history, science, industries and inventions would usher him into a new world.

One view such as Mr. Edison is preparing, which becomes a real experience to the child, is of more value than many word pictures, for conceptions are acquired only through experience.

FINDING A VERB VS. A FLY FILM.

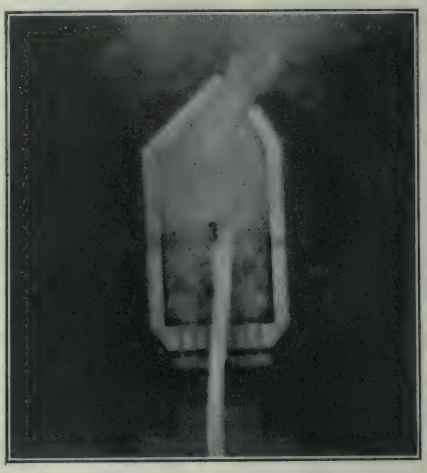
BY ARTHUR D. DEAN, NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

THE PLAN for educating school children through motion pictures has the same possibilities for success or failure as other features which have been introduced in the past into the public school system by enthusiastic supporters of new educational methods. Everything depends upon a clear understanding of the place these new methods are to occupy and the manner in which they are presented to children.

A motion picture as a tool in the furthering of the educative process, in common with other tools, may do much in training children to see, to think, to feel and to act. It would seem as though these pictures could do no more in the direction of training these functions than maps, books, charts, phonographs or any other agency run by or made by purely mechanical means. Nothing has ever been found quite to take the place of the real teacher. The Mark Hopkins boy and balanced plank idea in education still holds good and no educational machinery and systems, however perfect, will ever take the place of that ideal, if it ignores the personal equation.

Every film in our regular amusement houses attempts to "get itself over" to its audience. Its primary purpose has been to amuse. Recently films have been added which have given much useful knowledge relative to travel, physical forces, inventions and processes. But every educational film used in the school must "get it over" to the point where it becomes a part of the educative process.

Children are not in school to be entertained in the sense that they go to the "movies". Neither are they there merely to have a body of interesting and important facts presented to them simply as bits of information. They are in school in order that they may be taught not only to see, but to think; not only to think, but to feel; not only to feel, but to act. Films which simply allow children to see stimulating things without exciting the thinking processes would hardly serve the educative process. They might be entertaining and that has its value. They might be "very interesting" and that is agreeable. They might be full of suggestion and that is useful. They might be full of facts, scientific, political and ethical—yes, any one or all of these things and yet fail to train the



Making steel in the miniature Bessemer furnace. A steel man who visited the laboratories said he had never understood the process so well as when he saw it in the film. A series of films showing the great egg-shaped Bessemer in operation would admirably supplement this miniature.

mind. For example, a child might see a very interesting film relating to the movements of some form of lower animal life. The creature's whole life history might be opened up to the child through his eye, and yet if its significance were not explained to the child or if he had read nothing beforehand, or intended to read nothing about it afterwards, it is doubtful if it would be of much "educational value" to the child whose mind needs to be trained. Obviously, the trained mind of the adult, familiar with certain facts relating to lower animal forms, would be immensely stimulated by such a film.

A child might observe interesting films reproducing the Bessemer steel process or movements of airships or working parts of a locomotive, and yet nothing would result of advantage to him except a larger pile of facts unrelated to his other teaching and unrelated to his experiences past, present or future.

Again, a child might have presented to him that splendid film on "the house fly and the manure pile." He would see a great deal that a trained adult mind, conscious of the evils of open manure piles and unclean streets, would find of convincing worth. But how much does the child *see?* Unless there is some synchronized talking machine accompanying the exhibition, a previous lesson on the "housefly and the manure pile" or a "clinching" lesson after the pictures have been shown, then the "lesson" degenerates into a seeing one instead of a thinking one. As a matter of fact the child, in order to know why the fly is at work, not only ought to see it at work in the compost, but also to have his feeling stirred enough to act upon these sensations and "swat the fly" and remove the garbage.

There is a great field for educational motion pictures when they are used in connection with good teaching, which includes reading on the subject, laboratory work, and writing up the results of observation and deductions. For example, the film showing the process of manufacturing Bessemer steel would be most excellent for vocational schools but only under condition that the teacher knew something about a steel plant beyond the brief printed description which would go with the films, that before the film was shown the boys had some idea of what it was all about and, furthermore, that the class visit, if possible, an actual plant.

The grave danger will be, as in other innovations in our schools, that we shall confuse training with mere knowledge of facts. We want to train minds and not make merely human encyclopedias. Undoubtedly, it is more interesting to a child to see a picture of a fly laying an egg on a garbage heap than it is to find the subject accompanying a verb. The "use" of the latter is to train the mind and to make for clear expression. The use of the former should be to develop an observing and thinking individual who will feel that the fly and the manure pile are enemies to health and who will put his seeing, thinking, feeling powers into direct action.

CUT-AND-TRY SCHOOL METHODS.

BY JOHN DEWEY, DEPARTMENT OF PHILOSOPHY, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

MY FIRST and in some respects my deepest impression of the evening spent so enjoyably in Edison's laboratory is not directly connected with the educational value of his motion picture scheme. It is rather of the immense advantage a great commercial enterprise has over the greatest of our existing educational institutions in the matter of conducting systematically an experimental development of a new proposal before putting it into general practice.

No intimation was given of the sum of money that is being put into the development of this new undertaking. But it is clear that a large staff is employed to develop "scenarios," to make suggestions and criticisms, and to try out various schemes, in addition to the expense involved in taking the pictures themselves. A large sum of money will have been spent before pecuniary returns begin to come in—a good deal of it strictly experimental inquiry.

Where is there a school system having at command a sum of money with which to investigate and perfect a scheme experimentally, before putting it into general operation? And can we expect continuous and intelligent progress in school matters until the community adopts a method of procedure which is now a commonplace with every great industrial undertaking? Is not the existing method of introducing reforms into education a relic of an empirical cut-and-try method which has been abandoned in all other great organizations? And is not the failure to provide funds so that experts may work out projects in advance a pennywise and pound foolish performance?

That children will be immensely interested in at least the greater part of the material the Edison people prepare is sufficiently attested by the delight of the adults on the evening of our visit—to say nothing of the hold the nickel "movies" already have upon them. That Mr. Edison has a sound psychologic basis in relying upon the instinctive response of human beings to whatever moves and does something is unquestionable. So is the fact that the deadness of much existing education is due to the absence of anything moving and doing in the schoolroom. Personally I believe that Mr. Edison is in the right in his conviction that children, as well as adults, do best in and learn most from matters in which they are interested; and that there is more discipline, in the sense of actual training of power, where there is interest than where what is done is repulsive and arbitrary.

I was also impressed by the fact that, after all, *seeing* things behave is rather a vicarious form of activity, and that there is some danger of the better becoming an enemy of the best. I mean that a widespread adoption of motion pictures in schools might have a tendency to retard the introduction of occupations in which children themselves actually do things. The more hopeful view, of course, is that the former would pave the way for the latter, affording an intermediate step that in many cases would not be taken directly.

A closely associated danger is that their use will, for a time at least, strengthen the idea, already much too strong, that the end of instruction is the giving of information and the end of learning its absorption. That much mere information may be given in many subjects by Mr. Edison's method, that it will be given more efficiently, understandingly, quickly and vividly I have no doubt. Two or three performances may easily make an impression more indelible and more intelligent than weeks of reading about and talking about certain matters—as for example the pictures of the Bessemer process. And the capacity even of children or perhaps better, especially of children for absorption of information is immensely greater than is usual-

ly supposed. If teachers have sense enough to use the pictures and talk them over in a sensible way, allowing the information to soak in naturally instead of holding up the children to artificial tests of reproduction, perhaps there is no great danger of excessive information being conveyed, though I can but feel that the seeming sanction given to the reigning informational ideal is unfortunate.

Even the limited number of pictures shown proves, however, that some subjects are much better adapted for purposes of conveying information in an intelligent way than others, and that careful discrimination is required. At present there does not seem to be as much provision for expert education as for technical criticism. For example, there are hundreds of schools where the principal of pump action is better taught at present by demonstrations, even without active experimentation and construction on the part of the children, than it was conveyed by the films on that subject. I should say the films on that topic (including the printed statements thrown on the curtain before the picture was shown), gave an example of how not to do it; and that the failure was not accidental, but illustrated a fundamental principle of selection. On the other hand, the filled in geography instruction is almost unlimited, since the material there is not accessible by other and better methods. The same principle applies, though to a less degree, in history, I imagine. In nature study there is no doubt that many operations may be selected for observation which will tend to make children more observing of what is going on around them, and to arouse interest in new problems. For example, children who have seen the films of a fly laying eggs and of the eggs hatching will have a new source of interest, and a new power, in watching real flies. The pictures of movements of the infusoria might very naturally lead to an interest in the use of the microscope.

I hope these suggestions will at least indicate what I mean by the need of a careful expert discrimination, on purely educational grounds, of the appropriateness of various types of subject-matter. There was also a marked tendency in the printed matter preceding the pictures to use a didactic form instead of a questioning form—a mistake that could easily be remedied by consultation with capable teachers.

DANGER OF SHORT CIRCUITS. BY HENRY W. THURSTON, NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY.

I AM GREATLY impressed by the educational possibilities of the motion picture. It seems to me, however, that this new pedagogical dynamo needs to have the routes for its wires through the crowded class rooms of our schools surveyed by educational experts. Electric wires and third rails of high voltage not only drive the wheels of progress, but strike with the mis-directed lightnings of their wrath any unfortunate person who with his ignorant body "short circuits" the current.

The chief danger to the child from the motion picture is, of course, not sudden death but the educational danger seems to be similar to that in so-called "dead end" or "blind alley" occupations. Unless wisely chosen and presented at the "psychological moment" in the child's unfolding thought, motion pictures may interest him for a day, but not lead him anywhere.

I was deeply impressed by the eager desire of Mr. Edison as represented by his manager, Mr. Hutchinson, to make these pictures worth while in education. Indeed, I gather that Mr. Edison, with characteristic energy and zeal in experiment has already under way the preparation of many a series of pictures which are to be "tried out" on American children. Most of these, as described, especially those in the field of microscopic life and industrial processes, seemed to me well chosen. In the field of arithmetic, however, the wisdom of the choice and method was not so obvious.



The economy of the moving picture apparatus is one of its strong points. Once installed, its operation will cost the school no more than a janitor's salary. A boy can operate it. The elephant shown on the onposite page was being thrown on the screen when this flash-light was taken.

Plainly, it will be at great sacrifice of his own time and money and of the welfare of children if Mr. Edison is forced to learn what films are of most value to children by the method of experiment alone. The experience of parents and teachers ought to be of real value from the first. The testimony of such experience, I understand, Mr. Edison invites.

How far educational leaders personally, and educational associations through committees, are already at work upon this problem, I do not know. That they have a great opportunity to meet Mr. Edison half way is clear. Mr. Edison is going to make educational films whether he gets help from philosophers and school teachers or not. Mr. Edison has the machines. He has the men. Shall he have the teachers, too? "It's up to them."

JUDGE LINDSEY VISITS THOMAS A. EDISON

A. D. CHANDLER
Member of School Board of Education of Orange, N. J. Trustee of State Home for Boys, Jamesbury, N. J.



A MAN said recently to Judge Lindsey of Denver, "I know some one who is likely to put you out of your job as juvenile court judge."

"That is not strange," said Judge Lindsey, "you come to Denver and I'll show you a dozen or more men who have tried for years to put me out of my job, but they haven't got me yet."

"But I think this man will get you, and more than that, I think he will get most of the truant officers in our public school systems."

"How is he going to do this?" said Judge Lindsey, somewhat perplexed.

"That is simple enough," was the reply. "By reducing the number of boys who go wrong so that there will be no cases for juvenile courts, and by making the schools so interesting that boys will 'scoot to school,' and not have to be dragged there by truant officers."

"Who is the man?" said Judge Lindsey.

"Thomas A. Edison," was the reply.

"Take me to him quick," said the judge. "The quicker the better."

A meeting was arranged several weeks ago. Judge Lindsey and Mr. Edison met in Mr. Edison's library in Orange. Mr. Edison explained to Judge Lindsey his theory of how motion pictures might be used to stimulate youthful brains and to so vitalize the studies in our public schools as to create in boys of evil habits and tendencies a vital interest in things worth while and in this way help to reduce the "cases" for juvenile courts and truant officers.

Perhaps no man knows better than Judge Lindsey why the "bad boy" becomes "bad," and how ineffective are our present methods for solving the problems of delinquency, and how much better it would be to form a boy's character before it becomes evil than to reform it after he has gone bad.

Mr. Edison's theories and subsequent demonstrations on the screen convinced the judge that "The Wizard" might yet solve our greatest social problem. It will take years of time and millions of money, and what Mr. Edison needs and would gladly welcome, in helping to solve this gigantic problem, are suggestions, advice and criticism from progressive educators everywhere.

Judge Lindsey's visit inspired him to write the following story:

MR. EDISON AND MY LITTLE FRIEND TONY

BEN. B. LINDSEY
JUDGE OF THE JUVENILE COURT OF DENVER

TONY would not go to school. He was a chronic truant in spite of all threats of reform school. What difference did that make to him? He was already in jail—when he went to school. Fear of a policeman was as nothing compared to his fear of the least common multiple and the greatest common divisor. He "could not help it," he was always saying when he failed.

Finally he couldn't stand it any longer to have the boys and girls in school laughing at him as he stood dumbly at the blackboard—he, the leader of a gang! He bolted, stole some brass from a freight car, sold it to the ragman, saw a moving picture show, and was off for the mountains that seemed to rise to the clouds just at the foot of the street.

He nearly froze to death sleeping in a box car, and was carried away to Lincoln, Neb. There he got "pinched by de cop" and they brought him back to Denver to my school, the juvenile court.

"Tony is just hopeless," said his teacher, a



Silk worm co-coon. The worm is shown spinning it and then by "telescoping" time, the children see the moth emerge.

truant officer, a railroad policeman, a probation officer, a plain clothes man—the whole battery lined up against him. "It's the third or fourth time. Is it possible the judge won't send him up? Is he going to encourage crime like that? Just *listen* to that kid"—this, as Tony's tearful pleas rose above wagging tongues and shaking heads.

"I couldn't help it, Judge. I just couldn't help it. I dunno why I did it."

"But," chimes in teacher, or truant officer, or some member of the battery, "we told him that if he did it again he surely would go to Golden.[1] And he *can* help it if he wants to. He is one of the brightest boys in school. Don't be easy with him. There are so many others like him."

Tony was mischievous indeed. Now, by law and fate he was a criminal. His eyes were full of tears, but as roguish as when he first "beat it from de cops." I was saying to myself what I could not say out loud: "Tony, you poor little victim. This whole wretched system should be here before the bar of justice, not you. How I would like to try it—if it did not get a change of venue on the ground of prejudice."

How cruel it was, this system that chained him to a desk, forbade him even a whisper, a wiggle or a giggle—would not let him break out with a spontaneous question or a laugh. It stifled and misdirected the energy of the child, not for him or his good, but for the tradition, for the people who turned the cranks and did the grinding.

[1]The Colorado State Industrial School for Boys is at Golden.

Tony's brother came to plead for him. "You remember, Judge, when I was up for the same thing twelve years ago?"

"Why so you were, Angelo. How old are you? What are you doing now?"

"I'm twenty-two now, Judge. You see you let me quit school when I was in the sixth grade. I just couldn't get along there, and you let me go to work. I'm married now, and say, Judge, you just ought to see our baby."

"That's fine, Angelo. We certainly had a time of it, didn't we?"

The battery is looking on with disgust. The owls are hooting.

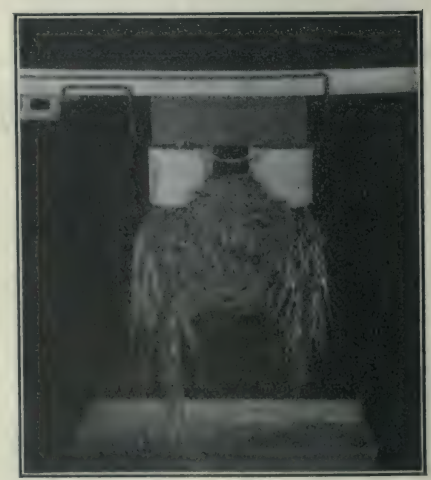
"Yes," says Angelo, "I can't thank you enough for what you did for me. If you will only give Tony another chance like you did me. He isn't really bad. He just won't stay in school. When he gets out he just has to do something. They won't let him go to work, so he gets into mischief and then into trouble. But please don't send him up, judge."

Now, of course, the teacher wanted to do the right thing. So did all of the battery. It was not a matter of their good will, or even of their intelligence, but of tradition—of silly educational custom like that of the Chinese.

I can imagine a little girl brought before a juvenile court in China.

"She won't keep the bandages on," says the prosecutor. "She tears them off and runs out in the street. She is bright enough and knows that it is all wrong."

"There is nothing to do but send her up," chimes the Chinese battery. "Of course, Judge, you will insist upon having her feet bound. Hasn't it been done for a thousand years? This



Large magnet picking up nails.

court has been established to defend the traditions of a great people—our ancestors, who are now dead. The children? Oh, that is different."

Poor teacher. Poor battery. Victims all, rather than culprits, as much to be pitied as Tony. Like him, they might say "We can't help it—we just can't help it."

The judge might say: "Yes, I know it, poor little teacher. But we can't say it out loud—at least you can't, for tradition might have it in for you. But I am sorry for you. How long must you wander in the darkness of your inheritance—in your institutionalism? You could not turn on the light if you would—*you* can't reach the switchboard. But some one can, some one *must* reach that switchboard, if we are to save Tony. I can send him to the reform school by the decrees of the same tradition, but what good will it do?"

The case goes on. Tony is ever coming back again, and always will be until some one reaches that switchboard. I am not surprised that Mr. Edison is the man. It is just like him. He is coming to the rescue of Tony. *He is going to make Tony run away to go to school.* He will take Tony away from me, put him in a school that is not a school at all, but just one big game—just one round of joy, of play, of gladness, of knowledge, of sunshine, warming the cells in Tony's head until they all open up as the flowers do. They have been chilled so long that they almost shrivelled up and died. There will be something moving, something doing at that school all the time, just as there is when Tony goes down to the tracks to see the engines.

When I tell him about it all Tony shouts "Hooray for Mr. Edison," right in front of the battery, just as he used to say, "to hell wid de cop."

We are just awakening to our fool's justice which never inquired how far the community, traditionalism, institutionalism, the Philistines of the world, were to blame for Tony's offense. We never arraigned *them* before the bar of justice. You think it is not felt by Tony and his kind? It is. Perhaps unconsciously, but it is felt. Since the world began, ignorance and violence have begotten ignorance and violence.

Men have been pointing the way for a generation, but there has been so much pointing and so little traveling. Now the procession is forming, getting ready for one grand march to the music of the new education. Even the juvenile court will go to the junk heap, as it ought to. It was a thousand times better than the old criminal court and jail, worth all it cost and more. But at best it was only a poor expedient, one of the palliatives, forever recording effects. Its greatest service has been in showing up the causes, pointing the way, urging men to march against institutionalism and tradition.

Interest is everything in the child's life. He plays harder than he works because he is interested in his play. That is all. He will work as hard as he plays if he is interested in his work. Mr. Edison has found the way. I report for duty under him.



"U. S. INSPECTED AND PASSED"

A REVIEW OF CAROLINE BARTLETT CRANE'S STRIKING SERIES OF ARTICLES ON BAD MEAT AND WORSE POLITICS IN PEARSON'S MAGAZINE

SAMUEL HOPKINS ADAMS

WHAT does the legend "U. S. Inspected and Passed" on meats or meat products mean?

Ostensibly, since the law of 1906 which grew out of the packing-house scandals, it guarantees that the federal government, through its proper officials, has examined, inspected and certified as being fit for human consumption, the article upon which the stamp is affixed.

Actually, according to Caroline Bartlett Crane's powerful arraignment of our national meat inspection service, published in the March, April, May, June and July number of *Pearson's Magazine*, it amounts to very little more than a certification for the benefit of the meat trust rather than of the consuming public, so far as American meat-eaters are concerned.

With the foreign trade it is different. Flesh passed for export is what it is certified to be, clean and wholesome. Only upon the home market is the official chicanery perpetrated. Protection for foreigners, deception for Americans—

United States Department of Agriculture,

BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

A. D. MELVIN,[1] Chief of Bureau.

SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENTS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., OCTOBER 15, 1908

[This publication is designed to disseminate information and instructions to persons in the service of the Bureau of Animal Industry. *It is not intended for the public, and employes are cautioned against giving or showing copies to outsiders.* A supply will be sent to each official in charge of a station or branch of the service, who should promptly distribute copies to all members of his force. A file should be kept at each station for reference.]

"SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENTS" FOR BUREAU EMPLOYES ONLY

Attention is again called to the fact that Service Announcements is intended only for Bureau employes, and copies must not be given or shown to other persons. Information has come to me that, notwithstanding the instructions on this point in the July and August numbers, employes in several cases have given copies to other persons or to the press, and some of the instructions intended only for employes have been published in newspapers. Further offenses of this kind will be severely dealt with. Any information contained in this publication which should be given to the press will be given out from the Washington office. When it becomes necessary for inspectors in charge to communicate to packers, stockmen, etc., any of the contents of this publication, this may be done by letter.

A. D. MELVIN, Chief of Bureau.

that is the gist of the United States meat inspection service of the present, if Mrs. Crane is to be believed.

That "if" renders some identification of Mrs. Crane pertinent to this discussion. For more than a decade Caroline Bartlett Crane has been recognized as an authority on civic conditions, and has conducted municipal surveys for cities in all parts of the country. In the course of this work she became interested particularly in local slaughter house conditions, her study of these leading her to an investigation of the general industry of slaughtering animals and preparing meat products. In 1903 she drafted a meat inspection bill which her own state, Michigan, enacted into law, and in 1904 drafted a model ordinance for cities at the request of the Michigan State Board of Health. She was a consultant of the federal government's "Packing House Commission" of 1906, and was the chief witness last year at the congressional hearing on meat inspection service conditions. Her reputation as an authority on this subject is national.

But were she wholly unknown and inexperienced in this field, the documentary evidence alone, amassed and presented in her articles, would be enough to shock any open-minded person into the conviction that the Federal meat inspection service, upon which the private citizen must rely to protect his table from diseased and filthy meats, has been vitiated throughout its system by a powerful combination of packers on the outside, and on the inside a group of complaisant officials, subverting the law through secret orders; the chief offenders being James Wilson, former secretary of the Department of Agriculture; George P. McCabe, formerly solicitor to the department, and A. D. Melvin, then and now chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry.

Following the exposure of packing house horrors in Upton Sinclair's novel, The Jungle, the rigid meat inspection law of 1906 was passed. Broadly stated, its provisions were that no meat should enter into interstate commerce except when inspected and certified to be clean, free of dangerous disease, untainted, and wholesome, and so stamped or labelled by government seal.

The enforcement of the law devolved upon the Department of Agriculture, acting through the Bureau of Animal Industry. Within less than a year that bureau, by a species of subtle trickery, had begun to undermine the law in the interests of the packers, a process which is still in force. The method was the issuance of a series of service announcements and Bureau orders strictly guarded by the department. How far the secrecy extended may be judged by the fact that Congressman Nelson, in charge of the congressional hearings, when he called for certain of these documents, met with an absolute refusal from Secretary Wilson. Yet this very class of "announcements" and orders, as Mrs. Crane positively proves, constituted not an interpretation or codification of the law, but an absolute nullification of it. That is, the laws which Congress had enacted and the "regulations" of the department which, when promulgated, had the force of law, were set aside and superseded by another set of laws made and circulated secretly by irresponsible departmental officials.

Here are two samples of the safeguarding of these examples of official outlawry.

[1] In his very lame and impotent defence against Mrs. Crane's charges, Chief Melvin avers that the secrecy was purely for the purpose of keeping information from packers, stockmen, etc., and that the public had to be kept in the dark in order to keep the packers in the dark. But what becomes of the Melvin defence in the light of a secret order of November, 1908, specifically directing that copies be supplied to packers and stockmen, but that "this publication is not intended for general distribution to the public and requests for copies will not be complied with?"

Both of the documents reproduced above, it will be noted, are signed by Dr. Melvin as chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry. Dr. Melvin is an acclaimed friend of the meat packers. He is the official reassurer of a suspicious public. After the passage of the 1906 law he issued a pamphlet which was, in effect, a panegyric of the meat inspection service, in the course of which he asserted that "only wholesome meat is used" and that "every possible precaution is taken to have it clean." This was for the clouding of the public mind. Under his conduct of his bureau and James Wilson's direction of the Department of Agriculture, the following "precautions," among others, to ensure a supply of "wholesome meat" were taken:

Regulations concerning the meat of tuberculous animals were greatly relaxed and the markets were thrown open to the meat of cattle with tuberculosis of the lungs, liver and other portions of the body; *with the provision that such meat might be marked* "U. S. Inspected and Passed."

Mutilated livers and other organs from which diseased or parasitic portions had been cut, were withheld from certification for export to other countries, but were ordered certified for the home trade, on the principle, apparently, that "anything is good enough for Americans."

Beef, mutton, and hogs containing tape-worm eggs were allowed to be passed for human food, by secret circular, though the printed "regulations" forbade.

Tongues from which lumpy-jaw sores had been cut, were permitted to be sold under Federal guarantee, in direct contravention of the published regulations.

Tumorous organs were ordered inspected and passed, under a secret "service" ruling, after the tumors were cut out, in defiance of the law which requires that such organs be condemned and destroyed.

Parasitic intestines were permitted for use as sausage skins (illegally) *after the worm-nodules were scraped off*. Furthermore, hogs' snouts, ears, skins, spleens "and similar organs" —a generalization rather nauseating to the imagination—are mentioned in the announcements as regular ingredients of "U. S. Inspected and Passed" sausage.

These are only a few of the numerous and horrifying instances of law-defying laxity which Mrs. Crane brings home to the officials by documentary proof. Naturally, the inspection service went to the dogs. Animals passed by the Federal authorities were repeatedly condemned by the state authorities. Meat actually condemned "leaked out" and reached the markets. Honest bureau employes protested the danger to public health, and lost their positions.

How completely the situation was in the hands of the packers is suggested by the following incident: Under the ruling which permitted packers to ship inspected meat and meat products interstate, "between official establishments" without stamping or in any way making the meat to identify it as inspected (in itself a violation of the plain letter of the law), cars containing meat products, after inspection are supposed to be sealed by a bureau employe, and to arrive at their destination with seals unbroken, this being the only possible guarantee that the cargo had arrived as it was inspected and shipped. Often, however, the cars arrived with seals broken, thereby removing the one protection. Instead of running down these violations and prosecuting the offenders, Melvin smoothed their path by issuing one of his secret orders permitting the unloading of shipments from cars, the seals of which had been broken or which showed "signs of having been tampered with" (his own astounding words!) under certain most liberal conditions.

No wonder the committee of the meat packers appointed "to confer with Government officials" reported in approval of his benignity:

"Cars Having Broken Seals.—Considerable delay was experienced in the release of carload lots arriving with the car seals broken, and upon representations made by your committee a regulation was made which remedied conditions somewhat. They were not entirely satisfactory, however, and upon further representations by your committee the department has issued a regulation which results in very speedy releases of such cars."

Canned products enjoy equal license with carcasses. For labels to their canned goods the packers themselves manufacture wholesale the "U. S. Inspected and Passed" tags. "At Armour & Co.'s plant in Chicago," says Mrs. Crane, "one may see thousands of flat pieces of tin already embossed with the government inspection legend, ready to be made into pails."

These were made at the packing houses having government inspection. But many of the packing houses shipped these tags in loads *to their branch houses which had no inspection.* Morally, this was a forgery of the U. S. brand. Actually it was a violation of the law.

To do him justice, Melvin finally announced, in a bulletin of 1912, that this must be stopped. But, though the evidence was at his hand, he took no single step toward prosecution of this truly heinous offence.

As for the uses to which these home-made "government" labels could be put, Mrs. Crane furnished an amusing exhibit to the Congressional Committee. The writer:

"It appears to be child's play for a big packing company to misuse a 'trade label.' When testifying before the Congressional Committee last spring I produced a 'pail of lard.' It was embossed:

Armour's Simon Pure Leaf Lard, United

States Inspected and Passed under the act of Congress June 30, 1906, establishment 2-A.
"2" is the Armour number and "A" indicates their Chicago plant. I asked the committee to inspect the contents. One gentleman removed the cover and revealed an inner metal cover into which "U. S. Inspected and Passed" had been stamped at the time of manufacture. When this inner cover was removed the committee found—not lard—*but candy.* There was an object lesson of the untrustworthiness of the Federal guarantee. *I had placed the candy in the pail.* Anyone else having it in his possession could have filled it with inferior lard, or lard from hogs which had died from cholera, or white grease which every plant makes out of the abattoir refuse and offal. A packing house could surreptitiously send such pails, first-hand or second-hand, or in "knock-down" form, to an uninspected branch house to be filled with uninspected lard and go forth under the Federal guarantee."

Mrs. Crane suggests that the method of sealing by paper stamp on the revenue service seals cigar boxes would be a real safeguard to change of contents. It would be necessary, however, to maintain the inviolability of such seals under a system somewhat less complaisant than the spirit manifested by Chief Melvin toward "tampering."

One more instance of the perversion of the law under the secretaryship of James Wilson, and I shall conclude this very fractional summing-up of the overwhelming evidence brought by Mrs. Crane:

"One amendment, perhaps the most Machiavellian of all, deserves especial attention. It relates to 'exemptions.' The law of 1906 gave exemption from inspection to the farmer. The clause reads: 'The provisions of this act requiring inspection . . . shall not apply to animals slaughtered by any farmer on the farm and transported as interstate or foreign commerce.' . . . Chief Melvin, in that brief for the packers, 'The Federal Meat Inspection Service,' refers to this favor to the farmer. He says: 'The law, therefore, exempts from inspection the animals killed by the farmer on his farm.'

"The original Beveridge meat inspection bill did exempt *'any animals slaughtered by any farmer upon his farm.'* In some mysterious way, the word *'his'* was changed to *'the'* in the bill as passed. On October 29, 1906, came Ruling '1-A':

" 'The right of the farmer to ship in interstate or foreign commerce the carcasses *of animals slaughtered on the farm is a right personal to the farmer, or his agent.* The carcasses of animals slaughtered by the farmer on the farm which are shipped by the farmer to *a commission man* for sale, *may be reshipped by the commission man,* by signing a farmer's certificate as agent for the original shipper.'

(Italics are the author's.)

"This is a most astonishing liberty under a new and 'drastic' meat inspection law! The regulation does not require that the animals shall have been *raised* by the farmer; not even that they shall be *his* animals; not even that they shall be killed on *'his'* farm. It appears that any farmer—or person who, inspired by the magnificent opportunities, suddenly becomes a farmer—may buy up and slaughter all the animals he chooses and sell them without inspection in interstate or foreign trade, through any agent, who, according to a somewhat later service announcements, may re-sell them, and so on indefinitely."

In conclusion Mrs. Crane recommends certain remedies: the stiffening up of the present Federal inspection law, to compel correct labelling, on the principle of the pure food slogan, "Let the label tell"; the establishment of municipally controlled and inspected abattoirs, such as the one at Montgomery, Ala., and wherever practicable the foundation of municipally owned abattoirs as at Paris, Tex.

One remedy which she does not specify is implied as essential throughout her article. James Wilson has resigned. George P. McCabe has retired to private life with a stain upon his official record. A. D. Melvin remains at the head of the Bureau of Animal Industry. For the good of the public service and the honor of the new administration Melvin should be summarily removed. It is interesting, in this connection, to note that by a recent ruling of secretaries Houston, McAdoo and Redfield, the enforcement of meat regulations is included under the provisions of the Pure Food Law, which will make it decidedly more difficult for Melvin to exhibit further his peculiar amenities toward the packing interests. Bad meat can now be seized and confiscated as can any other bad food, as soon as it enters into interstate commerce.

The meat packers are powerful in other respects than politically. They control a large amount of advertising. *Pearson's Magazine* states flatly in its editorial notes on Mrs. Crane's series that no publication which depended on advertising for its subsistence would have dared or could have afforded to print the articles. Whether or not this be so, *Pearson's* and Mrs. Crane have performed a public service in presenting in conclusive form, information of which every American household should be possessed. It is greatly to be hoped that the series will be published in book form.

THE JEWISH IMMIGRANT GIRL IN CHICAGO

VIOLA PARADISE

IMMIGRANTS' PROTECTIVE LEAGUE

[*The immigrant as "numbers" herded daily at Ellis Island; the immigrant as a petty criminal swelling our police court cases; the immigrant as a worker undercutting the native worker, or more alarming still, as a worker on strike endeavoring to raise his wage standard more nearly to that of the native worker—with these objective phases of the immigrant as a problem to America we are familiar.*

With the subjective side of the immigrant, the immigrant as an individual to whom America is the problem, as an exotic struggling to adapt his roots to a soil of new labor and new living conditions, we have not yet reached a sympathetic understanding.

This paper attempts to present the subjective handicaps of the Jewish girl as they present themselves to the Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago which undertakes to help the immigrant girl work out her American problems. It is based upon visits to almost two thousand girls.—Ed.]



The Jewish immigrant girls who come to Chicago are, for the most part, under twenty-five years of age. Although a number of them have lived in large cities, they come chiefly from small Russian towns and villages. People familiar with the slow comfortableness of the American town, where industries are carried on, where business prospers, and where nearly everyone earns a fair living, can scarcely conceive the poverty of the Russian town. For in Russia it is in the small community that poverty thrives. This is especially true of the Pale, the district in which the Jews are given right of domicile. The May laws of 1882, forbidding Jews to own farm land, forced many farmers to the nearby villages; and the legislation of 1891 compelled thousands of Jewish families to leave Moscow and other large cities in the Pale where they had formerly been permitted to live. The result has been the overburdening of the smaller towns with more people than they can support. Another source of distress was the government monopoly of the liquor trade, begun in 1894, as a consequence of which large numbers of Jews were put out of business.

The life of a girl in a small Russian town is very dull. The young men, however hard their struggle for bread, have always at least one outside interest, the study of religious literature. They begin this study when they are small children, and continue indefinitely, with the result that their religion is very real to them. The girl has no such interest. Her home has been her world. Only recently has the interest of work been given to her, the Jewish tradition having always been against the employment of women.

Of the 1,946 girls visited, about two-thirds had been employed in their native country, and of these the great majority had been engaged in sewing trades. Their hours ranged from nine to sixteen, the most common arrangement being a ten-hour day with a two-hour recess at noon. The divisions of the day were from eight in the morning until noon, and from two until eight in the evening. They worked usually in the homes of their employers—small crowded homes where one room probably served as kitchen, living-room and factory, and sometimes as bedroom also. Their wages were low. Apprentices worked from one to three years for nothing; an experienced dressmaker could earn as much as two or three rubles a week in season (about $1 or $1.50). The girls were found to be curiously reluctant about telling how much they had received. "In America it would be nothing," they often say when



THEY HAVE STRENGTH, YOUTH AND ENTHUSIASM, EAGER AND CURIOUS MINDS
Group of girls in an evening English class for immigrants at Hebrew Institute.

the question is put to them, as if ashamed lest the naming of a small sum would demean them in the eyes of Americans.

When a letter comes from an aunt who lives in Chicago, stating that in America even a "greenie" can earn four dollars a week—eight rubles—the Russian girl marvels at it; and when another letter brings the offer of a steamship ticket which may be repaid after a while, the offer is eagerly accepted. The girl prepares to leave the country where life is difficult and dull, where times are always hard, and the possibility of religious persecution is always in the background of one's mind. The present Russian-Jewish immigration is stimulated not so much by persecution as by oppression, and by memories of persecution. "Our town wasn't touched, but we had cousins at Kishenev, and you never can tell what will happen," is a statement one frequently hears.

Much has been said about the illegal stimulation of immigration by steamship agents abroad. It is interesting to note how it is encouraged by some Chicago agents. "There is a rumor of another *pogrom*," one advertises in a Yiddish daily. "Why let your dear ones languish and suffer in cruel Russia? Come to ——, friend of the Jews. He will let you have a ticket for which you need not pay until your dear one arrives." Another advertises metrically. "There is a longing in my heart for you," is the title of some stanzas setting forth the glorious opportunities of America. As a consequence tickets are purchased, and many immigrants arrive before their relatives are ready for them; and hardship and suffering result.

Unlike immigrants of other nationalities, the Jewish girl cherishes no thought of a return to her native land. Her mind is full of the money she expects to make, and the home she will found for her family in the land of her heart's desire; and above all of the far-famed freedom of America.

Within the last few years the so-called ghetto of Chicago has changed much. A few years ago it consisted for the most part of the area bounded by Taylor, Fourteenth, Canal and Halsted streets. Recently, however, the Jews have been moving west. The business remains and will remain chiefly Jewish long after the Jewish residents have moved away. The predominence of Jewish trades people, and the frequency of Hebrew-lettered signs rather mislead the observer as to the racial character of the neighborhood. Italians, Poles, Russians and Lithuanians have been moving in. On Canal Street there is now hardly a Jewish family, and even Jefferson Street, the Jewish market, is gradually becoming a Russian and Lithuanian neighborhood.

The word ghetto usually calls to mind scenes of great filth, awful poverty, malodorous and congested tenements. That these scenes are not characteristic of a Jewish community alone, but of all districts where congregate people whose economic condition has stunted the growth of their standards of living, is shown by the general superiority of Jewish homes west of Halsted to those in the old ghetto. To be sure, there are plenty of exceptions, but as a rule the homes are somewhat more habitable than those in the earlier district.

That conditions for the immigrant in Chicago are better than those in New York is to be expected. He comes to Chicago not because of a theory concerning the industrial and other advantages of the city, but because this theory is

realized, personified by a relative or friend in Chicago, some one who may be depended upon to help the newcomer find his place in this country.

With forty-four exceptions all the Jewish girls included in this study came to relatives. In probably 90 per cent of the cases, the steamship tickets or the money for the journey had been sent from Chicago. Although repayment is almost always expected, the prepaid ticket stands for much, at first. It usually means that the girl is coming to a home and a friend, and that she will not be thrown immediately and relentlessly upon her own resources.

The home to which she comes is usually not extremely poor, except, of course, from an aesthetic point of view; and to her it seems very grand. The gay carpet in the parlor, the shiny, much-carved, easy-payment furniture, the lace curtains, the wall pictures of fruit, fish and relatives duly impress the stranger, even though the rooms be crowded and not always quite clean. Not only her home but the neighborhood interests her. The very things which strike the native-born as foreign seem to her distinctly American: the pretentiousness of signs and advertisements, the gaudy, crowded shop windows, the frequency of fruit stands and meat markets, her own countrymen in American clothes, women carrying great bundles of unfinished clothing on their heads—she sums it all up as "America," dirtier than she expected and otherwise different, but quite amazing.

As soon as her relatives have bought her some American clothes, they take her to the nickel-show. It is almost the only amusement they know to offer. There she hears Yiddish jokes and songs and American popular music, and she marvels at the wonders of the moving-pictures. If the weather is warm, she is taken to an ice cream parlor where she has her first ice cream soda, and where her imagination is stirred by phonograph records of Lucia and other operas, performed by Caruso and other singers of note, which entertainment, surprising as it may seem, is offered in many West Side ice cream parlors. Wanting to like America she is only too glad to answer affirmatively the oft-repeated, eager question of her guides, as to whether this is not a "fine land"; and if some disappointments trouble her, these are put aside when she learns that her dreams of "getting an education" may be indeed fulfilled in the night schools and settlements where she may learn English free of charge.

She does not go to work for two or three weeks after her arrival, but stays at home to rest and *sich etwas auszugreenen*. Often the girl wants to begin working at once, but her relatives are unwilling. This is not always the simple generosity it seems. The people with whom she stays wish to show their neighbors that they can afford to give board and lodging to a relative, or rather they would be ashamed to have the neighbors suppose that they could not.

In America as in Russia the girls go into tailoring and dressmaking, chiefly. Over half the girls were working at the time we visited them, most of them in the sewing trades. Of those not employed, a large number intended to enter these trades later. The work here differs greatly from the work in Russia. Tailoring, for example, is in Russia still a hand trade, demanding training and skill. Here whatever skill the girl may have acquired at home counts for little, because she is put to work at a machine, or is given the kind of hand work for which speed rather than skill is essential, work such as pulling bastings, overcasting seams and making "winkeloch" (finishing the corners of machine-made buttonholes).

The wages of the girls range from one dollar a week to twelve, the majority receiving between four and six. A girl is frequently paid a very low wage "while learning," and often her pay is not increased until some time after she has learned. This has always been an easy and favorite method of exploitation.

Of the girls who take up sewing, many work in large factories. Here the physical conditions are fairly good, because the establishments, on account of their size, easily hold the attention of factory inspectors. Their chief disadvantages are long hours, "speeding up," uncertainty of work, and, in slack seasons, the system of keeping on hand a large number of employes, many of whom are given "part time" work and are, of course, paid accordingly. The smaller shops scattered through the congested parts of the West and Northwest Sides, are doubtless far inferior to the large down town places, although the wages are somewhat higher, and the relation between employer and employe is more personal. The girl in the small shop knows whether her "boss" is making or losing money, and she realizes how her interests are regulated by his; so that her work is perhaps less mechanical than the work in the larger shops. The small shops, however, are too frequently dirty and untidy, and the best of them are usually inadequately ventilated. Although the air space per person may be as the law prescribes, the air is bad, because of the time-honored fear of draughts which keeps the windows closed.

The dressmakers fare better in some respects than the tailors. Their workrooms are less crowded and quiet, and the work is not so heavy or tense or so highly specialized. On the other hand the wages are lower, and one frequently finds apprentices working for nothing. Again, factory inspection affords almost no protection to girls in small dressmaking establishments,

where there are only two or three employes. Violation of laws regulating hours of labor are only too common.

As soon as the immigrant girl goes to work, her condition becomes immediately more difficult than it seemed at first. She is expected to pay board and for her new American clothes. Although her relatives are usually kind, and do not press her for the money, she starts out under the burden of a large debt, usually about $60, often more. Not infrequently, her passage has been purchased from an unauthorized agent on the "easy payment" plan; in which event it costs far more than its real value, and payments must be made promptly in order to avoid increasing the indebtedness by additional interest. Perhaps nowhere is easy-payment purchasing more elaborately developed than in the West Side Jewish neighborhood. Peddlers, so-called, sell everything from a brass bed to the chicken for a holiday dinner on time payments. They take their customers to the shops, let them select the article they wish, under the agreement that they are to "pay it out" in installments. Most of the clothes so bought are usually worn out and are surely out of style before they are paid for.

Sometimes the pressure of the debt is more than the immigrant girl can long endure. An attractive little girl of seventeen came to America expecting to earn a great deal of money, and soon to be able to send something home to her parents and brothers and sisters who depended upon her for assistance. When she arrived she found her sister's family of seven living in three small, dirty rooms in a narrow, filthy street. The girl who had expected that her sister's home would be very grand—the rent of $8 had seemed to her so tremendous—was disappointed and disgusted with the disorder and dirt. She tried hard to get work, so that she could board elsewhere, but work was scarce and she had no success. A payment on the steamship ticket shortly became due. The sister had no money to pay it, and her husband pointed out that he could not support the girl indefinitely. A quarrel ensued, and after that many quarrels. One day the unhappy girl happened to meet a man whose people she had known in Russia.



A STREET IN CHICAGO'S GHETTO
The Jewish immigrant girl finds her American neighborhood quite different from what she expected, **but quite amazing.**

She told him her troubles and he took her home to live with his sister, spent most of the money he had saved for some clothes for her and promised to find her a "job." He was unable to find any work for the girl, and so offered to marry her. She, because she had no other means of support and because she was grateful, agreed. They were married after having known each other only a few weeks.

Another girl came to a half-brother, who felt that he had fulfilled his duty when he sent her passage, furnished her a place to board, and a "job." After she had been here two months her brother lost his position and needed money. The girl, feeling the obligation of the steamship ticket, borrowed money to give him. A few weeks ago she told me that for the first time since she had come to America, a year and a half ago, she was out of debt. She had been paying 40 per cent interest on her money.

When from a girl's wage of $5 there is deducted her board of $3, her carfare, and some money for necessities, not very much is left to wipe out her debt. Of course, her wages do not always remain at $5, but even with an increase after a few months to $5.50 or possibly even to $6, she is still far from comfortable independence. The slack seasons and the possibility of getting sick must be borne in mind. Moreover, her desires increase far more rapidly than her income.

Housework is often suggested as offering a welcome substitute for work in the shop. The Jewish girl will not do house work except in rare instances. She has not had the training for it, she is not physically fitted for it, and she has brought with her the old country attitude toward domestic service. She considers the position of servant degrading. She may covet the comfort which domestic service might give, but she does not wish to associate with people as a social inferior. Moreover, domestic service offers too few opportunities for meeting men. So she prefers the difficult conditions of the shop, where she has at least company of her kind, and freedom in the evening, and where she has a better chance of finding a mate.

The chief ambition of the Jewish immigrant girl is to marry—perhaps we should not call it ambition, rather it is her hope, her expectation. It is one of her chief reasons for coming to America. She is quite frank and dignified about it, and not very sentimental. A young girl said to me the other day: "I guess we'll have to get a new vice-president for our club. Rose is going to get engaged, maybe, in two weeks."

"You mean you think she'll become engaged?" I asked.

"I mean she hopes she'll get engaged."

A more humorous statement was made by a woman who was recounting the symptoms and reasons of her cousin's illness. "She's awful nervous. Everything makes her nervous, and then she's the oldest girl and her younger sisters are engaged. She's twenty. She ain't quite young any more and she ain't engaged, and you know how that makes a girl feel."

Perhaps no other immigrant is so eager to become Americanized as the Jewish girl, and with no other nationality does the Americanizing process begin so soon, and continue so consciously. This is not only because she feels that it is financially advantageous to know the language and customs of her adopted country, but because, notwithstanding the much famed "individualism" of the Jew, there is engrained in her nature a passion for conformity. She is quick to accept the conventional; she is willing to be better than her neighbor, but she dreads being different. This is of course more or less true of all people, and this is one reason why the Jewish girl accepts so readily the habits and standards of Americans about her. She wants to equip herself with what the American takes for granted, American fashions, American methods, and the language. Having caught up, as it were, with her environment, she is ready to give free rein to her individualistic tendencies.

When this zeal for Americanization leads her to night schools and settlement clubs, it is an excellent thing. A typical story may be told of a girl who has been in America two years and has been studying English with an intensity and seriousness which have brought gratifying results. The first week after her arrival she began to attend classes at Hebrew Institute. Then, learning of classes at Hull House on two of her free evenings, she enrolled there also, and in addition, as soon as she could afford it she commenced taking private lessons on Sunday afternoons. She now speaks well and records her progress by such statements as: "I read The Doll's House, and I understood every word of it." She says these things with a pleased seriousness, not too boastfully.

The process of adaptation to American life is perhaps easier to the great majority whose opportunities in Russia were scant than to those few so fortunate as to have had some schooling there. Taught religiously to revere learning, brought up in a community where the learned man, however poor in worldly goods, can demand the most highly dowered bride, the girl who has attended a gymnasium in Russia comes here believing herself especially equipped for American life, expecting the opportunities which America offers to the humblest to be hers tenfold. Her first few months here are likely to be difficult and often bitterly disappointing. One young woman of twenty-five who speaks several languages, who taught school in Warsaw, is still unable, after four months in Chi-

cago, to understand why she cannot earn more than $5 a week, and why she must work for ten hours a day next to an illiterate girl of sixteen. She struggles hard in the evenings with English spelling, hoping soon to find some clerical work—not realizing how far beyond her such work still is.

It is more encouraging to think of another girl of seventeen, who was fortunately able to attend day school and who after fifteen months in America left her third year in high school to take a position in a publishing house. It is gratifying to know another who had little education in Russia, who worked in a factory for two years and, through persistence in studying English, is now able to enter high school and work her way through.

The learning of English, however, and the acquiring of an education are not the only phases of the Americanizing process. Americanization has its dark side. From the time the girl leaves her home she is called upon to adapt herself to changing circumstances. When she reaches Chicago she finds that the process of readjustment must proceed at a rapid pace. She must revise her standards of values. She discovers an attitude of scorn toward the things she has been accustomed to respect, or to take for granted; she soon learns that "green horn" is a term of contempt, and she makes a conscious effort to dispense with old country attributes. Things which seemed of supreme importance at home are negligible here, and vice versa.



Take the matter of clothes. Almost immediately upon the girl's arrival her relatives buy for her American clothes usually a suit, a large hat, and not infrequently, the wherewithal to fix her hair in an American fashion. One girl said quite prouly: "Yes, I'm almost like an American, I have a rat for my hair." From the beginning great stress is laid upon clothes and the desirability of "looking well." Her indebtedness for clothes before she has even begun to work or repay the money for her steamship ticket convinces her that the essential thing in America is to "look stylish." In most cases this conviction leads merely to the establishing of false standards, which quite frequently express themselves in vulgarity of dress, in extreme and ugly styles, an unfortunate result but not necessarily dangerous. The danger comes later when the girl realizes that she will never be able to afford as many and as nice clothes as she wants, when she becomes conscious of a standard of living which she can never maintain on the small wage she can earn in the tailor shop. Then she is in danger of taking a wrong way to get the luxuries which America has taught her to crave. She has revised or demolished so many of her standards that the temptation to relax the old standards of morality is sometimes difficult to resist, especially so since the restraint of public opinion in a community where she is intimately known does not exist for her here.

Perhaps at no time of her adult life is the immigrant girl more impressionable, more sensitive to suggestion, than during her first few months in America. She is in a state of self-consciousness which is propitious or detrimental, as circumstances determine. American life can mould her as it will. She brings as her gifts to America strength, youth, and enthusiasm, an eager and curious mind, longings and ideals, gifts which should be accepted less carelessly and used less wastefully. In exchange should we not give her somehing better than long, hard hours, low wages, unhealthful homes and neighborhoods, dangerous and vicious recreations? Should we not make an effort to justify and realize her boundless faith in America?

VOLUME XXX, No. 24

WEEK OF SEPTEMBER 13, 1913

THE SURVEY

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UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

From a painting by Professor von Zumbusch



On "Blumentag" these postcards were sold all over Bavaria to get funds for an anti-tuberculosis campaign

THE PITH OF IT

STIMULATED by the Binghamton fire and backed by the opinion of the attorney general that it has full powers, the Industrial Board of the New York Department of Labor has made its first ruling, which provides for the fireproof enclosure of stairways in factory buildings of four stories or under. P. 705.

THE Oregon commission on women's work and wages has begun its two fold work of investigation and adjustment of industrial disputes with the settlement of a strike for higher wages involving 200 girls in the packing industry. P. 706.

JUST as the motion picture is being pressed into the service of education, an inventor comes forward with a device to do away with the flicker in the changing reel and thus avoid eye strain. P. 706.

FOR a year a group of social workers have been thrashing out one of the most baffling of their problems—the care and rehabilitation of the unmarried mother, and they now announce some tentative principles and plans for future work. P. 708.

THE peace workers have taken a leaf out of social reform. The Carnegie endowment plans an investigation—a "diagnosis"—of the cause and conduct of the Balkan war. P. 708.

THE Negro business man believes that business is life and a group of them in conference show human documents of hard struggle followed by material success. P. 709.

JUNIOR citizens proclaim their rights and responsibilities. P. 717.

MR. NEILL'S work as labor commissioner of the United States reviewed by Father Kirby. P. 718.

THE children of Rochester respond more naïvely but in much the same spirit as their elders to the Child Welfare Exhibit—the greatest number are highly approving and the one who disapproves on the ground that "there were imposing posters on the poor air in tenement houses, but right there the air was so bad that people who really wanted to see the things stayed away"—shows real discrimination in her disapproval. P. 711.

AMENIA, N. Y., citizens have this year planned together and worked together to have one day of play together—of "dance and cheer and country mirth" without the commercial elements of a country fair. P. 714.

THE chair of civic design of the university of Illinois! To this professorship at Urbana has Charles Mulford Robinson of Rochester been called. He is a pioneer in a new field. Hitherto such courses in our universities have been given by men of allied professions, not city planners primarily, but landscape gardeners, architects and the like.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

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THE COMMON WELFARE

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"BLUMENTAG" corresponds to our tag days and the postcard shown on the cover is one of several that were sold throughout Bavaria this year. "I don't like tag days," writes Rabbi Wise who sent the card to THE SURVEY from Munich, "or any other form of solicitation which leads to 'unconsidered' and minimum giving. But the Pragmatists are 'agin me.'"

"A RECEIVERSHIP for safety—why not?" asks the New York *Evening Mail* following the latest New York, New Haven & Hartford disaster. When a railroad or industrial corporation is so badly managed as to threaten widespread financial loss, the concern is taken into strong hands by the courts in order to conserve the interests of creditors until such time as it can be brought back to a standard of financial solvency. Why not the same process where widespread loss of human life to passengers or workmen is threatened, and where the system needs thorough-going rehabilitation from top to bottom from the standpoint of safety.

ETHELBERT STEWART, one of the most experienced and scientific federal experts in the field of economic and social investigation, has been made chief statistician of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE BINGHAMTON FIRE AND ENCLOSED STAIRWAYS

After many conferences and two days of public hearings on the enclosure of factory stairways, following the Binghamton fire—and backed by the attorney-general's opinion in regard to the scope of its powers—the industrial board of the New York Department of Labor has adopted rules and regulations for the enclosure of stairways in factories of four stories or under. On account of the vital importance of exits, their rules are quoted in full:

> Regulation No. 1. In all factory buildings less than five stories in height in which more than twenty-five persons are employed above the ground floor, or in which, regardless of the number of persons employed, articles, goods, wares, merchandise or products of combustible material are stored, packed, manufactured or in the process of manufacture, all interior stairways serving as required means of exit, and the landings, platforms, and passageways connected therewith, shall be enclosed on all sides by partitions of fire-resisting material extending continuously from the basement. Where the stairway extends to the top floor of the building such partitions shall extend to three feet above the roof. All openings in such partitions shall be provided with self-closing doors constructed of fire-resisting material, except where such openings are in the exterior wall of the building. The bottom of the enclosure shall be of fireproof material at least four inches thick, unless the fire-resisting partitions extend to the cellar bottom.
>
> Such enclosure of stairways shall not be required in factory buildings in which there is an exterior enclosed fireproof stairway or a horizontal exit serving as a required means of exit, as defined in Section 79f, Subdivisions 8 and 9 of the labor law. Where approved automatic sprinklers are installed throughout such buildings, such enclosure of stairways shall not be required unless more than eighty persons are employed above the ground floor.
>
> Regulation No. 2. In all factory buildings no articles or wares of a combustible nature shall be kept or stored inside the limits of any stairway enclosure, or unenclosed stairway, or on the landings, platforms, or passageways connected therewith, nor shall such articles or wares be kept or stored under any stairway unless such stairway and any partitions or doors thereunder are constructed of, or covered with, incombustible material.

Both rules become effective October 1, 1913. The labor law specifically provides for the enclosure of stairways in buildings over four stories.

The attorney-general's opinion was asked by the Industrial Board in this case, for the purpose of determining at the beginning of its work the question of its powers not only in relation to matters not covered by legislation but also to those covered in part by law. The essential part of the opinion follows:

> "It seems to me to be entirely beyond question that the industrial board has power to adopt rules and regulations upon subjects of which the statute already treats. The statute itself makes mandatory provisions for many safeguards and then makes provisions that additional safeguards may be required by the industrial board. There is nothing in the letter of the statute nor in its manifest intent to confine the jurisdiction of the industrial board to such few subjects only as are not expressly legislated upon by the statute itself. Such an extensive limitation upon its powers would be manifestly absurd and far foreign to the evident purpose of the Legislature in enacting additional legislation for the protection of the lives and health of employes in factories."

The attorney-general's opinion further states that the legislation does not offend any constitutional provisions.

SANITARY SURVEY OF THE OHIO

The Public Health Service, under the direction of Surgeon-General Rupert Blue, has undertaken a "sanitary survey" of the streams which feed into the Ohio river. It is proposed to test the waters of these streams in order to determine scientifically to what distances the contamination of sewage is carried by flowing water. The object of the survey is to establish standards of pollution beyond which no community will be permitted by the federal government to trespass in dumping sewage into streams.

This is the first time that the federal government has ventured to invade the local police

powers of municipalities, except in times of great extremity, such as during the yellow fever epidemics along the gulf coast.

The survey of the Ohio Valley will probably result in the erection by the government of "purification plants." It has been suggested that such legislation will be deemed constitutional under the law prohibiting the transportation of disease germs in interstate commerce.

OREGON COMMISSION AS STRIKE ADJUSTER

The Industrial Welfare Commission which was created by the last Legislature to determine and enforce reasonable wages, hours and conditions of work among women and minor employes in Oregon began work June 3 with Bertha Moores representing the employes, Amedee Smith, a retired manufacturer, representing the employers and Edwin V. O'Hara, chairman of the committee of the Consumers' League which secured the passage of the act, representing the public and chairman of the commission. Caroline J. Gleason, whose investigation of the wages and conditions of women workers in Oregon furnished the chief data in the campaign which resulted in the passage of the law under which the commission operates, is paid secretary.

At the beginning of its work the commission was asked to adjust a strike among the women employes of the Oregon Packing Company at Portland, which employs about 200 girls and women during the summer season. It had no power to make a legal ruling effective in less than 90 days and by that time the packing season would be over for this summer, so its office could be one of conciliation merely. Investigation revealed that with the piece rate in force a large number of the workers were earning as low as fifty to ninety cents a day. The commission succeeded in getting the company to sign an agreement pending the setting of a legal minimum, which fixed one dollar a day as a minimum for all workers except those "old or crippled" who may secure a special permit. Piece rate prices were re-arranged so that the worker of "average ordinary ability" would earn $1 a day, thus enabling the better workers to make more.

Two "conferences" of nine members each have been organized by the commission, one to consider questions relating to mercantile establishments, the other to deal with factory problems. The commission is engaged in forming conferences to deal with laundries, telephone companies and hotels and restaurants.

Interesting recommendations have been made by the conferences already established. The mercantile conference reported that forty dollars a month is required for the decent maintenance of women workers in that occupation. The factory conference has recommended $8.60 a week pay as a minimum for factory workers, and a nine-hour work day. The present legal maximum is ten hours a day. Investigation has shown that one-half of the department store girls receive less than forty dollars a month at present and about the same proportion of factory girls get less than $8.60 a week. If the commission, after holding a public hearing as provided by law, decides to enforce these recommendations, its decision will directly affect the wages of fully one-half the women workers in department stores and factories in Portland.

The commission has authority to regulate the employment of minors without calling a conference, though it holds the usual public hearing. It favors restricting night work of girls under eighteen in all industries, its chief opponents being the department stores.

NEW METHODS IN MOTION PICTURES

Motion pictures are bringing the scenes and events of distant lands and even of other ages vividly to the eyes. The Durbar, the coronation, the Scott antarctic expedition, the story of "Quo Vadis," as shown by the "movies," not to mention a thousand and one travel subjects from a railway trip in the Andes to street scenes in China, are playing a growing part in popular education. Films are being used increasingly to spread informaton and enlist public co-operation in the struggle against tuberculosis, dirty milk, flies and other menaces to health. And now, as described in THE SURVEY of September 6, Mr. Edison himself is enlisted in the problem of adapting motion pictures to school training.

All this development of course hangs on improvement in the mechanism by which motion pictures are projected on the screen. A new method is announced designed to eliminate all flicker which is clearly one of the serious problems in its strain upon children's eyes. The inventor of the machine, called the vanoscope, is Lewis C. Van Riper and he essays to show continuous action by having each picture dissolve into the next instead of projecting a series of entirely distinct pictures on the screen. Col. S. S. McClure has been so impressed with the especial adaptability of this new method for educational purposes, that he is now on a trip to Europe to gain what he can for its wide use in this field.

In the prevalent method of motion picture projection, the film movement is in the nature of a series of quick jerks, each taking about one-half of the time given to each picture. Nearly 50 per cent of the time is taken up in moving the pictures forward and 50 per cent in projecting

them upon the screen. Hence the flicker and the chance of eye strain.

The principle underlying this present method of projection is that the persistence of vision in the human eye is about one-tenth of a second. It has been found that a speed in projection of from 16 to 17 pictures per second is necessary to enable the eyes to retain the image of one picture until the next is projected upon the screen and to overcome or partially overcome annoyance to the eyes caused by the intervals. This is the rate of projection now used throughout the world on all standard machines for monochrome pictures and photographs for such use have had to be taken at a speed of at least 16 per second in order to appear natural.

Some of the advantages claimed for the new method are that there are no intervals between successive pictures, but each succeeding picture dissolves into the one preceding it in exact proportion as the volume of light shifts from one to the other; that there is no flicker; and less danger of fire because the projecting light does not reach the film directly, but is reflected by the mirrors; and that the front seats in an assembly room would be made as desirable as any other seats.

BOSTON CONFERENCE ON ILLEGITIMACY

Perhaps in no field of social work are the factors less adjusted, the issues more baffling, than in that relating to unmarried mothers. It has become not only desirable, but positively imperative, to a wise pulling together for the workers in Boston dealing with problems related to illegitimacy to unite in some sort of permanent group for free discussion of aims and means.

The Conference of Workers on Problems of Illegitimacy which was organized in Boston last year has had a fruitful year of discussion. Each month some general question has been up for consideration, the question always being precipitated by the detailed story of some puzzling specific case. In this way have been thrashed out the following questions:

What shall we do with unmarried mothers who are unfitted for housework?

Is it ever advisable to separate the child from a normal mother?

Is institutional or private care best for a pregnant girl and under what circumstances is each preferable?

What shall we do with pregnant girls from other states or countries?

The conference was pretty fully agreed upon the policies of treatment that follow.

It is advisable to keep mother and child together where possible if the mother is in any way capable of bringing up the child. In cases where the mother is unfitted for domestic service it may be decidedly wiser to place her where she is happier and more efficient, in a factory, for instance. But even here financial responsibility for the baby, and at least weekly visits to the child, should be insisted upon.

It is desirable to send back to the states or countries from which they come girls who arrive here pregnant in order that each section may develop care for its own unmarried mothers. Although this may mean old-fashioned care in the individual case because of the lack of modern agencies and institutions in places from which the girls come, it is one of the means of making localities that are not equipped to deal with such situations more alert to their responsibility.

It is difficult to determine in what cases individual care or institutional care is wise. Particularly wayward girls often need the discipline of an institution, while the more innocent type are not helped by association with those they are sure to be brought in contact with, even in institutions that take only first offenders.

Wherever there are not very positive reasons to the contrary, it is of great importance to tell a girl's family of her approaching confinement in order to enlist their co-operation and to enable the girl to have the most natural and helpful relationships possible at a time when she needs every constructive influence to build up courage for her life ordeal and determination to keep her child and give it every opportunity within her power. Her family ought to be, and if properly approached and dealt with, often is, the social worker's greatest asset in this effort.

It was discovered that little provision, other than that in almshouses, is made for people who have had cases of venereal disease, as the good private institutions caring for prospective mothers exclude, and naturally, such cases.

The Conference have also discussed at each meeting various aspects of the greatest single cause of illegitimacy—feeble-mindedness. They have tried to formulate more definitely the indicia of the high grade feeble-minded cases, and to determine more clearly the relation of the social worker's investigation and history to the doctor's analysis. They have debated the desirability of domstic service under supervision for these defective girls. The high grade feeble-minded girls if cared for in an institution probably cost the state more than the same girls doing domestic service, even allowing for the immense amount of surveillance necessary on the part of the visitor to keep them out of harm's way. Neither institutions nor philanthropic agencies have enough equipment adequately to deal with this class of delinquents. The conference has faced the question of segregation in institutions and of sterilization as a means of preventing a continuance of this evil in future generations. They have asked whether it was ever safe to return a feeble-

minded girl to the community. While agreeing that marriage of feeble-minded persons ought not to be permitted, they have not reached a final conclusion as to the best means of prevention.

A committee has been appointed to make an investigation of the causes other than feeble-mindedness that are at the root of illegitimacy. This committee has already done valuable work as a by-product of its main purpose in suggesting important points which agencies are apt to omit in their histories, and in aiding in a greater standardization of work. A full report is expected of this committee next year.

Study groups are being organized to take up the questions of legislation, venereal disease, the efficiency and range of existing institutions, public opinion, feeble-mindedness and statistics. Any further information about the Boston Conference may be had from the secretary, Mrs. Stanley King, 295 Beacon Street.

PROBING FOR PEACE

The investigational method has proved of such demonstrated worth in all-American situations—whether of civic conditions or strikes—that its application to the peace movement will be watched with interest. The reference is of course to the appointment by the International Peace Endowment, through Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, acting director of the endowment, of an international commission of inquiry into the Balkan war. The first move toward this is said to have come from Bulgarians who in consequence of attacks on them by the Greek and Servian press demanded a public inquiry into the extent and responsibility for atrocities committed during the war. The New York *Evening Post* calls the proposed work of the commission a "diagnosis of war," and congratulates the peace movement on the greatest opportunity that has been presented it to win the world's serious attention to the nature and implications of war. The topics of investigation include the responsibility for the outbreak of war, the economic waste caused by it and the truth about the outrages committed by non-combatants. Of these, the last appeals most strongly to the popular imagination, but the first, the responsible cause, is, in the opinion of the *Post*, the most fundamental. The main point of attack on war by peace advocates says the *Post* "lies in the direction of ascertaining who or what is responsible for war. Is it being fought for a worthy cause, or is it being fought because certain leaders or certain interests desire war? It makes all the difference in the world whether the mangled bodies on the hillsides in Thrace and Macedonia are the price



Cesare in New York Sun

THE WORLD IS OVERCROWDED AND OVERARMED.—*London Economist.*



Minor in St. Louis Post-Dispatch.

"What have you got against me?"
"Nothing. But our masters have ordered us to fight."

paid for the liberation of the Balkans from Turkish misrule, or whether those dead bodies and shattered limbs are incidents in the ambitions of a king or a commander-in-chief, and a testimonial to the skill of travelling salesmen from the gun factories at Essen and Creusot."

A list of names has been suggested as members of the commission, but the final make-up will not be known until the meeting to discuss the work of the commission which is to be held soon in Paris. The proposed membership includes:

Prof. John D. Prince, of Columbia University, representing the United States.

Francis W. Hirst, editor of the *London Economist*, representing Great Britain.

Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, senator and president of the French parliamentary group favoring international arbitration, representing France.

Prof. Philipp Zorn, of Bonn University, representing Germany.

Prof. Paul N. Milukoff, editor and leader of the Constitutional-Democrats in the Russian Duma, representing Russia.

Prof. Heinrich Lammasch, of the University of Vienna, well known as a jurist, representing Austria-Hungary.

PEACE IN WEST VIRGINIA

The West Virginia coal strike, which lasted sixteen months, and was marked by the violence and bitterness of a civil war, has come to an end, and contracts have been signed on both Paint and Cabin creeks. The Paint creek agreement, which was signed on July 24, accords full recognition to the United Mine Workers, and grants practically all their demands, including the check-off; that is, the deduction in the office from the miner's wages of his union dues and the payment of them to the union officials. On Cabin creek the agreement signed on July 29 did not grant recognition to the unions, but it is stated in the *Coal Age* that by the change from the long ton to the short ton the miners have secured an increase in wages, amounting to about 12 per cent. They have gained also the nine-hour day, a semi-monthly pay, the right to employ check weighmen and to trade where they please. The Paint creek contract is to run until March 31, 1914, while that of Cabin creek is to continue a year longer, coming to an end April 1, 1915. The *Coal Age* sums up the cost of the bitter struggle, now ended, as follows:

"Thirteen lives were lost in the insurrection. The cost in money was as follows:

Operators loss in business $2,000,000; Loss to the miners in wages $1,500,000; Cost to the tax payers of the State $400,000; Additional cost to the tax payers of Kanawha County $100,000; Cost to the United Mine Workers collected by the check-off, a forced levy on the miners of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and Western Pennsylvania $602,000; Property destroyed $10,000. This makes a total of $4,612,000."

BUSINESS IS LIFE: A SURVEY OF NEGRO PROGRESS

WM. ANTHONY AERY

NEGRO farmers, bankers, merchants, contractors, cotton brokers, insurance men, real estate dealers, social service workers, town and community builders, caterers, engineers, undertakers, educators—these men, representing the entire country and especially the South, told at the recent session of the National Negro Business League held in Philadelphia, with eloquence born of simplicity and hard experience in the school of life, thrilling stories of success won through struggle, persistence, and good-will toward their white neighbors. The Philadelphia meetings furnished abundant proof of the statement that quality and service count in business and that men buy good products and efficient service without regard to color or race.

"Forward to the land!" In thundering tones did this command and entreaty ring out through the Academy of Music to the thousands of Negroes who had assembled to hear Booker T. Washington deliver his annual address to the league. There are some 200,000,000 acres of unused and unoccupied land in this country. Will the American Negro, especially the city Negro, acquire his share through hard work and thrift? Will young Negroes quit the poolrooms with their debasing effects and march into usefulness and comfort on the land? Will the Negro seek the signs of civiliation—the automobile and the dress suit—and miss civilization as it is represented in the home and the bank account? Will the Negro forego some pleasures today so as to enjoy richer treasures tomorrow? Will the Negro allow others to think and plan for him instead of thinking and planning for himself? These vital questions of business and of life itself were put squarely to the thoughtful Negroes who had come great distances at their own expense and in many cases at considerable sacrifice of time and money. They also reached some of the city Negroes who had come out of mere curiosity to hear Mr. Washington urge a return to the Negro's richest opportunity—the land.

Mr. Washington is far-sighted enough, however, to see the need of better Negro business enterprises. There is, indeed, according to his opinion, room in this country, without conflicting with the interests of white people, for 900,000 more Negro farms; 1,000 sawmills; 1,000 brickyards; 4,000 grocery stores; 2,000 dry goods stores; 1,500 shoe stores; 1,500 millinery shops; 1,000 drug stores and 90 banks.

Successful "demonstrations"—human interest stories—were a conspicuous feature of the sessions.

The organization of a $100,000 old-line legal-

reserve insurance company by Negroes, headed by H. T. Perry, and its heroic struggle during five years to secure the paid-in capital, was told simply and dramatically by H. H. Pace. It shows what can be done in the South. Perry's experience in Atlanta should put fresh courage into the hearts of ambitious Negroes who really want to give their people better stores, better banks, better insurance companies, better hotels, and better country life. The story of Perry's defeat in collecting the paid-in capital, required by the Georgia law for the starting of the Standard Life Insurance Company of Atlanta, followed by his victory, through hard work and faith, emphasizes the importance of teaching men to act co-operatively when they wish to do big things. This story will long be remembered by the delegates and their friends, for it contains real "education for life, in life and by life," as Dr. Wallace Buttrick has phrased the thought—the underlying aim of Hampton and Tuskegee.

Another interesting event of the past year, in the Negro business world, has been the opening of the $100,000 cotton-oil mill at Mound Bayou, Miss., a Negro town which was founded by Isaiah T. Montgomery, an ex-slave of Joseph Davis, brother of Jefferson Davis. This Negro enterprise shows what Negroes can do when they pull together and turn their disadvantages into advantages.

Nineteen years ago, J. H. Blodgett began his up-hill climb with $1.10 in his pocket and a suit of underwear in a paper bag. Further, he was arrested as a tramp for wearing a straw hat in winter time. Today, he owns 121 houses in Jacksonville, Fla., having a rental value of $2,500 a month. Blodgett got his start as a railroad window washer at $1.05 a day. He and his wife worked hard, saved their money, and finally built their own home. He declares that there is no excuse for young, able-bodied Negroes to waste their time in hotel work at $20 to $30 a month and tips when they can grow tomatoes in Florida at $1,000 an acre.

What is a correct formula for success on the farm? Henry Kelley, of Belen, Miss., who has been hard at work since 1873 and is now worth some $50,000 offers a reasonable one: "Industry, economy, education." Kelley started out independently in 1886 with 520 acres of land which he cleared as quickly as he could. He built a home, and by degrees established a good business in cotton ginning, grist milling, and log sawing. Then he began to build tenant houses and to deal with his own people in the spirit of the Golden Rule. Today, he works 1,750 acres and has fifty tenants. His payroll ranges from $800 to $1,000 a month and he has work for his hands "from January through December." He produces about 500 bales of cotton each season. He has no trouble, on account of his color, in doing business. His Mississippi white friends, he says, have always been good to him. Kelley is a hard worker still. His day—and that of his hands—is "from sun to sun."

J. T. Kirklin, of Columbia, Mo., started in 1873 as a handy boy on the State University farm and received thirty cents a day. Out of his own wages he had to board himself. He was glad to keep his job because he was learning how to farm scientifically. In 1903 he began to take first prizes, in competition with white farmers, for his fine strawberries, carrots, watermelons, and garden truck. His first market wagon was an ordinary wheelbarrow. Later he bought two buggy wheels and made a wagon—a push cart. While some of his own people were laughing at his crude outfit, Kirklin was saving his money and improving his small truck garden. Today he is worth $20,000 and is a quiet and respected citizen.

Has the Negro building contractor who knows his business a fair chance to succeed in the South? B. L. Windham, of the contracting firm of Windham Brothers, Birmingham, Ala., declares that efficiency and not color determines the kind of work that Negroes receive. His firm has built a $100,000 apartment house for white people in Birmingham, Ala. It employs, on an average, 100 people—all Negroes—throughout the year to handle some $300,000 worth of contracts. The business of this firm of Negro contractors has grown from $50,000 in 1903 to $265,000 for seven months in 1913 and is carried on from the Mason and Dixon line to the Gulf of Mexico.

The annual meetings of the Negro Business League give some striking stories of Negro success and progress to men and women who need courage and inspiration for their work. Other stories could be cited to show that the Negro who applies himself to business and refrains from whining wins the patronage and good will not only of his own people but also of the white people. Courage, initiative, and persistence are indeed required for the task of establishing any business.

The resolutions, adopted at the final session of the league, summarized the progress of the Negro during fifty years of freedom. Ten million American Negroes now pay taxes on over $700,000,000 worth of property and own 20,000,000 acres of land (that is, about 31,000 square miles). They own 63 banks, capitalized at $2,600,000 and doing an annual business of $20,000,000. Today there are Negro business leagues in twelve states.

Facts of Negro progress need to be better understood by white and black people. One of the best sources of informations is the Negro Year Book, edited by Monroe N. Work of Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Ala.

THE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT THROUGH THE CHILDREN'S EYES

MAY AYRES

THIS spring, ten-year-old Ralph in one of the Rochester public schools wrote a letter to his teacher:

> "Do you know what the Child's Welfare Exhibit is for? Well, if you do not know what it is for, I will tell you. It is for the child to know better and try and keep the house clean, for a dirty house is a terrible house to live in. And most every disease comes from a dirty house—especially tuberculosis. Because we found out over at the armory that when you get tuberculosis it keeps eating at your lungs, and only fresh air will kill tuberculosis."

Ralph had been to the Child Welfare Exhibit and come away with one important truth thoroughly impressed upon him. The exhibit was held during the second week in April. Everyone helped, and as their part the public and parochial schools offered their children as living demonstrations of Rochester school work. There were dances, drills, and games every afternoon and evening. Children sang together, and other children formed small classes of sewing, carpentry, electric wiring, cooking, rug weaving, drawing, etc., and worked steadily under the direction of teachers. The school children of Rochester were constantly in touch with the exhibit; they were given special holidays in which to see it; and their interest was keen. The following week those in the upper grades were asked to write letters telling about what they remembered.

Some 553 of these letters were examined for the purpose of ascertaining first, the most effective form of presentation for exhibit material, and second, the degree to which children understand and remember the lessons which different exhibits are designed to teach. In making the tabulation, only those letters were used which were written by the children themselves, without outside help. Several had to be discarded because they showed evidences of suggestions and corrections from the teacher. Every reference to an exhibit feature was counted, even where the child spoke of the same thing more than once.

The most popular feature among the children were the entertainments each afternoon and evening. These consisted of dances, drills, games, and chorus singing by the children themselves. Sarah, of the eighth grade, writes:

> "Of all the good sights that I have seen and heard, I truly think the exhibit was one of the best. The one particular thing that interested me so much was the dancing which I don't think could have been any better,"

while Charlotte ungrammatically adds,

> "I think it was a splendid idea to have these entertainments, and I am sure it done the people good."

The school children not only joined in dances and drills, but with the help of their teachers formed classes which worked and recited as living exhibits. All the children found the classes interesting. Says little Michael Ettiopia:

> "I saw manual training. They were making desks to sell them. Many people bought them for their children to get learned to write and read. I saw some girls they were making candy, and I asked if they would sell the candy. They said 'No, little boy, we don't sell candy.' So the people could see how to make candy."

Particular attention was paid to the work of the boys from the "Shop School." There was a class in electric wiring where the children loved to watch the work. Here is a paragraph from nine-year-old Raymond's description:

> "There was a boy with a electric light on the front of a box, to batteries in it, and a switch on the back. When I saw this I said to him, 'I wired up a electric light down cellar and it turned on up by the cellar door.' He said 'Did you?' and I said 'Yes, sir.'"

The children were quick to recognize the ability of others, in such expressions as:

> "The dresses they had were elegant, and everything they did was grand. Not one boy or girl made a mistake. It was perfect."

One twelve-year-old reports:

> "There was a booth where the children of the Industrial School had the things they sewed. There were dresses and sacks and not a girl over 13 years made them. It goes to show what some girls can do."

The most impressive single exhibit seems to have been that of the tidy and untidy home, which received 8 per cent of the 3,123 references. The moving picture show and the library receiv-

ed 6 per cent each, and the dairy, playground, and market 3 per cent.

The moving pictures appealed strongly to children in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades; they are mentioned only half as frequently by those in the seventh and eighth. The other exhibit features received practically the same amount of attention from children in all different grades.

Many children devoted two pages or more to a description of the bedrooms and kitchens in the tidy and untidy home. Here is an account given by a ten-year-old girl in the fourth grade:

> "Then in a corner opposite that it showed how dirty people keep their houses. The bedroom had dirty old clothes on the bed which was half made. The kitchen was all dirty and dusty, and there was a can of tomato empted out in the dishpan with wet dripping greasy rags right above them and dripping into them. And the table cloth was all dirty and mussed up, and there was some sour saurkraut and cabbage mixed together and cooked an hour or two too long. The coffee was the strongest I have ever seen in my life, and I don't believe I shall ever see any more as strong as that as long as I live, and there was not any milk for it, and the pickles were mouldy enough to kill any child, and the sausage was terrible."

The same child goes on to describe the clean and dirty dairy.

> "It showed how your milkman's dairy should be, and how dirty some of them were. The dirty dairy was all full of cobwebs and there was straw and mud in the pails and a cat was lapping the milk right out of the pails and the cows were all muddy and dirty. But the clean dairy was lovely and the barn was all pure white and the cows were the cleanest I have ever seen and the milk was all rich and creamy and clean because the pail was all covered over on the top and the yard was all covered with green grass and it all was just as clean and neat as it could be."

Twelve-year-old Meta draws a lesson from the homes and the dairy. She says:

> "The Child Welfare Exhibit is to show the fathers and mothers how to bring up their boys and girls so that they will make good citizens. If the citizens of a city or town are good citizens, the town will be a good city or town. You would hardly think a dirty house would have anything to do with the future citizens, but it has. If a boy or girl has a dirty home he also will be dirty not only in body but in mind also. (Dirty in mind means a mind with which you cannot think clear.) . . . You must also have good food because if your food is food which does not nourish you right, your mind will not be good."

The clean and dirty markets held a peculiar fascination for the children, and there are vivid accounts of the cat that was "walking over the meat and licking the meat" and the "cow's head with a disease that made it all lumpy, lying in the corner, with the blood dripping out." As Helen remarks:

> "In the good store the store keeper was dressed in white, the food all looked clean and in a nice glass case. In the bad store the cat was on the counter and the celery and lettuce was all dried up, and the rest is too disgusting to tell about."

Finally, we have this manly confession from an eleven-year-old boy:

> "I think the child welfare exhibit was a very nice thing, for it teaches you something, at least it did me. The things that taught me the most was about the good and bad rooms, for I have a bad room; and so did the good and bad stores do me good."

All the children saw the moving-picture show, which they take care to tell us was a free show. The film dealing with the care of the teeth, that telling the story of a boy's camp, one vaguely described as "he knocked his wife down and he knocked his children down, and they all fought," and the clean milk film received the most attention.

In the center of the armory a small playground was erected, and there the older children took their little brothers and sisters. One of them writes:

> "One of the days when I was there a little girl was crying as though her heart was broken, because she had to go home, and her mother had to promise her she would bring her up there the next day, so she would stop her crying because she wanted to stay and play in the playground."

The library proved a great attraction to the children. One after another tells of "reading most of the afternoon, and when I got out it was most night," or of starting a book "which I came back the next afternoon to finish. It was a book of engineers." The general feeling of the children is expressed by Sarah Sedita when she says:

> "While looking around I could not express my joy, when I went to see the library department and saw on a sign what is to be in Rochester, which was no other than this—that there is to be a public library and fifty other branches of it at different places in the city. Although I have read ever so many books, I could not help then to be overjoyed."

Near the library was a booth showing the guns, cards, jimmies, daggers, etc., taken away from small boys in the children's court. There was also a lurid collection of dime novels from the same source. Of these Katherine writes:

> "I was talking to Mr. Killip about the boys he had to handle, and he was telling how some of them acted. It was very interesting to see the things he had taken from boys under sixteen years—the revolvers, dice, knives, books, cartridges, and

other things. Some little boys came along and saw the books and one said, 'Didn't I tell you those were good books? See, they got them here!'"

This booth and the explainers in charge—the explainers seem to have done effective work in the Rochester exhibit—impressed the boys very seriously. Moses states the case:

> "When a child reads a novel he gets interested in them and likes to buy more of them. After a boy reads a great deal of these novels he gets so that he thinks he is the things that he is reading about. And soon after that he starts to murder."

Tabulation was made showing the distribution of references among the four main types of exhibit material—entertainments, models, motion exhibits, and photographs, maps, diagrams, charts, etc. To reach conclusive results, it would be necessary to secure the exact number of exhibits shown in each of the four classes. We know, however, that there were more photographs, cartoons, charts, maps, etc., in the Rochester exhibit than numbers on the program, or different models, or motion exhibits. Donald tells us—"There was charts of the teeth, mind, nostrils, ears, throat, various organs, limbs, and feet."

But most of the children who attended the exhibit have only a vague memory of the photograps which lined the walls, and every reference of this kind is capped by three references to the program numbers. Models and motion exhibits receive practically the same amount of attention in all the grades. The lower grades were more impressed by the entertainments than the higher, and the higher were more impressed by the photographs than the lower. The per cents for all the children run: entertainment 35, models 28, motion exhibits 26, and photos, maps, etc., 11.

There were 271 favorable comments and 44 unfavorable comments on the exhibit. The favorable run from one little girl's reiterated exclamation of "Oh, it was grand!" to Ralph's dignified statement:

> "Thousands of people were taught by the clean and healthy attitude of the building a great number of things. It was probably the best move toward cleanness ever held in this city."

With a few exceptions, the unfavorable comments have to do with the overcrowding, from which the children suffered greatly. As a natural result of such a throng, the halls became stuffy, and there seemed to be no adequate system of ventilation. One of the boys writes:

> "There were imposing posters on the poor air system in the tenement houses, but right there, where thousands of people came daily, the air was so bad that people who really wanted to see the things stayed away."

A twelve-year-old girl makes this scathing comment:

> "At different booths they had pictures showing how to prevent children from getting germs of disease. Then the mothers take their children to a place like that. Saturday night after I got in the Armory basement from dancing it was so full of dust I could hardly breath. Then we went up stairs and mother said that the American mothers were going crazy. The Child's Welfare Exhibit is very fine, but I think the Rochester mothers had better tone down and be more careful of where they take their children. For it was just full of germs down there, both up and down stairs."

There were many general comments, and lessons drawn, such as "Many people will say 'Oh, I can't afford milk, it's too expensive.' But this is all foolish, as in the end milk is the cheapest and best of foods." An eleven-year-old girl writes:

> "The thing that took my interest was the different cares and diseases of the babies that they are apt to get when they are neglected. And it will help me very much during vacation, as I am going to take care of the baby."

Finally comes this simple tribute to the success of the exhibit:

> "When looking at the pictures of poor children and homes and the condition of the homes, it seems hardly possible that such conditions could exist in Rochester, but when you get out of doors again your eyes are opened and you see conditions that you never noticed before."

The children speak frankly in their letters, often telling more about themselves than they realize. There is something pathetic in the following glimpse of home life which Maurice affords us:

> "The good food and bad are almost what I take, but I don't drink coffee any more, and will not take it. My brother used to have coffee every meal, but since my mother was there he drinks no coffee but all milk and bread. Bread is about the only good food there is, and I have had lately a good appetite for it."

One feels a throb of sympathy for the boy who says:

> "We need something to make us stronger mentally, and something to abolish the truant officer."

Many of the children are quite sure that the exhibit was for the instruction of the "lower classes" only, and have a pleasant feeling of superiority as they speak of its influence. Says one with some indignation:

> "The thing impressed me as if the Italians and Germans were having more done for them than the Americans and respectable people."

And finally ends a mournful letter with the conclusion many other observers have reached before her:

"The impression of the whole exhibit on me was that it is slow work."

It is of course impossible to draw any hard and fast rules as to the effect of exhibit material upon an adult audience from these letters of school children. Certain things, however, are of enough significance to warrant attention on the part of exhibitors. With the exception of the moving picture exhibit all these different features were about as interesting to the children in the seventh and eighth grades as to those in the fourth, fifth and sixth. Difference in age seems to have little to do with the strength of the impression received. The fact that children acted in the entertainments and motion exhibits probably accounts in part for their interest in these two forms of exhibit material, but it cannot account for the high per cent of attention paid to the tidy and untidy home, the moving pictures, the library, the clean and dirty dairy, or the clean and dirty market. Entertainments interested them most, models next, then motion exhibits, and photographs least of all. Difference in age becomes a factor when considering the type of material rather than the individual exhibit, and we find interest in entertainments lessening, and that in photographs and diagrams increasing towards the higher grades. Through all the grades, however, models and motion exhibits receive very nearly the same amount of attention, and together receive more than half of all the references made. Among adults, it seems safe to assume that the relative order of interest would be the same.

SOCIALIZING THE COUNTRYSIDE

MARY H. FISHER

A little over three years ago, in the spring of 1910, a newcomer to the little town of Amenia, Dutchess County, New York, inspired perhaps by the glorious sweep of the twenty-five acre field on his recently acquired possessions, summoned to his home a handful of his neighbors and laid before them the germ of an idea which a few weeks later was to blossom into the full-blown Amenia Field Day. At the start, the newcomer offered the community his field, his time, his assistance in every way possible, and asked and obtained of them that spirit of co-operation which has made Amenia Field Day stand for what it does today. In 1910 the attendance was 3,000; each succeeding year, it has increased; in 1913, it was 10,000, and 1914 will doubtless see it bigger yet.

The Amenia idea has been described as "an experiment in co-operative recreation"; a high-sounding phrase, which means simply that the people of Amenia get together, plan together, work together to the end that one day a year they may play together.

Simple though this idea is, it has not been an easy one to inspire in the hearts of New York and Connecticut farmers (for Amenia is less than three miles from the state line). The rural population is admittedly composed for the most part of conservatives, unimpressionable, and slow to arouse to anything which savors of innovation, and which does not bring in its train anything of palpable, material benefit. For generations past, they have had their county fairs, with concomitant cattle and poultry exhibits, horse-racing, fakers, and side-shows of rather more than a questionable nature. They have had farmers' picnics, for the most part small affairs, of purely local interest. But the Amenia idea was conceived in a spirit bigger and broader, and, it is believed, more truly democratic and more representative of what public spirit in a rural community ought to be. To quote from the program of the fourth annual Amenia Field Day, "The Amenia Field Day offers, as a substitute for the commercialized fair, a free day of wholesome enjoyment, supported by the united efforts of a whole community. One day a year the people of Amenia invite the whole countryside to such a day of clean and simple recreation, without gamblers, fakers, intoxicating liquors, or vulgar sideshows. Admission to our festival is free to all."

This year, the committee strained every nerve towards including in the day's entertainment features that should take in everyone, young and old, of both sexes. For boys, they planned a series of athletic events, running and jumping contests, open to all comers, without limitation save as to age. Prizes were generously donated by a leading citizen of Amenia, but the committee is seriously considering doing away with all prizes next year, except the simplest of silk badges, commemorative of the event.

The scope of athletic sports, in which it is wise for girls to participate, is so limited that this year for the first time folk-dancing was instituted. The committee imported a teacher from the Bureau of Recreation, Department of Parks, New York City, and entrusted to her not merely the task of teaching the graceful and quaint dances, that have been imported from over the seas, to the maidens of Dutchess County, but the far more difficult task of organizing the classes, of getting the girls to join, of persuading the mothers to allow their daughters to join. Nowhere are social strata so well-defined, nowhere religious and racial lines so closely drawn as in the country community; nowhere are barriers of caste so hard to break down. To level the ranks of prosperous and poor, to bring about harmony between Catholic and Protestant elements, requires a very large measure of diplomacy and tact, combined with human sympathy.

For small children of both sexes, under mature leadership, were arranged the games which city children for generations past have known and loved, and in turn handed down to their smaller brothers and sisters; games such as "cat



DANCING ON THE GREEN, FIELD DAY AT AMENIA, DUTCHESS COUNTY, NEW YORK.

and rat," "farmer-in-the-dell," etc., which for some inexplicable reason seem never to have penetrated the school playgrounds of Dutchess County.

On Field Day, August 19, for miles around Amenia, the holiday spirit was in the air. Everybody with his wife and family, in automobile, farm wagon, or on foot, took the road that led to Amenia Field; even those who professed no interest in the events of the day, came "just to see who was there!" Everybody brought lunchbaskets and spread the contents under the trees, in true picnic style, since nothing but soft drinks and sandwiches were sold on the grounds.

Throughout the day, a band of musicians played patriotic and popular airs. The old folks gathered together contentedly in groups, listening to the music, while keeping an admiring eye on the prowess of their athletic sons, the grace of their daughters dancing on the sward. Young and old participated in the grand march that took place immediately after lunch-hour.

Afterwards, in a tent-covered auditorium, men and women of national prominence addressed an attentive audience on subjects chosen for their interest to a rural population. Suffragists, from Poughkeepsie and New York, by way of propaganda, presented an open-air pageant portraying the advance of women's education in modern times. Meanwhile, a demonstration of alfalfa-growing, under the supervision of the Dutchess County Farm Bureau, and the State Department of Agriculture, was given in a neighboring field. Enthusiastic "fans" of Dutchess County were given an opportunity to cheer at a baseball game between two local teams.

The day finished with a band concert held in the Post Office Square, of Amenia, which had been decked with hundreds of lighted Chinese lanterns, strung from adjoining buildings. The expense of this concert, as of all the other features of the day, was met by popular subscription. Everybody was invited, nobody solicited, to contribute, according to his means.

On every program of Amenia Field Day has been printed these principles:

"You have got to make the country as attractive socially as the city if you want to keep the young folks on the farms.

"There's a good deal of work in the country, but most of our boys and girls have forgotten how to play.

"Baseball is a splendid game, but it isn't the only one. Every healthy boy should be interested in at least half a dozen others. Don't merely watch others play games; play them yourself.

"You can't drink strong drink and be an athlete. Get your boys interested in honest and healthy sports, and save them from drink and dissipation.

"Contests and competitions are not the main thing. 'The strong compete and grow stronger; the weak look on and grow weaker.' The main thing is play. Learn the great lesson that play is just as necessary for your sons as work.

"The community should help to run its own recreations. Its festivals should be, not only for the people, but of and by the people."

MODEL HOUSING AS A COLLEGE COURSE

Some of the concrete results of the Tuskegee experiment in reconstructing the interior of the Negro rural home, were told in THE SURVEY of August 30. Paine College, Augusta, Ga., a school for Negroes, supported for thirty years by southern white people, who feel that the Negro question can only be solved when the white descendants of slave owners set their hearts and heads to the task, is endeavoring to experiment on the reconstruction of the Negro city home by change of material environment. If a $50,000 endowment can be raised the college will put into effect a plan of housing designed to prove it profitable, not only morally but financially, to provide the Negro an exterior environment which shall make the task of educating him for life easier. The scheme and the demand for better housing on which

it is based is described by Mrs. John D. Hammond, wife of and co-worker with the white president of Paine College.

The whole plan is based upon the belief that the Negro is himself eagerly striving for a decent living. The Negroes' own fight, individually, for better homes is said to be little short of heroic. All through the South, in city and country, Negro-owned homes witness to the increasing prosperity of a large class, and to the effort and self-denial of thousands more, whose income would seem to many of us, to put house-owning utterly out of the question.

But most Negroes belong to that economic class which, the world over, pays the heaviest rent in proportion to its income and yields the landlord the largest return on his investment, yet which receives in return little which is compatible with health or decency.

This is the tragedy of the Negro slum. Nobody is trying to abolish it, because nobody believes it can be done. We believe the Negro breeds the slum—instead of the slum breeding many of the Negro's defects. Everywhere else people are re-creating the slum-dweller by abolishing the slum. We make no effort, partly because, as yet, few of us know of the widespread struggle for better housing the Negro is himself making.

What is needed, Mrs. Hammond believes, is an experiment station in Negro housing in the South. When it is proven, as it surely can be, that Negro day laborers and washerwomen can be decently housed at a fair profit to the landlord, southern money will be invested in houses of the right kind. But somebody must prove it, and advertise the proof far and wide.

The plan by which Paine College hopes to prove it is, in brief, to buy a city block of about six acres in Augusta, Ga., and build on four acres little three-roomed houses, such as day-laborers and washerwomen rent. The houses are to have a sink in every kitchen (water in the house is to this class a luxury unknown), and a toilet, ample window space, closets, and the porch so necessary to family comfort in a warm climate. By building double houses, and four acres full of them at a time, they can be put up for $850 per double house.[1] The rent would be two dollars the room per month, the current rent for that district. The lot for each family would be 20 x 105, which would afford a little garden-space in the rear—a privilege highly esteemed by many of the poorer Negroes, and one which, under the plan proposed, would be a powerful aid in the upbuilding of home and family life.

Four acres of the six-acre block would give room for forty double houses. The other two acres Mrs. Hammond designs to use as a playground for the children, and a site for a community house. This house should contain a kindergarten room and a room for boys' clubs which could be thrown together at night and used for the recreation and the instruction of the grown people. It should have a room for cooking classes, one for sewing classes, a few free baths for men and women; and a small laundry and drying room, like those in the East End of London, a small weekly payment for the use of which would relieve the mothers from the heaviest of their drudgery, and set free much of their time for home-making. It would also make possible a war of extermination against the accumulations of trash about the ordinary Negro home, where so many abominations are claimed to be necessary for the sake of the pot and fire in the yard "to boil de clo'es."

Rent would be collected on the Octavia Hill plan, with its concomitant thrift clubs, mothers', men's, children's, and home-improvement clubs, and these clubs would do for the tenants just what it does elsewhere for slum-dwellers of other races. They would, Mrs. Hammond believes, be built up in character, the houses would be saved from the usual degeneration of property rented to this economic class, a good return would be realized on the investment, and the children ultimately turned over to the community as self-respecting and law-abiding instead of furnishing, as is inevitable under present conditions, their full quota of paupers and criminals, to be carried by the taxpayers of the city.

Three rooms would be reserved for the Negro worker, who would not only keep them as a model home, but would use them to train the girls in housework. This would leave seventy-nine three-roomed homes for rent, at six dollars each monthly, a yearly total of $5,688.00. This sum would pay the salary of the social worker, who is a necessity to the success of the plan, and yet yield 10 per cent gross on the investment, though two acres of the land and the settlement house, representing one-fifth of the sum invested would be unproductive from a commercial point of view. This is on the basis of an expense of $9,000 for land, $34,000 for forty double houses and $7,500 for the settlement house, a total investment of $50,500.

Rentals from Negro property now yield a larger gross return than this, as do rentals from similar property elsewhere; but the houses deteriorate so rapidly from misuse that the landlord feels that only an extraordinary profit while they last can insure him against actual loss. A gross return of 10 per cent where the buildings suffered only the depreciation caused by rational use would be as attractive to the ordinary business man here as elsewhere.

Mrs. Hammond's scheme would be considered part of the educational system of Paine College. Good housing and good living as taught in the settlement and practically applied in the model housing plan would become a part of the school curriculum. The raising of the endowment fund is the present problem of Paine College. The peculiarity of this, as of all other Negro schools, is that the more students it has the poorer it is. Few of the pupils can pay the full amount asked of them, which is itself less than the actual cost of their board and tuition. Some work is furnished them—in kitchen, laundry and household for the girls, in grounds and

[1]The houses would be of wood, as local conditions make the expense of brick or cement prohibitive.

garden for the boys—by which they partly pay their way. The plan is to have the income from the model housing endowment used to pay poor students for work done and so provide with an education many whom the college is forced now to turn away.

The homes, playground and settlement would furnish a practical field where young Negro women could be trained as social workers in order to meet the growing demand from white people in several southern states for trained Negroes to work among the poor of their own race.

BOYS' "PETITION FOR INDEPENDENCE"

A "Petition for Independence," signed by representatives of the boys and girls of Ithaca, expresses the principles of the Junior Municipality organized in that city the latter part of June by William R. George, director of the National Association of Junior Republics. The object of the "municipality" is the practical training of younger citizens in their rights and responsibilities by the formation of a government of junior officials who shall act in matters of the public welfare in co-operation with the city officials. Already the mayors of Cortland, N. Y., and Jersey City have asked Mr. George to start like organizations.

"We, the undersigned, being the youth of Ithaca, N. Y., between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, do respectfully call to the attention of our elders that, although not of age, we nevertheless feel we have reached the point where we could and should actively participate in the government of our city.

"We regard as merely a legal fiction the assumption that we are infants in all matters relating to the government of the community.

"We respectfully call attention to the fact that in time of war boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one are sent to the front to fight for their country and are frequently as officers placed in positions of peculiar responsibility and danger. Is it not self-evident that if youths can thus honorably acquit themselves in time of war, they could and should assume the less dangerous and onerous responsibilities of peace?

"We find in the annals of history that from time immemorial youths of our age have, when placed in positions of trust, acquitted themselves creditably. Before the age of twenty-one Alexander the Great was not only the ruler of Macedon, but the dominant power in all Greece; Charles James Fox became a member of the British Parliament before he was of age, and the younger Pitt became Prime Minister of Great Britain when he had scarcely passed his majority. In short, there is abundant evidence both in the past and the present that youth can and will rise to responsibility when it is placed upon them.

"Such being the case, we do hereby resolve to accept the suggestion of William R. George, the founder of the Junior Republics, and the invitations of Mayor Reamer and the Common Council and organize ourselves into a Junior Municipality in order that we may at once actively serve our city as junior citizens and thereby prepare ourselves for more efficient citizenship as adults.

"We hereby pledge ourselves to assist in the enforcement of all the laws and ordinances of the city, particularly those directly relating to boys and girls and their interests.

"We further pledge ourselves that when elected to any office in the Junior Municipality we will give our full and faithful co-operation to the adult official holding the corresponding office in the city government and will discharge our duties solely with reference to the welfare of the whole city."

WHAT ONE SMALL TOWN IS DOING

Zona Gale in a pamphlet, Civic Improvement in the Little Towns, tells how first the women and then the men and women of one small community inaugurated an unusually successful campaign in the field of public social service. This town is described as one of 6,000 inhabitants, probably Portage, Wis., where Miss Gale lives.

In her opinion the civic problem of the small town is threefold: first to get into touch with the current of new understanding that the conservation of physical and moral life is largely economic; second, to find practical ways of applying this understanding to the present and future of the town; and third, to do all this with exceedingly little money.

The Women's Club called a meeting at the City Hall of all women interested in town development. At this meeting the constitution of the Witchita, Kan., Improvement Association

Spare the Slum and Spoil the Child.

The doctrine of

INFANT DAMNATION

is thoroughly modern

Go look at the children who need playgrounds and you'll believe it.

How long will Cleveland, sixth city, keep this article in her city creed?

Give them Playgrounds Instead!

From the Cleveland Humane Society Bulletin

was adopted and work mapped out for five committees: sanitary, educational, art, children's auxiliary, and streets and alleys.

Among the concrete results obtained through the work of these committees were the inauguration of a system of garbage disposal; the grading and planting of a small park at the end of a bridge at the turn in a river; the establishment of a rest room in the town for farmers' wives from the surrounding country, although owing to a misunderstanding permission to use a small committee room in the City Hall was revoked by the Town Council; the establishment of a charity co-ordination committee; a town lecture course; public bath houses; a sane Fourth, and medical and dental inspection of school children.

PERSONALS

THE recent action of Congress and President Wilson, under the specific encouragement of both railroad managers and employes, in placing industrial mediation and arbitration on a wider and stronger basis, is a long step toward the realization of a definite ideal which has been cradled in the mind of Charles P. Neill, the former commissioner of labor.

Former President Roosevelt discovered Mr. Neill. Mr. Neill discovered the Erdman Act, which platted a narrow pathway through the industrial jungle in the United States. Congress put the Erdman Act on the statute books, but Charles P. Neill placed it definitely in the imagination of the American people and focused upon it the hope of the nation for industrial peace. It is to Mr. Neill's credit that he found and took advantage of the possibilities of the Erdman Act in spite of its limitations.

From 1898, when the Erdman Act was passed, to 1906, only a single attempt was made to utilize its provisions in industrial warfare. That attempt, which was in June, 1899, failed. Mr. Neill became commissioner of labor in 1905. Within the five years, December, 1906, to January, 1912, the provisions of the law were invoked in nearly 60 interstate commerce disputes. Between 1908 and 1912 there was but one period as long as three months during which mediation was not sought in a railroad dispute. The threatened strikes which were averted during these five years involved over half a million miles of railroad and 163,000 railroad employes. These figures include duplicates since the same railroad was sometimes involved more than once.

In all this work as mediator Mr. Neill enjoyed the unlimited confidence of railroad managers, and employes alike. Whatever the bitterness, the differences in codes of industrial ethics, and the misunderstandings of fact which separated into bitter opposition the railroad managers and their employes, there was no time when both parties failed to give absolute confidence to Commissioner Neill and to rely with unquestioning trust on his judgment, on his personal character, and the practical wisdom of his suggestion. This extraordinary tribute to him was primarily a tribute to his character, but it was



CHARLES P. NEILL

earned in part by the marvelous accuracy with which his imagination seized situations and all their parts, and enabled him to talk the minutely technical language of railroad operation. The rare assemblage of mental and moral gifts which characterize Mr. Neill was fully recognized and nothing clouded that recognition during his term of service. These extraordinary features of his career will offer but little consolation to the few lonely critics whose voices were recently heard in high circles.

Mr. Neill was made commissioner of labor in 1905. He was re-appointed in 1909. His third nomination was sent to the Senate by President Taft in January, 1913. Confirmation was withheld because of the Democratic policy toward President Taft's nominations in general. Mr. Neill's name was sent back to the Senate by President Wilson but it was not acted upon at the short session. It was again sent to the Senate at its extraordinary session. Meantime Mr. Neill's term of office had expired, and on February 1 he surrendered his office. Confirmation was delayed, apparently because certain southern Senators seemed to have views of the humanities of industry which were not in accord with those of Commissioner Neill. His appointment, however, was finally confirmed and Mr. Neill resumed his office. After a few weeks of service he resigned to take the position of director of welfare with the American Smelting and Refining Company. He has taken charge of the welfare of approximately 20,000 laboring men in the employ of this corporation. The delay of the confirmation of Mr. Neill's appointment brought forth from the labor press generally, from the railroad managers of the United States and from the American press generally, tributes to his character, to his power, and to his achievements which have been rarely equaled and more rarely exceeded in the industrial history of the nation.

In addition to the annual reports and bulletins issued by the Bureau while Mr. Neill was commissioner of labor, which publications form

a very valuable contribution to the literature dealing with labor conditions, the bureau made a number of important special investigations at the direction of Congress, the results of which are embodied in various reports, notable among them are the Report of the Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States (in 19 volumes), the Report on the Conditions of Employment in the Iron and Steel Industry, and the Reports on the Strike at Bethlehem and the Strike at Lawrence, Mass. Acting as special commissioner under Roosevelt Mr. Neill investigated the packing house industry and the Goldfield strike. In spite of the handicap under which he was placed by his mediation work, Mr. Neill gave most careful supervision to the planning and the executing of the work of the Bureau of Labor, and in many cases tested the accuracy and completeness of work of his agents by personally inspecting the fields in which they labored.

Mr. Neill was born in Rock Island, Illinois, in 1865. His college education was obtained at Notre Dame University, at the University of Texas, at Georgetown, and at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore where he took his Ph.D. in 1897. He served as an instructor at Notre Dame University from 1891 to 1894. He was professor of political economy at the Catholic University from 1898 to 1905. While occupying this position he prepared and installed an exhibit of the Catholic charities of the United States at the St. Louis Exposition. He was United States commissioner of labor from 1905 to 1913, vice-president of the Board of Charities of the District of Columbia, 1900 to 1908; assistant recorder of the Anthracite Strike Commission in 1902; recorder of the Arbitration Board for the Birmingham strike in 1903; member of the U. S. Immigration Commission, 1907 to 1910. As member of the International Institute of Statistics, he has actively furthered plans for the adoption of international standards for the compilation of industrial statistics and has been active in working toward international conventions to promote that end.

Nature, grace and environment conspired to prepare Mr. Neill for his work. Ideals governed him from his early boyhood and gave him the courage to overcome a typical range of obstacles in working them out. Everything taught Mr. Neill. He had the rare capacity and the temperament to profit by experience. His ideals of social service and his Christian sympathies have been so powerful that nothing frightened him and nothing side-tracked him from his path. There is no way of knowing fully the pressure that was brought to bear upon him, or the dust that was stirred up to obscure the practical ideals that governed him in his work as an investigator of the industrial battlefield. Whether in a congressional hearing where a none too kindly spirit sometimes cropped out, or in protecting the accuracy and good faith of his bureau reports, some of which aroused fierce antagonisms and were subject to bitter attack, Mr. Neill displayed the same intelligent fearlessness, the same restrained idealism and the same self reliance which his friends have always noted and admired in him. He has had severe academic training, yet he has remained a thoroughly practical man. He is a brave and honest fighter, without any love of fighting for its own sake.

A personal feature of Mr. Neill's career remains to be noted. Under the law he, as commissioner of labor, was associated with Judge Martin A. Knapp in adjusting railway disputes. Originally Judge Knapp acted in his capacity as chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission. When he was transferred to the Court of Commerce a change in the law was made, permitting the President to select as second mediator any member of the Interstate Commerce Commission or of the Commerce Court. In this manner it was possible to continue Judge Knapp in the mediation work. Fortunately he remains to carry into the newer epoch just entered upon, the splendid traditions of the work as developed by himself and Mr. Neill. These two men worked together in a spirit of mutual understanding and trust which made their mediation work a happy experience for themselves, no less than for the railroads and the employes. It is impossible to separate them in attributing credit for the great results which have been achieved. Each has been most gratified when the public honored the other. Both will be associated in the discriminating memory of the nation as precursors of the era of industrial peace for which the nation's heart is longing.

WM. J. KIRBY.

* * *

CHARLES STELZLE, pioneer in church social service, who was the founder and has for ten years been in charge of this phase of the work of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, will leave that board on October 1. Mr. Stelzle plans to set up offices of his own as consulting sociologist and efficiency engineer for national church organizations, social service agencies and industrial enterprises.

The broader field which he proposes to cover on severing his connection with purely denominational work Mr. Stelzle outlines as furnishing "Expert service with reference to Sociological and Religious Surveys; Exhibits; Social Service Campaigns and Conferences; Social and Religious Work among Immigrant, Industrial, and Rural Populations; Publicity, Educational, and Evangelistic Campaigns; Efficiency Methods for Local Churches and National Organizations; General Industrial Problems."

Mr. Stelzle came to the church, when he was ordained minister about eighteen years ago, as a worker who in his twelve years in the machine shop had been made painfully conscious of the lack of understanding and co-operation between the church and the workingmen. He organized the Department of Church and Labor of the Presbyterian Church, and this was subsequently expanded into the bureau from which he is resigning. The Labor Temple in lower Second Avenue, New York, a religious labor center which he organized a few years ago, has so evidently responded to a need that the board has recently bought the property and put the temple



CHARLES STELZLE

on a permanent basis. Labor Sunday, a nation-wide campaign for temperance carried on through the trade unions and a press service on social, religious and industrial topics which is used by 350 of the principal labor papers, are other activities of the bureau. Mr. Stelzle has served as arbitrator in many industrial disputes and has established a permanent connection between the church and organized labor through ministerial delegates to the trade unions.

In addition to this industrial work he was for a year executive secretary of the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches, had charge of the social service features of one of the Men and Religion Forward Movement teams and directed the surveys made by the movement in seventy cities. He conducted the recent publicity campaign for the Home Missions Council and the Council of Women for Home Missons.

Mr. Stelzle's successor in the bureau has not yet been appointed.

* * *

THE appointment of Louis F. Post, founder and for fifteen years joint editor with Alice Thatcher Post of *The Public* and worker for many public causes in Chicago, to the assistant secretaryship of the Federal Department of Labor has been generally recognized, to use the words of a fellow journalist, as something more than the dropping of a plum into the gaping mouth of a hungry politician. Mr. Post is no politician and was by no means hungry for the position, which he at first peremptorily refused, feeling that he could not give up his work on *The Public*. He consented only after pressure had been brought to bear upon him from all sides and he had been brought to realize that a still larger duty called him to the service of the nation.

The ideals which animated Mr. Post as editor and which he brings to his work in the Department of Labor, he thus himself expresses in a recent valedictory editorial:

> "In citizenship it has been my object and that of my editorial associates through all those years, to inculcate a realization of the larger citizen, the civic whole, whose voice, when conflicting selfishnesses cancel one another, is in a very real sense 'the voice of God.' As single taxers, we have worked with the purpose on the one hand of lifting single taxers out of a cult and broadening them with visions of the ever-pulsating world of men wherein their cause must flourish if it is ever to fructify, and on the other of disclosing to all readers with democratic ideals the subtle power of this reform in democratizing industry as well as politics. With more comprehensive scope we have inculcated fundamental democracy as the social principle of which every social reform is at best but a practical application; and with scope still more comprehensive we have identified democracy with that element of the universal which exhibits the physical phenomena of life as product, instead of producer, of those faculties which some of us call 'intellectual' and others 'spiritual.'"

* * *

JAMES MULLENBACH'S appointment as superintendent of the great Cook County infirmary for the poor of Chicago at Oak Forest is as creditable to President Alexander A. McCormick of the Board of County Commissioners as it is to Mr. Mullenbach.

With his experience as settlement resident at Chicago Commons, as superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House, as assistant superintendent of the United Charities, as secretary of the Land, Labor, and Immigration Officials' Conference, and as the representative of the social agencies reporting social legislation at the Illinois Legislature, Mr. Mullenbach is regarded as the ideal head for the greatest county institutions west of New York.

It is significant of the new times to find a college educated man who rounded out his professional training on a fellowship in a German University, being sought for and accepting a position, to which only a political appointee has hitherto been appointed. No higher token of the triumph of patriotism on partisanship has been registered in America than this, and many another, achievement of Mr. McCormick in rescuing the County of Cook from the spoils exploitation of his predecessor and in establishing the efficient business management and the humane social standards of his own administration.

* * *

THE recent death of Edna P. Alter in a trolley wreck near Pasadena, Cal., removes one of the younger workers in the field of organized charity. Miss Alter knew every phase of work in the homes of the poor for she entered the

Hudson district of the New York Charity Organization Society as district nurse in 1908, later rounded out her preparation for the work of organized charity by a summer course in the New York School of Philanthropy, and became assistant agent in that district. In the fall of 1910 she rose to the responsible position of secretary of the Associated Charities of Pasadena.

Leo G. MacLaughlin, president of that society, speaks of her work as "sympathetic, kindly, warm-hearted and keenly intelligent. She was one of the founders of the local Associated Charities and her work won favorable attention over a wide area."

* * *

A FEW years of school dental clinics have made "toothbrush drills" a fairly familiar idea in many cities. It took the Toronto public nurses, or rather their supervisor, Lina L. Rogers, to originate another drill quite as unique and important.

Since last October the school children of Toronto, in squads of twenty have practised daily "nose-blowing drills" and the effect on the freshness of the atmosphere of the schoolrooms has been so noticeable that the teachers have become assiduous in seeing to it that no child comes to school unprovided with a pocket handkerchief. They often, indeed, themselves order the drills without waiting for the coming of the nurse. The effect of the drill is perceptible already on individual children, in cases of catarrh, and the doctors predict that it will have an appreciable effect in time in lessening adenoids and other throat and nose affections.

It was Miss Rogers, who has recently become Mrs. W. E. Struthers, who, when a nurse at the Henry Street Settlement in New York in 1902 was chosen to demonstrate at the expense of the settlement in four local schools the need of municipal school nurses. This she did with such success that within a month the Department of Health took over the financial responsibility and extended the work, making her supervisor.

With a subsequent seven years' experience in this capacity she went to Toronto in 1909, where she has done pioneer health work in the schools. These are now fully equipped with school nurses and with dental care, one of the four clinics now carried on in connection with the school system having been equipped with a model outfit at the expense of the enthusiastic nurses themselves.

Besides nose-blowing drills Toronto has undertaken another departure in school health work, in establishing a real open-air school, on the model of the Forest School at Charlottenberg in Germany. To a private park on the outskirts of Toronto, which has been loaned for this purpose and equipped with shacks, fifty anaemic or delicate children were taken for three months last winter by special trolley cars each morning and not returned till twelve hours later, thus living and learning in the open air. No tubercular children were taken, sanatorium care being provided for them. Five meals are furnished, the trolley service is given free by the street railway company, a nurse is in attendance and three teachers, lessons are given for three and one-half hours in the open air. There is a great deal of outdoor play, and nose-blowing and toothbrush drills and a weekly bath form part of this school course, as well as a two-hour nap each day. The experiment has been so successful that the number of children will be increased next year to one hundred and the school term lengthened to six months.



MRS. W. E. STRUTHERS

As wife of Dr. W. E. Struthers, chief medical inspector of the schools, Mrs. Struthers will continue her interest in the physical care of school children. She will also have the direction of the work until her successor, not yet appointed, is broken in.

* * *

TO MAKE charity administration measure up to strict tests of business efficiency—this has been the ideal that Howell Wright, has put in practice as superintendent of the Cleveland Associated Charities. He has succeeded so well that Mayor Baker has recently appointed him superintendent of the City Hospital, with instructions to use the same methods there.

Mr. Wright has no medical training. He is a social worker with a business twist. His new



HOWELL WRIGHT

appointment illustrates the growing tendency today to put at the head of great specialized institutions, men who have a broad social outlook combined with executive power, but minus specialized training.

The City Hospital has been a bit too professional in the past. It has looked very closely to its diagnosis and temperature charts and instruments. But almost no thought has been given to the human and social background of its patients, and patients "cured" of physical ills have been turned out with all their social ills still festering, the inevitable result being that they speedily returned to the City Hospital to be "cured" again.

The hope is that Mr. Wright will make of the City Hospital a social institution, looking backward and forward into causes and effects.

Since Mr. Wright received his master's degree from Yale University in 1907 he has served as special agent of the Massachusetts S. P. C. C. and as general secretary of the Norwood Civic Association. During the past year as superintendent of the Cleveland Associated Charities his chief move has been the abandonment of the general employment bureau for the unskilled, which had been conducted by the Associated Charities since 1886. After a searching study of the charitable field and a special study of such bureaus in other places it was decided to transfer this work to the State Employment Bureau in the city and the experiment has so far justified itself. Mr. Wright's service has also been notable in bringing into use simple records, centralized purchasing and smoothly systematic office methods.

* * *

SIDNEY B. BOCK, acting head resident of Pillsbury Settlement House, Minneapolis, has been elected head resident of Neighborhood House in Detroit, Michigan. This settlement is just completing a new building, having been in rented quarters since its founding in 1909.

* * *

BERKELEY G. TOBEY, until recently secretary of the National Council Boy Scouts of America, has become business manager of the Masses Publishing Company.

COMMUNICATIONS

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

To the Editor:

Recently the writer noticed several communications in The Survey, in reference to the proposition of establishing a separate system of vocational schools, distinct from the existing traditional public school system.

As a reason for the establishment of this so-called "dual" system of vocational education the claim is advanced that, since manual training had been emasculated by being in contact with the public school, so likewise would vocational and industrial education be emasculated if these forms of education were to be carried on side by side with the other schools under the old organization.

The writer having seen the retarding effects of such a "dual" system in one of our larger industrial cities, and Massachusetts having tried and abandoned it, and since the writer is firmly convinced that such a divided system of education will, before long, react injuriously upon the social and ethical life of a state and her communities, and will plague the industries with its uneconomic and unsocial consequences, he is decidedly opposed to such a separated system of vocational schools.

It is a shrewd move to get entire control of the education of the masses of industrial workers, a mentally narrowing, mind killing education which, in its effects, would pull the intelligence of a community down to a lower level, being re-enforced by the ossifying influences of extreme specialization, which are noticeable in shop, store and office in all our industrial centers even now.

Manufacturers and business men do not take kindly to the idea that they should be made responsible for the mental, moral and aesthetic development of their employes and under these circumstances industrial education would soon degenerate into a feudal appendage of our industrial system. Manufacturers, corporations and business men are certainly entitled to a share in the management of our educational system and industrial schools and it is highly desirable that they should claim their share.

But they can accomplish all they need either

as members of school boards, or as advisory committees on industrial education.

As to the danger of vocational schools being emasculated there is no such danger. No one who understands anything about the matter expects to have vocational or industrial schools articulated with the elementary or high schools in the manner manual training has been and is articulated, but have these lower schools separate in just the same manner as manual training high schools or technical high schools are separate from the academic schools, yet are under the same organization and management without any detriment to their usefulness.

It is true that, if specific industrial education is yoked together with academic education in the high school, industrial education will be emasculated. But then it is due to a managerial blunder of trying to straddle two horses and there is no excuse to make such a managerial mistake the pretext for the creation of an expensive separate system of education. Manual training, as we understand it, was never emasculated because neither by the originators, and the writer is one of them, nor subsequently, was manual training in the elementary and high school considered anything else but an adjunct to academic schools for cultural purposes and down to the N. E. A. meeting at Boston in 1903, Professor Woodward, the father of the American system of manual training, disclaimed any other but cultural purpose for manual training, without any distinct vocational aim.

At the above meeting Dean Woodward, in referring to the manual training work done at St. Louis said: "The secondary school should enable a boy to discover the world and find himself. I use the word 'discover' in the sense of uncover—that is lay bare—the problems, the demands, the opportunities, the possibilities of the eternal world. A boy finds himself when he has taken a correct inventory of his inherited and acquired tastes and capacities". While many friends of manual training were disappointed in finding it did not revolutionize trade education; it never intended to do that and therefore was not emasculated.

PAUL KREUZPOINTNER.
[Chairman Committee on Industrial Education, American Foundryman's Association.]

Altoona, Pa.

THE I. W. W.: AN OUTLAW ORGANIZATION

TO THE EDITOR:

I wish to express my hearty appreciation of John A. Fitch's article in THE SURVEY of June 7, on the I. W. W. It is illuminative. The I. W. W. is the one organization that is both hated and feared by our most eminent leaders in business, politics, and religion. There are good reasons for this. The I. W. W. pays no homage to heroes and great men of the past; it has little respect for the laws of the land, because it believes these laws were made to keep them in bondage; and it entirely ignores and repudiates the church, as it holds that the church has always been an instrument to keep the people in ignorance and subjection.

Small wonder it is that this "outlaw" organization receives the contempt and anathemas of conventional, respectable people, who have been taught that everything that makes civilization better than barbarism, is due to the genius and greatness and goodness of a few men, who in turn were but the instruments of Providence. The I. W. W. tells its members to stop bowing the head and the knee to great men and even to God, and to assert the right and power that is theirs, and to depend on themselves alone for the establishment of a new system of industry.

Sound and staid business, political and religious leaders are deeply concerned with what seems to be the trend of thought and action on the part of the "lower" classes. This trend appears to be decidedly in the direction of the very principles and methods of the I. W. W. The "better" class of people believe chaos and and anarchy will result if the principles and practices of the I. W. W. predominate; the I. W .W. believe they will always be oppressed, and matters go from bad to worse, if our method of doing business is not fundamentally changed. They believe so fully in the justice of their cause that they willingly accept the scorn, the contempt, the inhuman treatment inflicted on them in jail and out, that is meted out mercilessly for their uncompromising speech and attitude.

This bitter feeling of the "best" people toward the I. W. W., and the dogged persistence of the I. W. W. in their revolutionary tactics, constitute the most acute phase of what the Socialists call the class struggle. This class war will continue till one side or the other is victorious. One reason that the whole matter is so generally misunderstood is that nearly all the newspapers distort and suppress most of the news concerning the activity of the I. W. W.

Mr. Fitch's article radiates light rather than heat.

A. E. HOUSE.

Spokane, Wash.

RIGHT IDEAS ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read the various contributions to your symposium on the work before the new Commission on Industrial Relations. In my opinion it is the duty of the employer to provide the necessary safeguards and protection for his employes, such for instance as good light and air, sanitary surroundings, protection against fire and other dangers, reasonable hours of labor, adequate wages, no child labor, facilities for education and self-improvement, healthful living quarters, opportunity for recreation, etc. These and other advantages should be supplied under all circumstances, and there should be cooperation and good feeling between employer and workingman. It seems to me quite probable that the better results which would thus be obtained through the greater efficiency of the employes would more than compensate the employer for any extra outlays which he may have to make to provide such protection, so that in the end it would cost him nothing. The hearty co-operation and friendly spirit which would thus be engendered between the employer and his workingmen would be apt to prevent strikes

and other troubles and would decidedly be to the interest of both employer and employe. Any excuse that a manufacturer or other employer of labor might make that if he had to provide this protection to his employes he could not make his business pay seems to me similar to the excuse of one who contemplates putting up a building but says he cannot afford to make the necessary expenditures to provide for the safety of those who will occupy it because with such extra cost the income from the building would not be sufficient to pay a good interest. If he cannot make it pay he should of course not undertake it, but under all circumstances he must build safely. In the same way an employer should see that his employes and workmen receive the necessary protection and he should provide for their absolute safety and do the right thing by them all the time.

ADOLPH LEWISOHN.
[President General Development Company.]
New York.

ALCOHOLISM

TO THE EDITOR:

I am greatly pleased to see on the cover page of THE SURVEY issue of August 9, a copy of the first Municipal Poster against Alcoholism in the United States. I have wondered in reading THE SURVEY, that so very much attention was given to different phases of welfare by excellent writers, and the subject of liquor business was not emphasized. It is conceded to be the greatest economic problem of the age, and is the cause of the need of charity organizations, police courts, etc. It is estimated by scientific and prison boards that 75 per cent of the insane, and a greater per cent of criminals, and defectives are now at the mercy of the tax payers of the country as a result of liquor drinking, and liquor heredity. Certainly with such a preponderance of evidence against, and interest in, the subject of alcohol, it makes us rejoice that THE SURVEY has decided to give a front page to the publicity of municipality interest in this subject.

LUELLA F. MC WHURTER.
[President Indiana Federation of Clubs.]
Indianapolis.

BIBLE STORY FILMS

TO THE EDITOR:

While I was staying at Hull House, I saw in their theater a moving picture of the life of Moses. The dial of time turned back, we all became spectators of the events of that great life, almost as though we had been his contemporaries. From the basket in the river to Sinai and the golden calf, it was all there, vivid, true to the Bible story and reverent in tone. I left the theater with much the same feeling as though I had heard a great oratorio, and even today the picture which ran its course in fifteen minutes is more vivid than the story which I have read and taught from childhood.

At a lecture in the University of Chicago last summer, the pastor of a Congregational Church in Madison, Wisconsin, came to me and said that he would like to put the moving picture into his Sunday School room, if I could tell him where he could get the films. All that I could say was to get in touch with the film companies and endeavor to get the ones that he wanted, but I knew that he would have trouble.

There are a considerable number of churches that have already introduced the moving picture into their evening service or their Sunday School. But the difficulty is the same everywhere, it is hard to get films that are suitable. Undoubtedly all the Bible stories can be taught more effectively through the moving picture than in any other way. The church ought to teach its lessons by the most effective means at hand, and many churches would be using the moving picture if they could secure suitable films at a reasonable rate. Mr. Edison has already made a good beginning on a series of films to illustrate the work of the public school.

Inasmuch as the churches need a special type of films, why should not the church federations ask the film companies to produce films of this type and start a church exchange? The churches should indicate which pictures they wanted and furnish Bible experts to supervise the making of the films, so as to secure an accurate and reverent reproduction of the stories. These films might then go out with the approval of the federation like a Sunday School lesson leaf. The film companies would be merely the printers of the material furnished them by the federation.

Besides the Bible stories the great morality and passion plays, like Oberamergau, might well be given, and representations of the great social movements, such as recreation, child labor, tuberculosis, and the like, the films for which are largely available at the present time.

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676 Broadway, New York City

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FREDERICK LOESER & CO.,
484 FULTON STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

Newspaper Clippings.
HENRY ROMEIKE,
110-112 West 26th Street, New York

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170 William St. New York

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120 Liberty St. New York

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VOLUME XXX, No. 25 WEEK OF SEPTEMBER 20, 1913

THE SURVEY

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To Social Workers

WE of THE SURVEY are anxious to have a strong representation of active social workers on the roll of *pioneer* members of the Survey Associates. September 30 ends our first year, and between now and then we hope that at least one more from every state in the Union will come in.

THE physicians shoulder their medical journals, and the lawyers their law journals, as part of their professional responsibility. In somewhat the same way, THE SURVEY was put up to social workers as a common enterprise last fall when it was separately incorporated and launched as an independent undertaking.

OF course, neither in professional income nor in numbers does social work compare with these older callings. We have not made an exact count of the vocations of the 856 Co-operating Subscribers that have enlisted thus far at $10 each; but the names of many of the leaders in social reform are there, as well as not a few of the rank and file who feel that they have a personal stake in THE SURVEY.

THINGS stand this way: With pledges in hand, we can clear this first year if we raise $1,500 before the end of the month. We hope to make up a third of this sum through fifty $10 Co-operating Subscriptions. So, very frankly, this special appeal and invitation is put before the active social workers of the country this last ten days, both as a "family" matter—and as a matter of "hard pan."

No. 857

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.
105 East 22d Street, New York City.

I enclose $10 as a co-operating subscription to the Survey Associates.

Name.....

Address.....

Note: The $10 is to cover my regular $2 subscription to THE SURVEY, plus a contribution to the educational work of magazine and National Council.

INFORMATION

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York. Charles F. Powlison, General Secretary, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc. of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction, when desired. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request.
Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York.
Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

EUGENICS—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect. Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership $2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SEX EDUCATION. The American Federation for Sex Hygiene, Tilden Building, 105 West Fortieth Street, New York City. Constituent societies throughout the country. Publications to members and upon application. Membership $2 per year.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, $1 per year. Membership, annual dues $2, includes all literature.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education—promotion, discussion, investigation, publications, clearing house of information, legislation, experimentation, constructive work and co-operating agency. For literature, address C. A. Prosser, Secretary, Room 415, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN.—Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston Street, Boston. Mary Schenck Woolman, President. Training for Vocational Teaching and Trade Experience in co-operation with Simmons College; Placement Bureau for Trained Women; graduate Fellowships in Industrial Research. Publication on "Economic Relations of Women."

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee $1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

WORKING WOMEN—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. *"Life and Labor,"* events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Jean Hamilton.
Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker," Twenty-five cents 1 year.

YOUNG WOMEN—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 500 pp. per vol. $2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics. Next meeting: Summer 1914. Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

HOW TO START SOCIAL CENTERS—A pamphlet of 48 pages suggesting in detail,—how to create and organize public sentiment, secure cooperation, develop the facilities at hand, arrange attractive programs, etc. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.
Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, $2 a year.

FEDERATED BOYS' CLUBS—National Headquarters, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass. A clearing house for information on subjects relating to work with boys. Printed matter distributed; clubs organized; workers furnished; conferences conducted. Invites membership. Club $2.00; individual $1.00. Thomas Chew, President; Geo. D. Chamberlain, Acting Ex. Secty.

BOY SCOUTS—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, *"Boys' Life"* $1 a year. Memberships: Associate $3, Sustaining $10.

MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS—National Municipal League North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension. Publishes National Municipal Review.

SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

CITY PLANNING—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at $5 a Year Includes All Literature.

DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

POLITICAL SURVEYS—Progressive National Service, Forty-Second Street Building, New York City, Frances A. Kellor, Chief of Service, National clearing house for political action on social and industrial justice, conservation, judiciary reform, initiative referendum and recall, corporation control and related subjects.

THE SMOKE NUISANCE—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, Pres.; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters.*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.
To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc.. sent free.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION—National Conference of Charities and Correction, 315 Plymouth Ct., Chicago, W. T. Cross, Gen. Sec. Proceedings carefully indexed comprehend all fields social work. Bulletins and misc. publications. Conducts information bureau. Forty-first annual meeting Memphis, Tenn., May, 1914. Membership $2.50.

ORGANIZED CHARITY—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.
To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.
For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY—*July*: Rural Communities. *August*: The Mormon Menace. *September*: The Coming Church and Society.
See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 75c. per year; club rate 50c.

EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.
Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.
Rev. Harry F. Ward, Secy., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood.
To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.
S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY—*The Congregational Brotherhood of America.* Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York.
Sociological surveys made, Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS—A clearing house for Southern social forces; to study and improve social, civic and economic conditions. Proceedings of Atlanta Congress, April, 1913, over 600 pages, entitled "The South Mobilizing for Social Service," sent free to each member. Membership $2.00. J. E. McCulloch, General Sec., 353 Sixth Ave., N., Nashville, Tenn.

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.
Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

IMMIGRATION—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Warren C. Eberle, General Secretary; Frances A. Kellor, Managing Director.

IMMIGRANT GIRLS—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.
For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Secy., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

PROBATION—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

LABOR LEGISLATION—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.
Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.
American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

PRISON LABOR—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas Mott Osborne, Chairman; R. Montgomery Schell, Secretary-Treasurer; E. Stagg Whitin, Chn. Exec. Com. Prison labor conditions throughout the United States examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. $5 a year.

SETTLEMENTS—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

THE PITH OF IT

LAST week the United States Senate confirmed President Wilson's nominations for the Industrial Relations Commission. The personnel of the commission was discussed in THE SURVEY of July 5.

PRACTICALLY one-half the women and girls in five major industries of Connecticut earn less than "barely a living wage," according to the report of the state commission of five. P. 736.

THE rock that blocked the growth of Duluth's main street is being slowly rolled away by the unemployed. A "work test" that's a public improvement. P. 729.

THE social aspects of hospitals was emphasized all through the meetings of the American Hospital Association. Dr. Warner of Cleveland summed it up: "To the business capabilities and the medical qualifications required in the hospital manager today, tomorrow will add one more—and that will be social." P. 739.

FOR economic if for no other reasons, relief societies should employ physicians to treat their cases, writes Dr. Wolf, basing his argument on cases such as that of the ironworker whose family was supported for two years—until four weeks' treatment cured the man's rheumatism and sent him back to work. P. 738.

MASSACHUSETTS has stepped into the front rank, with Wisconsin, in giving large discretionary powers to its joint board having entire charge of the means of preventing industrial accidents and diseases. The details of safety devices are left to a small board instead of to the legislature. P. 733.

ON a petty technicality, the Iowa Injunction and Abatement Act has been declared void, but the governor will institute an initiative to re-enact it. The law has been widely copied as the most effective method of dealing with houses of prostitution by striking at the owner of the property who usually has not only investment but reputation to conserve. P. 727.

"BIG TIM" SULLIVAN, greatest "Lady Bountiful" of our day, is dead. Much of his sinister political influence came from the Bowery where he gave a Christmas dinner to all who applied, and once a year gave away unlimited shoes and stockings because, when he was a ragged lad in school, his teacher did as much for him.

THE chances of success for the Fusion ticket in New York, including the present reform Board of Estimate, are said to be improved by the sudden death of Mayor Gaynor, who was running on an independent ticket.

THE Chicago charities will join hands in furnishing a full public report of their stewardship in caring for the needy and in accounting for money received and spent. P. 725.

THE SURVEY

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Founded for advanced and hopeless cases,

THE HOSPITAL AND HOUSE OF REST FOR CONSUMPTIVES

at Inwood-on-Hudson, New York City, also has Bunaglows for the incipient patients. Aid is asked for the little children in the new Pavilion recently opened, for which there is no maintenance fund. The entire work is unique, in that the need of the patient alone determines his or her length of residence. It's scope is in danger of being restricted unless the support accorded to it is more generous. Checks sent to William M. Cruikshank, Treasurer, 59 East 59th Street, will be promptly acknowledged.

WOODBURY G. LANGDON, Pres.
ANDREW C. ZABRISKIE, Vice-Pres.,
HOWARD TOWNSEND, Sec'y.

THAT a weak heart is no disadvantage in a footrace can be clearly established by the methods used to show that alcoholism does not have a marked effect on children, argues Prof. Davies. His contention is that alcohol is a race poison, the Galton Eugenics Laboratory study to the contrary. P. 737.

THE Missouri "good road days" were a great success. P. 726.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHICAGO WOMEN IN PUBLIC OFFICE

Some recent developments in women's participation in public service in Chicago are especially interesting in view of the part they are to play from now on in the electorate.

Alexander A. McCormick, president of the Board of Cook County Commissioners declares: "My experience with women in the service has been such that I am anxious to secure more. They do better work and do it more conscientiously and intelligently." Mr. McCormick's appointment of Anna Nicholes to the Civil Service Commission has been followed by his appointment of Ada Belle McCleery, as "business manager" of the Cook County Tuberculosis Hospital. She was formerly a trained nurse and has served as director of Camp Goodwill at Evanston, where the Chicago United Charities sends many women and children. President McCormick's comment on her first report of the conditions at the hospital was: "It goes to show what a practical business manager will do as compared with a political henchman in the same job."

When Mayor Harrison wished to appoint ten women police officers pending the Civil Service examination for these newly created positions, he requested Gertrude Howe Britton, superintendent of the Juvenile Protective Association, Mrs. J. T. Medar of the Catholic Woman's League and Minnie Low of the Associated Jewish Charities to serve as a committee to help select the applicants and to instruct them in their duties. The police women are especially commissioned to visit public dance halls, the small and large parks, excursion boats, bathing beaches, and railway stations and to keep the boys and girls off the streets late at night. Sixty women have already applied to take the civil service examination, for the permanent appointments, which will be held in two months. Mrs. Britton, who has also been appointed a member of the Board of Education, by instruction of the mayor, is visiting all the police stations of the city to instruct the regular force of policemen, how best to protect and promote the welfare of the children on their beats.

EXPEDITION OF CITIZENSHIP TO THE AMERICAN INDIAN

As an aftermath of the establishment of a national memorial to the North American Indian at Fort Wadsworth last February, an "expedition of citizenship," under the auspices of Rodman Wanamaker and led by Dr. Joseph K. Dixon, has been sent to emphasize to the 169 tribes of Indians their responsibility to the nation, and to arouse patriotism among them. The project will occupy about six months. At each reservation visited the ceremony of hoisting the flag and signing the Declaration of Allegiance to the United States government is designed to be impressive. The Indians, through their chiefs, proclaim their loyalty as follows:

> "We, the undersigned representatives of various Indian tribes of the United States, through our presence and the part we have taken in the inauguration of this memorial to our people, renew our allegiance to the glorious flag of the United States and offer our hearts to our country's service. We greatly appreciate the honor and privilege extended by our white brothers who have recognized us by inviting us to participate in the ceremonies on this historical occasion.
>
> "The Indian is fast losing his identity in the face of the great waves of Caucasian civilization which are extending to the four winds of this country, and we want fuller knowledge, in order that we may take our places in the civilization which surrounds us.
>
> "Though a conquered race, with our right hands extended in brotherly love, and our left hands holding the pipe of peace, we hereby bury all past ill feeling and proclaim abroad to all the nations of the world our firm allegiance to this nation and the Stars and Stripes, and declare that henceforth and forever, in all walks of life and every field of endeavor, we shall be as brothers, striving hand in hand, and will return to our people and tell them the story of this memorial, and urge upon them their continued allegiance to our common country."

President Wilson sends the following phonograph message through the expedition:

> "The Great White Father now calls you his 'brothers,' not his 'children.' Because you have shown in your education and your settled ways of life staunch, manly, worthy qualities of sound character, the nation is about to give you distinguished recognition through the erection of a monument in honor of the Indian people in the harbor of New

York. The erection of that monument will usher in that day which Thomas Jefferson said he would rejoice to see, when red men become truly one people with us, enjoying all the rights and privileges we do, and living in peace and plenty. I rejoice to foresee the day."

INFORMING THE PUBLIC ON PRIVATE CHARITIES

At the call of Professor Charles R. Henderson, President of the United Charities of Chicago, almost all the charitable and philanthropic agencies of the city, receiving the endorsement of the Association of Commerce, joined forces to furnish the public with full and authentic information regarding the work which each of them is doing, how each secures and expends the money contributed to its support, which is said to amount to $13,000,000 a year for all of them.

Professor Henderson's statement explaining the purpose and method of this associated effort is set forth in the following lines:

"It contemplates merely a plan for extending authoritative information to the public regarding humanitarian work done in this city by both public and private bodies." Its extent, character, scope and the interrelations of the various forms of activity. The whole thing is to be on a democratic basis, all the approved city-wide agencies to be factors in furthering the same.

"It was felt by the original promoters of the movement that in a busy community like Chicago, intensely occupied with industry, commerce and pleasure, it is easy for the citizenship to forget the great operations constantly and quietly going on all the year round to ameliorate distress, care for broken, sick and wayward humanity and prevent the enlargement of these classes, and in so forgetting. fail to support financially, or aid personally in the work, all of which means more sickness, more despair, more dependence, more crime.

"The question was, should the individual agencies be allowed to struggle alone in their presentation of claims to recognition and support, or should they join forces in securing audiences. The latter course has been decided upon.

"It is not intended to start an investigation or probe into charitable bodies; nor a survey of social conditions; nor is it to be anything conducted under the auspices of the Association of Commerce, or any other single organization. Finally, it involves no federated money raising scheme.

"The social workers who have met thus far have delegated to an executive committee of seven, supplemented by subcommittees to be appointed by them, the task of working out details. The members of the committee are: Dr. C. R. Henderson, president of the United Charities, chairman; Jane Addams, Hull House; Mrs. Lenora Z. Meder, president of the Catholic Woman's Protectorate; Isaac S. Rothschild, Associated Jewish Charities; Harry T. Williams, social service secretary Y. M. C. A.; Graham Taylor, School of Civics and Philanthropy, and a secretary still to be chosen.

"This committee is to do several things: Find the groups of people who desire to secure information along the lines already indicated; to offer to the groups a choice of one or more lectures by experts in various lines of philanthropic service or prepared printed studies for any number of meetings up to thirty; to aid in training leaders of such study groups; to find the special lecturers who may be called for; to prepare or have prepared by competent authorities the studies mentioned; to provide newspapers and other periodicals with carefully prepared publicity material."

BUSINESS SUSPENDED GOOD ROADS BUILT

Missouri "good road days," announced by proclamation of the governor a month ahead of time and held on August 20 and 21, proved such a successful experiment in community co-operation that it is planned to repeat the road days next year. The proclamation asked for a general suspension of business on those days and called upon all able-bodied male citizens to give these two days to the work of building public highways, able-bodied female citizens to supply food, encouragement and good cheer for the workers.

The undertaking was planned and directed by the state highway commissioner, Frank W. Buffum, a "very live wire," as one citizen calls him, who was behind the governor's proclamation.

The good roads movement has been growing fast the last few years and was one of the platform promises of practically all parties last fall and one of the subjects to which the Legislature gave a big share of its attention. The movement was extensively advertised, and well supported by leading newspapers and commercial organizations. Rain following a long drought with good weather on the two road days, brought out probably 250,000 citizens who accomplished work worth, in round numbers, $1,200,000. In addition a good roads fund of almost $100,000 was collected. It is estimated that 2,850 miles of road were built or improved.

The work was characterized by the widest possible co-operation. The women's clubs issued a state-wide call to the women to help out by furnishing food to the road-workers. Practically all state, county and town officials turned

out in force,—Governor Major of Missouri and Governor Hodge of Kansas both donning overalls and lending a hand on Cole County roads.

In many localities it is reported that the citizens voluntarily set aside further time to complete improvements begun. The social significance of good roads is being preached throughout the state and is going hand in hand with the state-wide movement for improved schools.

RED LIGHT LAW VOID IN IOWA

News items have announced that the Red Light Injunction Law of Iowa has been declared unconstitutional in the state of its original adoption. In reality the law has not been declared unconstitutional but void. This declaration is however an interesting illustration of the willingness of the courts to set aside an admittedly beneficial law on the smallest technicality.

It appears that the speaker of the Iowa Assembly of 1909, which passed the law, failed to properly certify that the original act had been adopted by his house. On this ground after four years of effective and beneficial enforcement, the law has been wiped out. It is announced that the governor himself will institute an initiative for its re-enactment. It is interesting to know that the statement is being made that the law is not essential to the suppression of commercialized vice in that the keeping of a disorderly house is a penitentiary offense in Iowa. It has been that same offense in New York for many years, but the courts have not until recently imposed prison sentences because the defendant was almost always only an employe of the proprietor.

It is because this Injunction and Abatement Law of Iowa was so framed that it reached the real profiter from the vice, the owner of the house, that it has been so successful. A like law has been passed in five states and its passage in New York state next year is confidently expected.

AFTER-CARE FOR GERMAN INSANE

A cable dispatch to a New York newspaper announces that the city of Berlin has established a bureau for aiding persons discharged from hospitals for the insane. That this action was not hasty or ill-considered may be inferred from the fact that the first after-care society was organized in Germany in 1829. In 1841 a society for similar purposes was organized in France, one in England in 1879 and in 1906 an after-care committee of the New York State Charities' Aid Association was formed.

The significance of the news from Germany is not that a novel thing has been done but that the importance of rendering special aid to those convalescent from mental illness should receive official recognition and become a part of the municipal activities of a great city. In this country also it has been recognized that aid of the state should not end with the discharge of patients from hospitals for the insane but should follow them, in a helpful and protecting way, into the community where the difficult work of rehabilitation must be carried on. Several of the New York State Hospitals have after-care workers who are quietly rendering services of the most valuable kind not only to the patients and to their families but to the community for, not infrequently, efficient after-care does much to prevent or to retard recurrences of mental disorder.

The law recently passed in New York authorizing the State Hospitals to establish out-patient departments will make after-care work much more effective and it will permit the discharge of many convalescent patients who previously have had to remain under treatment only because it was impossible to provide skilled observation and care after leaving the hospitals. There is a growing belief among those engaged in the care of the insane that much more can be done in the community and in the home for those suffering from mental diseases than has been done in the past and it is not at all unlikely that assumption of after-care work by the state and provision of mental clinics for the treatment of early cases for the observation and those discharged convalescent may constitute a most important step in checking the steadily mounting numbers of those for whom permanent care in hospitals for the insane must be provided. The extension of such agencies and spreading information as to their value is the especial province of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and the local societies or committees formed by that organization; new agencies in the fields of social service and preventive medicine.

UNPAID MEDICAL SERVICE

ALICE HAMILTON, M. D.

What about the medical care of the poor? If we should put the question to visiting nurses and other social workers they would at once speak of the public hospitals and the free wards of private hospitals, of the dispensaries, and finally of kindly physicians who are willing to give a certain, or uncertain, part of their time to charitable work. The provision for medical care seems at first thought ample, even generous. But if we should ask with little Wilhelmine "What good came out of it all?" the answer often would not be so prompt.

For operative surgical cases, for acute diseases, for sick babies, the care which can be

obtained by the poor in many places is considered satisfactory so far as the saving of life and limb is concerned. But in the far more numerous chronic cases—rheumatic affections, digestive disorders, simple anaemia, varicose veins, flat-foot, pelvic disorders, and the myriad of post-operative troubles—there is an army of invalided men and women drifting in and out of the dispensaries who never quite get back to perfect health again. No matter how good the dispensary, the care given to these chronic cases is apt to be perfunctory because they are time-consuming, and time is the one thing that cannot be wasted in a dispensary.

The criticisms made by Dr. Richard Cabot of our dispensary system are familiar to us all, and have had their effect in many places as evidenced by the addition of social service departments to the better managed dispensaries in many cities. Great as is this improvement it has not yet succeeded in silencing the criticism, of the superficial treatment of chronic diseases.

Dr. Heinrich Wolf's paper on page 738 of this issue attacks the question boldly. He holds that it is a wasteful system that those charitable associations pursue who trust to unpaid medical service when they have long since recognized the necessity of employing paid experts for all other departments.



FINGER PRINT



CONCERNING BOOKS

HELEN R. GUTMANN

IF you were to listen, as you pass the different groups of school children, at the beginning of a term, you would hear their shrill voices raised in protest. In this group a child is declaring the lessons to be too hard and too long; in that, complaining that the books furnished him are soiled or torn. Only a few are satisfied.

There may be some truth in their complaints; some teachers do give too hard lessons, and little, warm, sticky fingers stain and tear the pages. However, schools are generally carefully graded and books too badly damaged are discarded. But into the hands of children of a scarcely larger growth the book of life is forced with no thought of obscure meanings, nor of pages damaged beyond repair by environment, heredity or both.

Katie, as she sat awaiting her turn in the Juvenile Court, looked not unlike your fifteen-year-old daughter or mine. Possibly our taste does not run to lilac silk dresses for street wear, but that is only a detail, and the dress was clean. At any rate, no fault could be found with her neat dark blue serge coat, nor her close-fitting little black hat that almost hid her yellow hair. Yes, up to the time she crossed the room to take her place before the judge, she seemed like any other well-grown fifteen-year-old girl.

But all Katie's girlishness was in the outline of face and figure. Her face was pitifully old with such age as a flower might show that had been forced into full bloom before the bud had fairly formed. All the color and fragrance of girlhood were gone.

Her big light blue eyes were expressionless —I almost said colorless. The only thing that seemed alive in her heavy face was her strong white teeth that flashed in a snarl like that of an animal as she answered the judge's questions. Neither voice nor manner showed grief, shame, or repentance, nothing but the anger of a cornered animal. Her mother in neat black was scarcely less phlegmatic.

"It's only the ideas that that boy has put into her head. Katie is all right," said the mother.

Katie did not seem to hear, but the judge looked up in surprise. "Not one boy, but a dozen," he answered. "Haven't you ever told your mother about your life?"

"No," she snarled.

The mother did not appear curious to hear. Katie admitted that her mother knew little or nothing of her child's experiences of over a year, although she had just been released from a hospital as the result of them.

At last the mother sprang to her feet. "By golly, judge," she cried, "my girl *is* a good girl, she always brings home her pay envelope."

Her pay envelope! That was the keynote of it all. Katie's father, after three years of open unfaithfulness had left the mother for the other woman. There were four children, the oldest, Katie. The mother had obtained a divorce but no alimony, and Katie at fourteen, old with the unavoidable knowledge of her father's misdeeds, became a breadwinner. What she did her mother did not know, but she brought home her pay envelope—she was a good girl, poor Katie!

Poor Katie, indeed, for suddenly the sullen anger vanished, a wave of something she scarcely understood softened her hard eyes with tears, relaxed the snarling lips. Half in protest, half in appeal, she sobbed: "I didn't know. I wouldn't be here if I had understood. Other girls right here knew, but I didn't!"

Poor Katie! Is it her fault that the book of life came into her childish hands torn and soiled, or that her father's hand had opened it to lessons no child should learn? In her enforced stay in the shelter provided for such as she, will her mood be the tears or the snarl? Will Katie ever understand, or to the end be a "good girl" solely because she brings home her pay envelope?



CUTTING DULUTH'S MAIN THOROUGHFARE THROUGH SOLID ROCK

INDUSTRY

THE DULUTH ROCK PILE[1]

W. M. LEISERSON

STATE SUPERINTENDENT, WISCONSIN EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

LABOR at the head of the lakes is largely seasonal in character, depending upon work incidental to transportation by rail and boat in the summer, and in the winter upon work in the woods and saw mills nearby. Every spring men come to Duluth and Superior from the East and South for the summer jobs—dock, railroad and boat work. In the fall and winter they flock in from the Dakotas, from railroad construction and repair gangs, from the boats and docks. Some are on their way South or to lumber camps, others are looking for steady work in town, and many plan to winter without work. In the winter of 1910-11, these men overcrowded the police stations and cheap lodging houses and swamped the charitable organizations of the twin ports with applications for meals and lodging.

Early in the winter that year it became evident to the Associated Charities of Duluth, that special measures would have to be devised to deal with the increasing number of men who were in distress from want of work.

Most of the applicants were homeless men,—transients, seasonal and casual workers. It was impossible by questioning such men to find out which were worthy of assistance and which were "work-shy" or "unemployable." A practical work-test had to be devised. But this was not all. In addition to the work-test it was necessary for those who were worthy of assistance to be given a chance to earn what they needed, instead of charitable relief.

[1]The facts upon which this article is based were gathered by Miss Florence E. Perrin, formerly assistant superintendent of the state free employment office at Superior, Wis.



THE ROCK PILE

Accordingly Courtenay Dinwiddie, then secretary of the Associated Charities, proposed to the city of Duluth that it co-operate with him in furnishing employment to unemployed men. The idea was to provide work enough to enable a man to get food, shelter and whatever else he needed to put him on the road to a steady job. In many cases all that the men needed was fare to go to the woods, or the fee for an employment agent; in some cases it was boots, gloves or mackinaws. The idea was not to create some useless task which a tramp or "moocher" would be willing to accept as a last resort, but to enable willing workers to bridge over the gap between their regular jobs by offering them temporary employment at which they could earn what they needed.

An opportunity presented itself in this way. A huge wall of rock intercepts the growth of Duluth's main thoroughfare. Some day the street will have to be cut through this rock. Mr. Dinwiddie therefore proposed that the city anticipate its future need, begin this work immediately and employ on it the many unemployed. In the spring when the demand for labor becomes great enough to absorb all the supply the work could be stopped, and thereafter it could be begun again whenever unemployment increased. In this way a necessary public improvement would be carried to completion and work provided for the unemployed. The cost of the improvement might be increased because the work would have to be carried on in the winter which is the season of greatest unemployment. This increase, however, could be offset by the saving in labor cost, for the market rate for common labor is much lower at such times than in busy periods, and, as a matter of policy, it might be desirable to fix the wages for this work slightly below the market rate. In addition the work could be made partially to pay for itself by crushing the rock and using it for street paving.

The city approved the project, made a small initial appropriation and in January 1911 operations were begun. The skilled work, blasting and drilling, was done by regular employes of the city. The preparation of the rock for the crusher was left to the unemployed men who were referred by the Associated Charities. One of the foremen attached to the Department of Public Works directed the labor, hired the men referred to him, if he thbught them fit for this work, and discharged them if they proved unsatisfactory. The men had to prove their worth by holding down their jobs just as they would in private employment. The men earned every cent they got and there was no danger of pauperizing them. It is significant of the class of men who were given employment, that only eleven out of three hundred and one had to be discharged.

Any able-bodied man who was out of work could secure temporary employment. But he had to have a plan of returning to regular employment at the first opportunity. With such a plan he needed only to present his case to the Associated Charities, go to the rock-pile and earn enough to put him on his feet. Care was taken to prevent the quarry from becoming merely an additional short job for casual laborers.

Wages were fixed at $1.20 per day and paid in meal tickets, employment office fees, or whatever else the man needed. The Associated Charities paid for these and was reimbursed by the city. The market rate for common labor at the time the work was carried on was $1.50 to $1.75 per day. The rate at the rock piles was fixed at a lower figure so that men who could get other work might not be attracted.

The quarry has thus far been in operation two winters,—from January 12 to May 1, 1911, and from December 14, 1911 to March 7, 1912. Dur-

ing the winter just passed there was so little involuntary unemployment that the work was not started. The first year the men averaged three days each; the second year the severely cold weather made it necessary to extend the period of employment and the average was somewhat longer.

In 1911, 227 men were sent to the rock pile. Of these thirty-six did not work, leaving a balance of 191 men who were given employment. Fifty-one of these left the quarry to go to steady jobs and eighteen went to accept temporary employment. Seven men returned for work later in the winter and 115 either left town or secured work; the records did not state which was the case.

The second year, 1911-12, showed an increase of over 50 per cent in the number of men who applied at the Associated Charities and were sent to the rock pile. 459 men were sent to the work but 158 did not report. The percentage that refused to go to work was thus much larger than during the previous year. The extremely cold weather continuing for days at a time may have caused this. The co-operaton of the general public which resulted in bringing tramps and beggars to the notice of the authorities doubtless was also a factor. The results for the second year show that 157 quit the quarry to return to regular employment. This was a substantial increase over the winter before. Nineteen went to temporary jobs, nineteen left with other work in view and eight stopped on account of sickness.

Following is a summary of the results of the work for the two years:

	1911	1911-12
Total number referred to work.....	227	459
Number who failed to report.....	36	158
Number who worked	191	301
Average number of days worked by each	3	...
Number who quit to go to steady jobs..	51	157
Number who quit to take temporary jobs..	18	19
Number who left with other work in view ...		19

The significance of the experiment in Duluth is that it is the nearest approach to the "winter work" that is regularly carried on every year by over 100 German cities. In this country, so far as we know, only Kansas City has anything like it, but the work carried on by the Board of Public Welfare of that city seems to have been created primarily for the unemployed and it is more likely than the Duluth plan to develop the evils of relief works so severely exposed by the Minority Report of the British Royal Commission on the Poor Laws.

The Duluth scheme meets the ordinary objections of critics of relief works for the unemployed and attempts to follow the principles that are considered sound by students of the subject. In the first place, the rock pile is not a mere task created to maintain a fiction that it is work and not relief that is given to the unemployed. The leveling of the rock is a necessary public improvement, merely anticipated a few years, and spread over a period of years instead of being begun and completed within a short period. Furthermore, the men are subjected to the ordinary rules of hiring and firing. No one is kept on the job who can not do the work and anyone whose work is unsatisfactory may be discharged by the foreman. The relief granted to each man is actually earned by him. There is no ill-disguised charity as in the case of the traditional wood-pile. Finally, the attempt is made to have the work actually reach the temporarily unemployed, for whom in theory all relief works are designed. Each man is required to have a plan of returning to regular employment and the rock-pile merely affords an opportunity to earn enough to enable him to reach that employment.

The weakness of the experiment in Duluth is that it is too intimately connected with a charitable organization. The laborers are not given the money they earn but are paid in orders on the Associated Charities for food, lodging, clothing, railroad tickets, etc. Men who earn their way and who might otherwise never become subjects of relief thus are compelled first to apply to the charitable society for work and then to get their pay through it. Self respecting men might be humiliated and there is danger of undermining that self respect.

Despite this objection the rock pile has more than justified itself. In 1911, the month before the operations on the rock pile began the average number of lodgers per night in the police station was fifty. The following month the average number fell to twenty-six per night. The quarry provided a means for separating the tramps and beggars from those temporarily down. The latter have been helped to their feet, while the former have found it harder to get along. Men who were in need of help got it in the best way, in an opportunity to earn their own support. The work they did was as useful as their ordinary occupations. They prosecuted a necessary public improvement for the city and received honestly earned returns.

THE RELATION BETWEEN OCCUPATION AND CRIMINALITY OF WOMEN[1]

MAUDE E. MINER

"IS the trend of modern industry dangerous to the character of woman?" "As an indistinguishable unit in the industrial hosts of today, is she more or less anti-social in thought and deed than as an isolated worker under the simpler conditions of the past?" These are questions which are asked in the report on the relation between occupation and criminality of women, and Miss Mary Conyngton endeavors

[1]Report on Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States. In 19 volumes prepared under the direction of Chas. P. Neill. Volume XV. Relation between Occupation and Criminality of Women. By Mary Conyngton.

to give answer to them from a study of women offenders. The conclusion of the report is that the widening of the industrial sphere of woman has not been accompanied by a proportionate increase in criminality, but as far as change is perceptible, it is towards a diminution of legal offences.

Statistics were obtained from 3229 women offenders in six different states who had been convicted of some offence. An analysis of 1962 of the 3229 offenders, who had been gainfully employed, shows that 77.52 per cent had been engaged in domestic or personal service; 16.67 per cent in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits; 3.31 per cent in trade and transportation, and .66 per cent in professional work.

Comparing these percentages with the percentage of women in different occupational pursuits throughout the country as given in the United States census for 1900, it was found that a disportionate number, varying from twice to six times its representation, come from the ranks of domestic and personal service; that manufacturing and mechanical pursuits do not furnish their full share and that trade and transportation, including all store and office work, produce only a small fraction of their proportionate share of offenders.

Inquiry as to the earliest occupations of the offenders in 627 cases indicates, that no proportion of offenders beginning in the higher occupational pursuits fall back into the ranks of domestic and personal service, and a study of individual cases shows that those who pass from one occupational group to another, remain for the most part on the same industrial plane, thus controverting the theory that any considerable number of women beginning in the higher occupations seek to conceal their past by classing themselves as domestic workers.

The great bulk of women offenders who come repeatedly into the courts or who offend in such a way as to show criminality, are divided according to this report into three classes: moral imbeciles, mentally defective and low grade women who are in the main uneducated mentally, untrained industrially and undeveloped morally. Because domestic and low grade factory work draw the low grade workers, domestic pursuits yield a large proportion of those who violate the laws.

The newer occupations, it is reasoned, show far less than their proportion of women offenders because they attract the better grade of workers and because they exercise upon these women restraining influences. At the same time that there are more temptations there are also present more safeguards against these temptations. It is inferred that so far as increased industrial opportunity has had any effect it has been in the direction of greater respect for law and that the apparent decrease of criminality among women is not only an accompaniment but in part a consequence of their wider industrial opportunities.

An inquiry in regard to the relationship between occupation and immorality and the study of the cases of 100 women who were leading lives of professional immorality, leads the investigator to conclude that there is little connection between occupation or want and immorality. As a result of interviewing those who work with women who have been leading immoral lives, the investigator states that no one person consulted gave occupational influences as a leading cause of immorality, and only two laid particular stress on them as subsidiary causes, also that not one worker assigned poverty or low wages as a direct or immediate cause of immorality.

In the whole inquiry only five cases were found in which the worker reporting them believed that the women had been driven into wrong doing by want. Four classes of women are considered—the unmarried mother, the girl who leaves and regains the accepted path without any general knowledge of her deviation, the occasional prostitute, and the professionally immoral woman. Of the women who had been leading professionally immoral lives, a larger number were employed as waitresses than in any other occupation, and the wrong doing of the members of this group was found not to be due to the temptations in this occupation, but to the fact that the girls were non-moral or actively immoral.

Causes assigned for the immorality of 100 women include betrayal and desertion and unfortunate home conditions; a large number are classed as weak or vain or fond of excitement or indolent or easily influenced, and others as moral perverts. These results are taken to show that the downfall of the women was due to causes operative long before they entered the industrial world, and that the entrance of these women into industry was not responsible for the existence of their immoral tendencies and did not furnish in the majority of cases the occasion for their manifestation.

Although the conclusions are based on a small number of cases and it is not in every instance apparent that they are clearly deducible from the facts given, they are in general accord with the findings of those who have studied the problem of the immoral woman closely. It is true that domestic service and low grade factory work attract the low grade workers and that the percentage of offenders coming from domestic pursuits is due to this rather than to the dangers of domestic service. The occupational influence is small in comparison with other influences in causing women to enter upon an immoral life, but the importance of the economic factor as an indirect influence and as it affects the homes from which the girls have come, cannot be overlooked. While it would seem that too much emphasis is laid upon the "actively vicious" type, there is recognition of the hereditary and mental causes which are responsible for the waywardness of members of this group.

THE MASSACHUSETTS ACT FOR THE PREVENTION OF ACCIDENTS AND INDUSTRIAL DISEASES

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THE state of Massachusetts has this year passed a comprehensive act for the prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases. The act marks an important forward step in labor legislation, and therefore is of more than local interest. It also has some peculiarities which, though connected with the peculiarities of this state's labor legislation, are deserving of general notice.

The passage of a general act as sweeping in character as this was not expected at the beginning of the session. The American Association for Labor Legislation had expected to press for passage measures for the prevention of certain specified kinds of occupational diseases, and more particularly for the prevention of lead poisoning. It had also been proposed to secure the proper reporting of occupational diseases. (It may be remarked in passing that a law which will accomplish this result has been enacted in Massachusetts during this same session.) When the bill for the prevention of lead poisoning was presented before the proper committee of the legislature, it appeared that not only was there a willingness to consider favorably this limited measure, but a disposition to take up one of wider scope. One may readily guess that this favoring attitude was due in no small degree to the change in political conditions during 1912. The Progressive movement and the consequent precarious position of the party long dominant in Massachusetts caused legislators to lend a ready ear to comprehensive plans for labor legislation.

At all events, after not a little twisting and turning in the course of the session—of which more will be said later—the present measure was finally enacted. It provides for a joint board, of which also more will be said presently; having charge of the entire subject of industrial accidents and occupational diseases.

To this joint board sweeping powers are given; and given, moreover, in such general terms as to leave in the board's hands large discretion and important administrative control. By the opening section of the act it is given authority to investigate employments and places of employment, to determine on safety devices, to make rules for the prevention of accidents and industrial diseases. It may require the adoption of safety devices and of devices for the prevention of occupational diseases. Before adopting rules, however, the board must hold public hearings, giving notice to the persons affected. It has power also to appoint committees, on which employers and employees shall be represented, to investigate and recommend regulations.

In other words, Massachusettts has adopted the principle of leaving the details of regulation in the hands of an administrative board. That board is given power to make reasonable rules and regulations; and the provisions of the act are so drawn that it is believed that no constitutional difficulties will arise. The legislature hereafter will not be called upon to undertake the task of settling what precise devices for health or safety must be installed. The powers given in the act are so wide that it is improbable that any further legislation of this sort will be necessary for an indefinite time in the future.

In principle, the Massachusetts act is thus similar to the Wisconsin act of 1911. Like that, it relieves the legislature of the impossible task of attending to details; like that, it provides for conference between the state board and the persons affected, and for reasonable rules and regulations.

It is confidently expected that in Massachusetts, as in Wisconsin, it will be found that most employers will be willing to co-operate with the state board, and that there will be friction or opposition only with a minority of recalcitrant employers.

The particular machinery established in Massachusetts, namely, the joint board, is the result of a peculiar situation created by the Legislature of 1912, when two independent bodies were provided, each dealing with aspects of the same problem. A workmen's compensation act had been passed in Massachusetts in 1912, and under that act an Industrial Accidents Board had been established. In the same session, at the instance of the Massachusetts Association for Labor Legislation, a State Board of Labor and Industries had been created. The Industrial Accidents Board was designed primarily to administer the new workmen's compensation act. Its duties were in large part of a semi-judicial nature,—deciding on cases of accident, adjusting pensions and compensation. But it was also given certain powers, somewhat vaguely stated, for the prevention of accidents. The language of the compensation act, moreover, was such that indemnity was given for occupational diseases, as well as for accidents. The State Board of Labor, on the other hand, was given control of the entire factory inspection of the state, and of the enforcement of factory legislation. In addition, it had large powers of investigation, authority to appoint a well paid commissioner of labor and two deputy commissioners, and control of the entire staff of factory inspectors.

In some respects the functions of the two boards over-lapped. Accordingly the governor

early in the session recommended that steps be taken for their consolidation. A Commission on Economy and Efficiency, appointed to consider means of improving the state service, also recommended consolidation. So complete a change, however, met with strong resistance, and not unnaturally. The two boards were different in character. The members of the accident board received good salaries, and were expected to give their whole time to the service. Members of the labor board were given but nominal salaries, and it was expected that all of the routine work and all of the administrative work would be done by the commissioner and his subordinates. It proved impracticable to work out a plan of consolidation for two bodies so diverse.

Accordingly, a sort of compromise was authorized by which the two are to sit as a joint board having jurisdiction jointly on the one subject where their powers might overlap.

There are obvious objections to the somewhat unwieldy character of the body which is given such considerable powers. The chairmen of the two boards are to act alternately as chairman of the joint board, and the joint board is authorized to make general arrangements to prevent duplication of effort. No doubt if one were to work out a systematic plan, a single body would be established having under unified administration all the powers of the two. But in Massachusetts, as in most English speaking communities, progress takes place by irregular and tentative steps. The two boards being in existence and being both still experimental, it was thought best not to disturb them, but to provide for the joint action just described. In view of the very large powers given, it is perhaps well that the body possessing them should be beyond doubt a representative one, and not too small in number. Each board consists of five persons.

Not a little will depend upon the tact and leadership of the men at the head of these two bodies. Fortunately, both chairmen are men of high character and ability. James B. Carroll of Springfield is chairman of the accidents board. James A. Lowell of Boston, for some years a prominent member of the Legislature and chairman of the commission that framed the compensation act, has been appointed chairman of the labor board. There is every reason to believe that under the guidance of these two capable and public spirited men the new system will work well.

TUBERCULOSIS AND THE HOOKWORM IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY

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THE causes of death among woman and child cotton mill operatives is the subject matter of a report recently issued in the Federal woman and child labor series[1] and is compiled by Arthur R. Perry, M.D. This is a study of the effect of work in a cotton mill on the health of the women operatives.

At first thought it would seem that the way to discover this would be to examine as many as possible of the women actually engaged in such work and determine the degree of ill health among them. Instead of doing this Dr. Perry has chosen to study the mortality records of the mill towns and he argues very convincingly in favor of the latter method. In the first place while the study of death records can be complete, the study of ill health cannot possibly cover all the cases of ill health among the operatives. Then, death is an incontrovertible fact while ill health is only a relative term. Finally one can, as the biologists say, find a control for the death records of operatives, for one has the normal death rate to serve as a basis of comparison. It would be an almost impossible task to get a control for statistics of ill health among operatives by making an equal number of examinations of women not employed in cotton mills. The figures given in this book, therefore, are based on the mortality records of three towns: Fall River, Mass., Manchester, N. H., Pawtucket, R. I.

These towns have records that are fairly satisfactory, yet it was found necessary to check them up closely, especially in regard to the occupation of the decedent. It was also found that the cases of death ascribed to tuberculosis fell below the number actually known. Here as everywhere, physicians had been induced to certify a death as caused by bronchitis or pneumonia when the actual cause was pulmonary tuberculosis, because to certify the latter would be to give the family trouble in collecting life insurance and in insuring other members.

The occupational disease found among these cotton mill operatives is, as one would expect, tuberculosis. The figures given are very striking and convincing. Apparently the employment of women in cotton mills is one form of race suicide, for not only is the longevity of these women far below that of women not so employed, but they are shown to be unable to stand the strain of child bearing and succumb to the dangers of parturition in far greater proportion than is the case of women who have not been weakened by mill work.

The deaths of the women operatives are massed in the earlier age groups where death rates are normally low. To be sure these are the age groups to which the majority of operat-

[1]Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage-earners in the United States. In 19 volumes, prepared under the direction of Charles P. Neill. Vol. XIV. Causes of Death Among Woman and Child Cotton Mill Operatives. By Arthur R. Perry, M. D.

ives belong, but even so, their death rate is abnormally high. Thus we find 50 per cent of the women operatives in the two groups between fifteen and twenty-four years, and 32.1 per cent of the deaths of women operatives occur in these groups. 18.2 per cent of women non-operatives are found in these groups, but only 4.2 per cent of their deaths occur here. "This exceedingly large excess in the death rates of operatives over non-operatives among the young workers must be considered especially significant, for these groups contain large numbers and represent a comparison of boys and girls who have been employed an average of two or three years, with boys and girls of equal age, probably the greater part of whom had not been employed as wage earners."

The death rate among male operatives does not show this excessive massing in the earlier age groups, though it is decidedly higher in these groups than is that of males not employed in the mills, the proportions being respectively 22.2 per cent for operatives between the ages of 15 and 25 years, and 5.4 per cent for non-operatives of the same age.

When we take the causes of death, the importance of tuberculosis becomes very evident. Among the men, the tuberculosis death rate is higher for operatives than for non-operatives in all age groups except 35 to 39 years. Among the women the rates for tuberculosis show an extraordinary excess. In the important age groups, 15 to 19 years, 20 to 24 years, and 25 to 29 years, the excess in the tuberculosis rate for female operatives is 102.7; 153.5 and 164.9 per cent. The women suffer far more than the men from the effects of their work as shown by the figures for Fall River, where for the operative population as a whole the hazard for women is 42 per cent higher than for men, while in the non-operative population the men show an excess of hazard over the women of 22 per cent.

The effect of mill work on the health of married women is strikingly shown in the table giving the death rates of married operatives, for while marriage seems to diminish the risk of death from tuberculosis for a non-operative woman, it greatly increases it for the operative if she continues to work in the mill after marriage. The tuberculosis death rate for married operatives is 5.41 per 1000 population as against 1.11 for the unmarried, and a considerable portion of this excess is directly connected with child bearing.

It is impossible to give in a review all the interesting facts disclosed by this study which takes up all possible factors influencing the death rate. The sections on racial death rates are especially interesting.

The report of Charles Wardell Stiles, Ph.D., on Hook-Worm Disease among Cotton Mill Operatives[1] bears the date 1912. It was probably written much earlier, however, since it treats as matters of controversy points which have been definitely settled by the investigations of the Rockefeller Commission in the southern states and of the federal government in Porto Rico.

Dr. Stiles was the first to demonstrate microscopically the fact that hook-worm disease existed among cotton mill operatives. This was before the Pan-American Sanitary Conference in 1902. The study just published was undertaken to ascertain the extent of this infection in cotton mills, and was carrid on in eight southern states and three New England states. On the basis of Dr. Stiles' previous studies it was assumed that "cotton mill anaemia" is to be attributed to hook-worm infection and the statistics given are based upon Dr. Stiles' computations of the number of persons in the mills visited who showed this peculiar form of anaemia. The results are as follows: Among 8,069 cotton mill hands of all ages and both sexes in 59 southern mills, 12.56 per cent showed symptoms in sufficient degree to lead to the provisional diagnosis of hook-worm disease. This is about 1 in every 8, while in the knitting mills it was 1 in every 7. Nearly 60 per cent of all the suspected persons were under 16 years of age, and about 1 in 4 of the children under this age showed cotton mill anaemia. As the infection almost always gains entrance through the skin of the feet from polluted soil, children who go barefoot more than adults are of course more likely to be infected. Sex seemed to play little part, the percentages being about the same for both.

In order to determine the sources of infection, Dr. Stiles visited 370 farm homes and collected information concerning 4825 more. These were farms from which cotton mill operatives were drawn. Dr. Stiles states that of 100 average cotton mill hands who come from such farms about 33 have come from farms with no privy and 67 from farms with a sanitary index of ten, taking 100 as the standard. Contrasted with this, sanitary conditions in the mill towns are better. To be sure the record that is given is not very creditable to the mills; out of 68 southern mill villages only 6 had sewers, 13 had privies estimated at 50 per cent below modern ideas of sanitation, 7 were 75 per cent below, 17 from 75 per cent to 90 per cent and 25 were 90 per cent below. Nevertheless Dr. Stiles estimates that in coming from farm to mill the people improve their sanitary condition about 20.3 on a scale of 100. His conclusions may be briefly summarized as follows:

Hook-worm disease is dependent on soil pollution.

Soil pollution is greater in farm homes than in southern mill villages.

Therefore, mill work is a "tremendous factor in the reduction of hook-worm disease."

It would have been interesting had Dr. Stiles also discussed the spread of infection for which there is greater opportunity in the mill villages than in scattered mountain homes, and also the effect of mill work upon the already existing anaemia of these infected children and adults.

[1]Report on the Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, Vol. XVII.

WOMEN AND GIRL WORKERS OF CONNECTICUT

The cotton, silk, corset, metal, and less fully, the rubber industries of Connecticut, as well as women in the garment alteration rooms of department stores are covered by the recently published report of the commission of five appointed by act of the state Legislature of 1911 to investigate the condition of women and children wage earners in Connecticut.

Data were gathered in regard to ages, hours, wages and responsibilities of a third of the total female employes in these five industries, which employ more than half of the 48,991 Connecticut women wage earners listed in the census of 1900.

Frequent violations are noted of the state law, setting fifty-eight hours as the limit of women's, work and this is held to be due in large part to the elastic provision that women can work overtime during the winter months provided their hours are cut down to 55 during three summer months. In some cases women are reported as working from seventy to eighty hours a week.

Three industries are noted as having unhealthy elements, the rubber industry with its naptha fumes, the corset industry with its speeding and eyestrain, and the cotton industry where conditions of excessive humidity, dust and lint prevail and where the degree of purity of the water used for humidifying is not standardized and the use of suction shuttles which are spreaders of disease, is general.

The commission decided that $7 a week is "barely a living wage" for a self-supporting woman or girl. The investigation showed that in the cotton industry 27.57 per cent of the women employed earned less than this amount. In the other industries the percentages under $7 are: metal, 46; corsets, 49.15; rubber, 49.65; and silk, 56.6. Silk, which also has the largest percentage of very young workers has the lowest wage record. "It is therefore evident," says the report, "that practically one-half of the women employed in these factories earn less than a living wage." Median wages in the industries are: cotton, 9.57; corsets, 7.87; silk, 7.65; rubber, 7.56; and metal, 7.43. It is noted in the report that the cotton industry of Connecticut has a smaller percentage of women than in any other New England state.

In only three industries is a report made of the financial responsibilities of the women wage earners. Two of these show two-thirds of the total number of women turning in their full earnings to their families and one shows three-fourths of the total number thus responsible to the full extent of their earnings. Less than two per cent are free to use their money as they please. It should be added in this connection that less than 20 per cent of these young women are native born Americans.

The recommendations of the commission are:

1. That the hours of labor of wage-earning women and minors be shortened and regulated.

2. That provision for the effective reporting and recording of occupational diseases, and accidents, be made.

3. That the labor of women and minors in certain occupations be prohibited.

4. That there be more stringent regulation of child labor, with especial reference to night work, to messenger service and street trades, and to a shorter working day.

5. That more adequate provisions be made for the comfort and health of wage-earning women and minors in factories.

6. That a Minimum Wage Commission be appointed.

These recommendations are embodied in several bills which the commission presents with this report to the General Assembly. The members of the commission are: James P. Woodruff, chairman; Alice Hill Chittenden, secretary; Fannie Burke, Patrick H. Connolley.

CANNERS AND THE OVERWORK OF WOMEN

An investigation of the hours and conditions of women's labor in pea canneries for a five year period has been made jointly by the United States Bureau of Labor and the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin. The results are published in a recent Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor.[1] The investigators find that much of the overtime is due to excessive acreage, inadequate equipment, failure to plant with reference to the probable time of ripening, want of storage facilities for green peas, and other causes within the canners' control. Shortage of labor is found, in many cases to be directly correlated with abnormally low wages. It is suggested that an extra shift might very often be obtained by offering higher pay for night work and that the increased cost per case of peas packed would be slight. The conclusion reached is that the canners be encouraged to experiment along these lines before asking or receiving special concessions.

This excellent bit of advice is not likely, however, to deter the canners from asking for special exemptions. The habit is too strong upon them to be soon overcome. Last winter they fought new legislation regulating hours for women wherever it was proposed, except in New York, where the evidence collected by the Factory Investigating Commission was such as to send them to cover until public indignation should subside. In Wisconsin they endeavored to secure an exemption that would permit them to overwork their women employes, and it is rumored that in New York they are already planning to ask next winter for a modification of the 54-hour law which they did not dare to oppose openly at the last session of the Legislature.

This is highly important, for in New York and Wisconsin power has been given the Industrial Board and the Industrial Commission, respectively, to extend the legal limit on hours of labor

[1]Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Whole Number 119. Working Hours of Women in the Pea Canneries of Wisconsin.

of women during the rush season in canneries. In both states regulations were made this summer for the season of 1913. According to the decision in New York women could work in canneries between June 25 and August 5 a maximum of 12 hours a day and 66 hours a week, instead of the maximum of 54 hours named in the law.

In Wisconsin, where there is a 55 hour law for women, the Industrial Commission granted the canners the right to employ women 10 hours a day regularly and 12 hours during the rush seasons. It provided, however, that no more than fifteen 12-hour days in one year should be permitted, and that all time over ten hours a day should be paid for at the rate of time and one-half.

Even with the exemption granted, cases of violation have been reported in New York. Public opinion on this subject is such that the time is probably not far distant when all special concessions will be refused and canners will be obliged to look to increased efficiency for their profits, as suggested by the Bureau of Labor, instead of to the overwork of women.

HEALTH

ALCOHOL AND PARENTAGE

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SINCE Albert J. Nock gave wide publicity to a study of the Galton Eugenics Laboratory on the effect of parental alcoholism, many social workers have seemed inclined to take the negative results of the London statisticians at par. As is well known, these results were that drinking habits of parents do not have any marked effects on the health, stature, and intelligence of children. Of course, if the statistics as presented are really as valid as they have the appearance of being, the conclusions must be accepted, and we snould be thankful for being corrected on a long-standing error. But that they have any such finality is to be seriously doubted.

Many criticisms of the Eugenics Laboratory study have been offered, but the majority have revealed a lack of familiarity with the statistical methods involved. More convincing than negative criticism has been proof by analogy drawn from experimental work in biology, such for example as was reviewed in THE SURVEY of February 15, 1913. It was there shown that in the case of guinea-pigs alcoholism in either or both parents produced most marked results on the offspring. Experiments with dogs have given similar results. It may be said in rebuttal, however, that the long continued use of alcohol by the human race has tended toward the selection of immune strains. In fact it seems very likely from a comparison of the effect of alcohol on civilized and savage races that this is to some degree the case. Yet at the best only a partial immunity to the ordinary effects of alcohol has been attained, and it seems highly improbable that the germ plasm should have gained entire immunity, as must be true if the London study is not misleading.

But there are the figures of the investigation with their elaborate correlations and graphic representations. How can such proof be in error?

The general direction of the answer is suggested by the criticism of experts in experimental psychology. Among those engaged in research in that and allied fields it has come to be regarded as an axiom that an adequate "control" is necessary if causal relations are to be established. Only the most guarded statistical work could be taken as a substitute, and the necessary safeguarding cannot be done with data as ordinarily gathered in the field. The criticism is well-founded in experience, yet as thus stated it is too indefinite to be entirely convincing. It appears to the writer after an examination of the data in question that it is possible to show more exactly where the error lies.

To begin with, let us inquire from what social classes the parents in the study are taken. In the Edinburgh data, where details are the most complete, the parents are for the most part from the working classes both of the well-to-do and the poorer sort. The drinkers are distributed among the group in about the same way as the temperate; that is, they are in the upper grades of workmen as well as in the lower. This is indicated by the fact that the average or median wage differs but slightly for the two classes. Now the status of the parent, whether well-to-do or poorer, will of course be determined by his industrial efficiency in the main. This efficiency will be held down to a given level by various disabilities, otherwise the individual would have emerged from the industrial class beyond the range of the study.

The disability might be a susceptibility to disease, a sense defect, lack of vitality, inferior mentality, intemperate use of alcohol, or a dozen other possibilities or combinations of these. This is assuming, of course, as indisputably proved, that alcohol is a handicap to the efficiency of the individual using it in quantities; the question as to the children of the drinker we are leaving out of account for the moment. That is, each individual necessarily would reveal under careful diagnosis certain handicaps which would ex-

plain why in the race for success he had not forged farther to the front. Each has his weak point or points. In one case it is one thing; in another case it is something else. There cannot be many causes at work in any serious degree in any one individual, because competition would have eliminated such a one into the dependent or criminal classes. Yet, as just observed, there must be some cause hindering his advancement, even if no other than the negative one of lack of ambition or gifts, otherwise he would have passed beyond the upper range of the study. This being the case, the individual being held back by intemperance will, of course, on the average be stronger than his companions in other respects, just as any man compared with his equals will in general be stronger than they in other respects than his particular weakness.

Imagine a foot race in which a large number of persons are engaged. In the front ranks will be found persons of superior qualifications, in the rear will be persons with many weaknesses, while in the middle ranks of the runners will be many having one or two defects of one sort or another sufficient to hold them where they are. One has poor lungs, one a weak heart, one is of sluggish vigor, one suffers from a strained muscle, and so on. In each case a good trainer might by a careful diagnosis show where the weakness lies.

Now suppose a statistician should wish to show the effect of, let us say, a weak heart on running ability. He selects a representative group from the middle third of the runners and carefully tabulates each case of weak heart. To his surprise he finds that the men with the weak hearts are doing quite as well as the others running near them who have strong hearts. To be sure the other men have poor lungs, defective muscles, or other weaknesses, but these are not objects of study and so are not noted. The one fact stands out that in the representative group studied the men with weak hearts run as well as those with good hearts. The correlation is computed and the conclusion established that a weak heart is no disadvantage in a foot race.

It remains to show how these considerations apply to the children of the alcoholic and non-alcoholic groups. The application is obvious. It is well-known that the common defects like susceptibility to disease, inferior mentality, and the like are inherited. If then alcohol affects the germ plasm in such a way as to injure the offspring about as severely as it does the body of the parent using it, we shall have a generation of children corresponding closely to the parents, the children of drinking parents averaging about the same degree of efficiency as the children of non-drinkers. Each parent, including the one of intemperate habits, has transmitted his particular weakness, or an equivalent to it. This, of course, is not a transmission of an acquired character in the case of the intemperate parent, but a direct poisoning of both parent and offspring from the same source. It is plain that under the given conditions, if alcohol were not a race poison the children of alcoholic parents would have been found to be superior to other children. The facts then as set forth may be shown not at all to contradict the assumption that alcohol is a race poison.

Obviously, the only conclusive study, as psychologists and biologists have insisted, would be one that started with two groups of parents of carefully demonstrated equality and subjected one of the groups to the influence of alcohol. The results would then show just what that influence really is. Such a test is, of course, impossible with human beings, and mass statistics can hardly be made to furnish a substitute.

The Galton Eugenics Laboratory is undoubtedly worthy of praise for the painstaking work it is doing. In the long run this work will constitute an invaluable contribution to human knowledge. But a "first study" should not be taken too seriously. As the matter now stands the social worker is still justified in regarding alcohol as a race poison. The facts remain that parents, many of them of the best stock, are voluntarily injuring both themselves and their offspring through an overindulgence in alcohol, and that education and enlightened public opinion may change for the better the habits of many such persons.

MEDICAL AID OF RELIEF SOCIETIES

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NO one would deny that the value we now place on human life is far higher than formerly and yet we can not say that our conception of human worth is an ideal one. It is still largely practical. We still estimate the loss of a life in terms of the cost of production, the economic value to the state of a man, woman or child. Though this is not a high conception, it is a workable one and it is the one which I shall bear in mind in this paper.

In European countries this valuation of human life is followed out logically. The workman there is not left to philanthropic associations when he is injured or sick, but is treated as if he were a valuable machine which must be put in order again as quickly as possible. This is effected by means of the elaborate system of sickness and accident insurance which gives to the workman a legal right to the best of medical care.

For this purpose the insurance companies in Germany and Austria maintain homes for the tuberculous; they employ specialists in various fields in order to procure for the insured the best possible treatment for they know that the most expensive treatment is still cheaper than the permanent support of a patient.

When I compare this method with that preva-

lent in the charitable institutions of this country it is evident that the sums expended and results obtained are not properly proportioned.

For the last few years I have been unofficially connected with one of the large relief societies of New York city. A visiting nurse of this society, vitally interested in the welfare of her charges, has referred a number of the patients to me for treatment. Most of them were suffering from various painful (rheumatic) affections which prevented them from working. Some of these patients had been in the care of this society for a number of months—even years—and their families were destitute and desolate. Two cases will serve to illustrate:

Mr. B., an intelligent and industrious ironworker, was suffering from a painful rheumatic affection of the muscles of the back. He had not been able to work for a number of years, the family, consisting of wife and children, was penniless and left to misery. The society took care of the whole family for about two years. Treatment properly directed, consisting of steam baths and massage, cured the man in about four weeks. From this time on he took proper care of his family, which is now happy and prosperous.

Another man, seventy-six years old, a sturdy and intelligent sailor, was suffering from a mild arthritis of the knee joint. He and his wife were found in absolute poverty and were supported by the society. After treatment for about five weeks he was able to take a position as watchman and to work ten hours a day. He supported his wife properly until she died. He paid his debts and has not applied for aid since.

One cause of the failure, in my opinion, lies in the plan of organization. When a person appeals to the society for aid a worker employed by the society is sent to the applicant's home to ascertain the true state of affairs. If destitution is occasioned by the sickness of a member of the family the case is either referred to a dispensary or sent to the hospital. Right here is the error. It is in the society's interest that such a person should get well speedily and not be treated haphazardly. Any one familiar with conditions in New York dispensaries knows that treatment for most of the chronic cases must be inadequate, since the large number of patients makes intensive study of a case and intensive treatment of it a physical impossibility.

My experience has also taught me that, with the exception of surgical cases and acute infectious diseases, the patients are not well provided for even in hospitals, many of which lack the necessary appliances for the treatment of chronic cases. This is true of such affections as rheumatic troubles which are especially prevalent among working people. A man does not often become disabled through a severe illness, but a slight rheumatic affection makes it impossible for him to work.

It may be that these defects in our hospital and dispensary system are unavoidable but the charitable institutions must recognize them. If they are to be managed on a business basis it seems to me a mistake that the medical aid afforded the poor is not viewed from a business standpoint. I know quite well that every physician gives his aid willingly to indigent cases but he can give only a restricted amount of time to each for obvious reasons. The society, which has a material interest in the recuperation of the patient should not be willing to depend upon the good will of any one man.

My standpoint is certain to be branded as immoral. The physician is pledged to help everybody irrespective of his means. Here, however, we are not considering the duty of the physician but the interest of the philanthropic society and its proteges. What corporation would submit its interests to the good will of non-salaried employes? What charitable institution expects its employes to give their labor gratis? Would it be a saving to do so?

In the interests of the charitable societies it seems wise to employ physicians who would be responsible to them. When anyone whose destitution is conditioned by illness asks the aid of such society then it should be the province of the physician to decide what measures should be taken in the interests of the society and of the man's family. During the last decade new methods have been devised for treating accidents and rheumatic and other ailments so as to hasten recovery by many months.

The best treatment is none too good for relief society patients. I believe that the organization of a proper medical service is of material interest to a charitable institution even though the plan may present difficulties. They would be insignificant compared with the advantages gained by the society for the benefit of its applicants.

SOCIAL LEAVEN IN THE HOSPITAL

MICHAEL M. DAVIS, Jr.

THE fifteenth annual convention of some thousand hospital superintendents, members of the American Hospital Association, held at the Copley-Plaza Hotel in Boston, August 26-29, was distinguished by an unusual amount of discussion of interest to social workers.

Dr. Frederick A. Washburn, administrator of the Massachusetts General Hospital of Boston, and president of the association, gave in his opening address his conception of the function of the hospital as not merely to treat patients acutely sick, but to aid in the prevention of disease, and to undertake social service and cooperation with community agencies.

The out-patient department was touched upon not only by Dr. Washburn, but by two other

speakers who expressed hope that more attention would be given to this neglected feature of hospital work.

The new community demands upon the nursing profession was the subject of one session. The services of the highly trained graduate nurse are essential in many cases, but there is also room for persons of less skill, ranging from the so-called trained attendant to the houseworker, who simply keeps the machinery of a home going during the illness of the mother. This discussion brought out the fact that the attempt to standardize and give professional recognition to the lower grades of service in the home care of the sick, is not met with favor by a considerable proportion of those hospital superintendents in whose control are the chief training schools for nurses. The Association referred the matter for further report another year.

Problems entirely new have been brought before the medical profession and the hospitals of this country by the growing movement for social insurance. This important subject was discussed in two important papers: one by Dr. D. J. McIntosh of Glasgow, who reviewed the effect of social insurance on the hospitals of Germany, and of the new National Insurance Act upon the hospitals and physicians of Great Britain.

Dr. David L. Edsall, of Boston, pointed out the opportunity of the hospital to assist in the campaign for more social legislation, especially by keeping careful records of the industrial diseases treated in its wards. He outlined a system which will soon be in operation in the Massachusetts General Hospital.

Sidney E. Goldstein, director of social service in the Free Synagogue of New York, made a vigorous plea for evening clinics in out-patient departments, so patients need not lose time from their work for treatment.

The report of the association's committee on out-patient departments showed that out-patient departments and dispensaries unconnected with hospitals (the two performing an equivalent type of medical service) have increased fourfold in number in the United States within six years, and 50 per cent in the number of patients. The association has appointed a committee on methods of out-patient service, which is to formulate preliminary standards.

Dr. Herbert J. Hall of Marblehead, Mass., whose institution at Devereux Mansions has attracted much attention, described his work for the handicapped convalescent wage-earner. Dr. Hall has adapted certain industrial processes, such as the making of flower-pots and rugs, so that the handicapped person can be wholly or partially self-supporting through the production and sale of artistically finished commodities. The adaptation of this system to the hospital service on a large scale has already been considered by the Massachusetts General Hospital, which will soon establish a "medical workshop" as a model for other institutions to follow.

For the first time in the history of the American Hospital Association, or of any other primarily medical body, a special section was given to social service. A new note was struck by Elizabeth V. H. Richards, head worker of the social service department of the Boston Dispensary, who showed that the social service department is not only of assistance to individual patients, but that the medical-social worker can be of value to the managing authorities of the institution as a whole, in studying the efficiency of its clinical work, and in planning the broader relations which its work may bear to other welfare resources in the community.

From Dr. Andrew R. Warner, superintendent in charge of the Lakeside Hospital Dispensary, Cleveland, Ohio, comes this appeal to his brother superintendents to grasp their larger responsibilities toward the community:

"The most marked recent changes in the purpose and work of hospitals are: First, the development of more co-operation with other organizations, to bring about greater social efficiency; second, a greater effort to render real service in its wards to the men and women patients, who lived somehow before they were admitted, and who must continue to live somehow after they are discharged; and to do all this without losing one iota of scientific progressiveness in medicine or of teaching proficiency. The successful manager of such an institution must have an interest in and knowledge of the public health and welfare, of social and economic conditions, and must cherish a determination that society as a whole shall gain, and not lose, because a charitable institution is entrusted to his management.

"The results of good business are dollars; the results of scientific research are facts; the results of wise charity are social betterments. There should be the element of charity in every hospital, and the manager must product the results. He should therefore be a supporter and a worker in social service. We have heard hospital superintendents characterized as good housekeepers, good inn-keepers, good accountants, good specialists in some branch of medicine; it is high time that we heard-occasionally, at least—of hospital superintendents who are good social workers, good sociologists. To the business capabilities and the medical qualifications required in the hospital manager today, tomorrow will add one more—and that will be social."

VOLUME XXX, No. 26 WEEK OF SEPTEMBER 27, 1913

THE SURVEY

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AN EAST SIDE FLIRTATION

THE PITH OF IT

ROBERT COIT CHAPIN died of pneumonia last week at Whitefield, N. H., where he had spent his vacation. He had been professor of economics at Beloit College since 1892 and was widely known among social workers and economists as the author of The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York. Few volumes of recent years have more profoundly influenced public opinion.

ONE thousand health bills, in forty-two legislatures last winter, ran mostly to sterilizing criminals, regulating marriage and medical inspection of schools. P. 748.

MAURY I. DIGGS and Drew Caminetti of San Francisco have been sentenced under the Mann white slave act to two years' imprisonment and $2,000 fine, and eighteen months and $1,500 fine, respectively. Their cases were the most conspicuous yet brought under this federal law. Judge Van Fleet blamed their crime upon "the laxity of social conditions and the lack of parental control. All through this case," he said in pronouncing sentence, "there is evidence that drink had its paralyzing influence upon the morals and the minds of these men and the young girls with whom they went on that trip to Reno."

THE first chair of civic design to be established in the United States will be at the University of Illinois and will be occupied, beginning October 1, by Charles Mulford Robinson of Rochester, N. Y. Mr. Robinson was one of the first in America to make a study of this subject which has been extensively developed abroad and his books are recognized as authoritative. Though Illinois is the first university to establish a professorship under the broad name of civic design, courses in the subject by specialists in some part of the field have been given at Columbia, Harvard, Cornell, Michigan and Wisconsin.

WHEN 1,200 of Ipswich's 6,000 men, women and children went out in the stocking strike, the ministers of the town suddenly realized how little they knew of their community. A social survey put the situation in perspective and led quickly to substantial reforms. P. 749.

THERE'S no drying up the liquor traffic until you have furnished a satisfactory substitute for the social features of the saloon, writes Mr. Laubach in a convincing statement of the case for "the poor man's club." It is not liquor men really want, but companionship, brightness. In New York 600 churches and settlements are trying to compete with 13,000 bars as meeting places for boys' and men's clubs. "Unquestionably the saloon has succeeded." P. 751.

WHAT the poor need is income. The best way to help them get it is in the form of wages, says Miss Balch—and tells how some girls and women got raises by strikeless strikes. P. 755.

THE SURVEY

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DISCHARGED FROM THE SANATORIUM—THEN WHAT?

If anyone wishes to remain entirely optimistic he must keep going, and never stop to take stock, for stocktaking is disillusionizing and depressing. The Massachusetts State Board of Health has faced this disagreeable fact and yet has courageously stopped and taken stock of the sanatorium treatment of tuberculosis in that state, with results that are saddening but very illuminating, not only to the people of Massachusetts, but to every one else who does not love darkness better than light. The board has been looking up the subsequent history of the persons released from state sanatoria and local tuberculosis hospitals in order to find out what actually becomes of these people; whether those discharged as arrested cases continue to be arrested; whether they relapse, and if so, why, and how far their habits and mode of life have been changed for the better by their sojourn in the institution. The patients were not selected, but an attempt was made to follow up all discharged cases.

The reading of this report makes one realize afresh that a chain is no stronger than its weakest link, and no matter how excellent may be the care furnished by a sanatorium it is of little permanent value without a well-organized system of follow-up care and control.

Take for example the first group of patients who were studied. The investigation disclosed the fact that of twenty-seven discharged from one sanatorium (all but three of them in 1911) ten had died, eight had been lost track of and were either dead or at large without the knowledge of any local health authority, and nine were found to be living. Out of those nine, however, three were already back in state sanatoria, while every one of the remaining six was found to be careless as regards the spread of infection. To quote further:

"The investigation disclosed the fact that persons are discharged from state sanatoria to go whither they may. They sometimes return to their original place of residence, or they may seek new domiciles in the same city. They may never return to their original location, but may go to other cities or even other states. In any event, it appears that no person or organization is responsible or assumes responsibility for the care and conduct of patients discharged from a state sanatorium.

"It is a fact that most of the twenty-seven patients investigated on leaving the sanatoria have been found to be careless in their personal



Donaghey in Cleveland Plain Dealer

THE "GUNMAN"



—*Minor in St. Louis, Post Dispatch.*

"Going! Going! Who says Twenty Dollars?" "Twenty dollars will save the life of one baby by giving it pure modified milk."—St. Louis Milk Commission.

habits, especially as regards the prevention of the spread of the disease among well persons. They have thus failed to profit by the instruction received at the state hospitals.

"Another fact made clear by the investigation is that a considerable proportion of the patients discharged from a state sanatorium as an 'arrested case' relapse immediately, or shortly afterwards, into a condition of well-advanced sickness. On returning home the patients are generally left to their own resources."

A résumé is given of the 127 patients discharged from the Lawrence Tuberculosis Hospital between the date of its opening, November 1, 1910, and April 8, 1912. Seventy-five of these, or 59 per cent, have died, seventeen are lost, six have apparently recovered and one probably never had tuberculosis. All but four of the remaining twenty-eight were found living in tenements, some amid bad sanitary surroundings, and only two of the twenty-eight were taking any special precautions to avoid spreading the disease.

"Many of the patients were found out and about each day on the streets, in moving-picture houses and elsewhere, even though they were spitting promiscuously. One patient had returned to school, although having considerable cough and some expectoration and occasional hemorrhage. One patient went to work in a mill. Three of the patients had confirmed habits of intoxication.

"Each of these patients, now a menace to the public health, was at one time, as has been shown, under treatment in a municipal hospital. They have been allowed in many instances to return to crowded tenements and to unsanitary homes, and no successful attempt was made by local authorities to keep track of their whereabouts.

"The foregoing facts indicate some of the problems that must be dealt with if the spread of tuberculosis is to be checked. They indicate that the social as well as the medical aspect of the disease must be further considered. The prevention of the spread of tuberculosis from one person to another includes among other problems those of housing, proper nutrition and personal hygiene."

Such a study as this is very valuable and suggests the need of similar inquiries in other states where state and municipal hospitals for the tuberculous are maintained. If it is found to be true that barely 4 or 5 per cent of the patients cared for in a sanatorium have been permanently benefited it will obviously be necessary to provide for some system of continued care and control after the patient has left the care of the sanatorium.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF FIRE PROTECTION

For the first time the National Fire Protection Association at its annual meeting this year gave attention to the matter of safety to life in connection with the fire hazard of buildings. The association has for seventeen years created the technical fire protection standards universally adopted by American and Canadian engineers for their guidance in planning and protecting buildings. A growing interest in the human side of engineering projects has permeated the membership of the association, which resulted in the appearance on its program this year of Frances Perkins, executive secretary of the Committee on Safety of the City of New York.

The president of the association, H. L. Phillips, in his annual address made the following suggestion:

"It would seem as if we could include in our work a section or committee having for its object the consideration of safety of life against accidents of every description. This subject is more or less intimately associated with the work of several of our committees at the present time, and we have done all we can to further this work in connection with Independence Day celebrations and with proper protection against fire in all buildings where people congregate. It is our thought that a section or committee can well be arranged under our present constitution

which can go into the subject of the safety of lives in a more extensive way than we have undertaken in the past."

Before the conclusion of its three-day session, the association voted to establish a committee on public information with sub-committees in all the principal cities in the United States and Canada. It is the intention of the association to give attention through this committee to all matters of public import respecting the fire hazard, and attention will be given to all the hazards to life as well as those to property.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF AMERICAN PRISONS

Italy was fortunate in her representatives to the 1910 International Prison Congress at Washington; especially fortunate in the fact that the Rev. Alessandro Bianchi was able to make so full and exact a report of the proceedings as he has done. One who can read simple, clear Italian can inform himself of all that went on from the landing of the delegates to the close of the congress. A graphic account of the long trip to visit prisons and reformatories is also included.

The good priest is gentle in his criticisms of the institutions he saw here. He would have had American backing had he used much stronger language in describing the New York Tombs, which has more than one man in a cell and no direct light. Hart's Island and Jeffersonville share his displeasure. Nowhere, except in a few reformatories, did he see prisons even approximating in his opinion that of Brussels and those



Morris in Spokane Spokesman-Review

A PUBLIC MENACE—THE INDISCRIMINATE SELLING OF FIRE ARMS.

of Milan, Torino, Parma, Bologna, Florence and Tivoli. Not only in construction but in administration he ranks American prisons as inferior to those of Italy. The reformatories, where the men are sent on indeterminate sentence, he warmly praised.

This report is dedicated to René Bérenger whose letter of acceptance is reproduced. In this he congratulates the abbé on having visited "the country to which we owe the creation of the juvenile court."

A YOUNG MAN'S RECREATION CREED

Rev. Herbert A. Jump, Pastor, Oakland, Cal.

First—I will never patronize an entertainment that brutalizes man or shames a woman.

Second—I will always do some part of my playing in the open air.

Third—I will not be merely a lazy spectator of sport; I will taste for myself its zest and thrill.

Fourth—I will avoid over-amusement as I pray that I may be saved from over-work.

Fifth—I will choose the amusements that my wife can share.

Sixth—I will not spend Sunday in caring for my bodily pleasure so much that I forget my soul and its relation to God's kingdom.

Seventh—I will never spend on pleasure money that belongs to other aspects of my life.

Eighth—I will remember to enjoy a boy's sports again when my boy needs me as a chum.

Ninth—I will recollect that play should be for the sake of my mind as well as for my body; hence I shall not shun those forms of entertainment that deal with ideas.

Tenth—I will never let play serve as the end of existence, but always it shall be used to make me a better workman and a richer soul.

There are many illustrations showing American institutions and there is even a quotation from THE SURVEY with reference to the Italian delegates.

The Government Printing Office has published in a sixty-four page pamphlet the proceedings of this congress. It reprints from THE SURVEY of November 5, 1910, reviews of different sections of the congress.

LUTHERAN INQUIRY ON "CHURCH AND UNREST"

The executive committee of the Brooklyn District Lutheran Young People's Society at its last meeting entered upon an undertaking of more than usual significance for the Lutheran Church in America. It appointed a commission to study and report on the relation of the church to the present social unrest.

The resolution outlining the commission's task follows:

"In view of the widespread unrest in modern society, in view also of the claims of social and industrial injustice, in view furthermore of the varied demands that are made of the church for action: We respectfully suggest that you make an extensive survey of the situation, of the interest which the church has in it, and of the position which the church ought to take to be true to its divine mission and fully to meet its duty and opportunity in the world today."

The above-named organization is affiliated with the Lutheran synod of Missouri, the largest body among the Lutherans. So far this body has not in a concerted way taken up the social and industrial questions of the day in their bearing on the work of the church.

The commission is strong and well balanced and promises to command attention. Rev. O. H. Pannkoke of Brooklyn is chairman and Rev. John C. Baur, 310 Cooper Ave., Glendale, L. I. is secretary.

FEDERAL ENFORCEMENT AND CONVICT GOODS

A bill framed along the lines of the Copley child labor bill, prohibiting interstate transportation of convict made goods has been introduced in the House of Representatives by Congressman John I. Nolan of California. A statement of its purpose is expressed in the first section: "To prevent unfair competition in interstate commerce between the products of convict labor and the products of free labor." The bill prohibits all interstate transportation of "goods, wares and merchandise, manufactured, packed, produced or mined, wholly or in part by the labor of convicts or in any prison or reformatory." The administrative provisions are the same as in the Copley child labor law outlined on p. 616 of THE SURVEY of August 16. The bill which has the approval and support of influential labor leaders is the ninth measure introduced on the Progressive Congressional program. In the Congressional report of 1906, it was stated that the United States Bureau of Labor "found manufacturers practically a unit in favoring a federal law prohibiting interstate commerce in prison made goods," and that "the state legislatures are generally willing to enact such legislation for their several states (prohibiting the selling of prison made goods in competition with the products of free labor) but for the fact always emphasized by the prison wardens that a state law would not prevent the shipping into the state of prison made goods from other states. In other words, the state, in endeavoring to protect its manufacturers and laborers from the competition of prison made goods can only succeed by withdrawing its own competition, in making the state a better market for the prison made goods of other states." An analysis of convict made goods for the year 1903 to 1904, showed 27 per cent sold within the state of production, 51 per cent sold without the state and 19 per cent used in public institutions.

It is an interesting commentary upon both the power of Congress to enact this legislation and the need for its enactment, that by the Dingley law, the McKinley law and the Payne-Aldrich law, Congress has prohibited the importation into this country of foreign convict made goods. The scheme of federal enforcement, in both the child labor and convict goods bills, was thought out by Donald Richberg, chief of the legislative reference bureau of the Progressive service, and is a distinctive contribution to a little developed field of administrative problems.

SCHOOLS FOR FISHERMEN

A unique form of vocational training has been carried on for some years by the Belgian ministry of industry and labor. In 1887 the Belgian fishing industry which had formerly been a great source of wealth, was found to be at very low ebb. M. Pype, a government charity official whose work was among the seafaring population, resolved to try the effect of raising the level of intelligence among boys going into the fishing industry whose apprenticeship up to that time had begun at the age of ten practically without general schooling. As their masters had begun at the same age their mental equipment was of the lowest and the fishing industry was carried on by unskilled and antediluvian methods. Many were not even able to read the marine charts and were thus unable to avoid the dangers of the sea or even to find the most favorable fishing beds.

The first school was opened at Ostend in 1888 and proved to fill so real a need that it was soon followed by others until today there are eight fishing schools on the coast of Belgium. The training is both theoretical and prac-

tical, including instruction in the principles of navigation and the reading of marine charts, as well as in the practical care and running of the boat and its machinery. A law of 1890 provided that graduates of the schools should be examined before being taken on the boats. The school course is three years and the average age of the pupils is fourteen.

NEWARK FACES HOUSING EVILS

Although Newark, unlike New York and Boston, is not afflicted with an extensive congestion of buildings, nor confronted with the problem of narrow streets bordered by high tenement houses, nor hampered by the public alley or the ill-ventilated and ill-lighted alley houses as are Philadelphia and Montreal, nor menaced by the privy vaults and surface drainage which for years plagued public health in Baltimore, the housing report made by James Ford for E. P. Goodrich and George B. Ford and the City Plan Commission of Newark shows many specific and serious housing problems.

Previous to the enactment of the tenement house law, many large dwellings were built with windowless rooms, most of which still remain. Basement and cellar dwellings are still moderately frequent, though in a large percentage of cases the underground rooms are used only for cooking or general living purposes. A few privy vaults still violate the sanitary code in almost every residence ward.

In fact the legislation to force the elimination of the privy vault permitted the substitution of the yard closet. Although the yard water closet is not allowed for new tenement houses, it is still permitted on the grounds of new one- and two-family houses and is widely prevalent in the older tenement and residence sections. The lack of privacy in the use of the yard closet may constitute a menace to morality. Almost half of those investigated had doors that would not lock so that they could be used by the passing public, thus making possible the transmission of venereal disease.

Tenement houses in Newark quite frequently hide stables in the rear of the block but close to the houses, constituting a nuisance, and finally Newark was found to be a city with a considerable conflagration risk. Within the fire limits old inflammable buildings crowd against their neighbors.

COMPENSATION AND AN INDIAN MURDER

Will Stanley, superintendent of an Indian school in California, in the direct performance of his duty, was shot and killed by Indians. Under existing law his widow and two young children receive no compensation from the government, and a special measure must pass both

SOME NEW CHILDREN'S JINGLES

JESSE PERLMAN

[The writer of these new children's jingles is a school teacher and drew his inspiration from the stories of home work told by his children and their parents.]

SING a song of flowers,
Put them on your hat.
Twenty-four hours
Lying in a flat:
The flat is dark and sickly
As the children in it.
The children make them quickly—
Bunches in a minute.
Quit that flower song
In the minor key!
It makes me sick; you've got it wrong.
Don't sing that to me!

FAIR dove,
Your glove!
He brings her what she bids:
Her chamois, suèdes, or kids.
Yet ye forsake 'em;
The "kids" who make 'em.

SEE the nut, the nice new nut;
Looks nice, smells nice, tastes nice, but—
See the table! Look beneath!
See her crack them with her teeth!
Ugh! the nut, the poisoned nut:
Looks nice, smells nice, tastes nice. But!

SEE the children "finishing,"
See their strength diminishing.
Midnight work—and that is mild—
Quickly finishes the child.

LITTLE Maggie Moffat
Works for Mr. Jones.
Jones, he gets the profit;
Maggie—she's just bones.

Houses and be signed by the President in order that common justice may be done.

The supervisor who reported the murder to the authorities at Washington recommended that a pension be given to Mrs. Stanley just as pensions are given to the widows of army and navy officers killed in line of duty. Such a provision was, as a matter of fact, included by the Senate in the Indian appropriation bill, but it was stricken out before passage on the wholly tenable theory that it did not belong in a supply measure. Accordingly, a special bill, dealing with this case alone, was introduced into the Senate. When it came up objection to its consideration by unanimous consent was made by Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah, who asked:

"What responsibility has the government for the killing of this man?"

To this Senator Works of California replied:

"He was in the regular performance of his duty and he was shot down while he was performing his duty. If that does not give rise to a case where the government ought to recognize the claim of his widow and children, I do not know how you can find one where it would be just and proper."

The objection, however, was insisted upon, and the bill was delayed. It is believed that it will not be reached in the regular order of business before the December session of Congress. The incident shows the need for a thorough-going compensation act for federal employes.

OPENING SANATORIA AND EDUCATING PATIENTS

That the mere establishment of a hospital or sanatorium for tuberculosis patients will not of itself at once fill the institution has recently been proved by experience in two different states. Early this year the Montana State Sanatorium, located near Warm Springs, was opened with thirty-two beds. The institution is well located and has adequate equipment. But the failure of the state authorities to furnish something more than just a building or group of buildings has resulted in a dearth of patients. At the end of two months there was only one patient at the sanatorium. The people of Montana need education before they will go to this or any similar institution.

In Ohio, a district hospital for consumptives for five large counties was opened at Lima with a capacity of thirty-two beds. The annual report of the superintendent for the year ending March 31 showed the average number of patients treated was only eighteen. On that date there were fourteen patients at the sanatorium, and this too although there are several times as many patients in the district. As a result the county commissioners have cut the appropriation for maintenance from $16,000 to $12,000 for the next year.

Contrasted with this showing, the overcrowded condition of the county hospitals in New York, where a constant educational campaign is being conducted, is suggestive. The superintendent of the poor in Suffolk county, which has no tuberculosis hospital, recently tried to get a patient into a hospital in another county. He wrote to the superintendents of seven county hospitals, but found that there was not a single vacant bed in any of them. After much delay, however, he did succeed in finding an available bed in the Ulster County Hospital.



FINGER PRINTS



THE DEATH PENALTY

LOUISE DE KOVEN BOWEN

JOHN MASON lost his father when he was ten years old. His mother married again and the step father was not very kind to the little boy, who was an imaginative child and often in trouble because he preferred to read rather than to work on the farm.

When John was fourteen years old he ran away from home to the nearest large city where he joined the Naval Reserves. He swore that he was sixteen years old and as he was large and well grown for his years this statement was not questioned.

He served in the Reserves for two years but was very homesick and at the end of his term he made up his mind to return home, a distance of about two hundred miles. He had no money, but for an energetic boy the distance had no terrors and by doing odd jobs for the farmers' wives he earned his food and shelter. It was late in the fall and one night after a long tramp he found himself near a little village. He asked at several houses for food and shelter, but was rather roughly refused. He was both cold and hungry and as he approached the outskirts of the village he saw a small grocery store. No one seemed near and he raised a window, entered the shop and began to eat some crackers that he found on the shelf. He was seen by the village watchman who hastily shot him in the shoulder. He was then arrested, tried and convicted of robbery and sentenced to twenty years in the penitentiary. He protested against this sentence, saying that he was only sixteen years old and too young to be sent to the penitentiary, but as he had sworn two years earlier when entering the Naval Reserves that he was then sixteen, he was not believed and the sentence was carried out.

When John reached the prison he was put to work in the machine shop, but being still weak from the wound in his shoulder caused by the watchman's shot, he fell against the machinery and had the fingers of his left hand taken off.

He made no effort at the time of his trial to communicate with his family, but after eighteen months in prison he wrote to his mother telling her how sorry he was for all the trouble and disgrace he felt he had brought upon them and ended his letter by saying: "I am counting every day until I can go home. Give my love to father and my brothers and sisters and the dear old dog if he is still living, and cheer up, Mother dear, it will be only eighteen and a half more years before I shall see you."

His mother brought this letter to the Juvenile Protective Association, who, in order to prove that he was under legal age when convicted and sent to the penitentiary, secured from the little village in the East, where he was born, his baptismal certificate and went with it to the governor of the state where he was in prison. His parole was recommended by the governor and he was paroled by the State Board of Pardons.

His release, however, came too late, for he had contracted tuberculosis in the prison, where the death rate for that disease is always so high, and he is now in a sanatorium making a brave, but losing fight for life.

HOUSING MRS. FARLEY

EDWIN NEWDICK

MRS. FARLEY is a positive character. Adamant determination is in the body that bulges from under the string encircling her expansive waist. She has taken men lodgers for years, ever since her man, Terrence, died, and may he rest in peace—he doubtless does, comparatively, at least, though meaning no offence to Mrs. Farley.

Terrence was one of the best men who ever used a hook on the docks of the Big Terminal Company. Never in his life was he known to take a drop too much, saving maybe of a Saturday night or a holiday. The Farleys lived behind warehouse number eight in one of a row of little brick houses put up by the company for its laborers and their families. There Mrs. Farley still holds sway though it's now going on twenty years she's been after living in the one place, except for a few days when—but we're coming to that.

Mrs. Farley has enforcable rights. If the rent collector expresses any doubt about the carrying out of one of Mrs. Farley's fiats, it's to the company's office she goes and takes a seat by the foot of the stairs that lead up to the door marked "Private." There is a bit of office history and something in the expression of Mrs. Farley's face that account for her being left there undisturbed.

She stays right there till a big motor, purring softly, rolls up to the office and a masterful gentleman steps out. His dignified nods of "Good morning," to the office staff and calm advance toward the door marked "Private" are interrupted. Mrs. Farley states the case, clearly and with emphasis. Her speech is mostly peroration. She should not be, in fact, cannot be, interrupted. At the conclusion of her statement of what she wants or does not want, Mrs. Farley exudes an expressive silence. She is always assured that her "request" will be granted at once. It is hard to imagine any other outcome. Every clerk in the big, general office applies himself with conspicuous care to his work until the outer door and the one marked "Private" have closed.

About a year ago Mrs. Farley decided that she had paid rent enough to be entitled to occupy the premises thereafter without charge. So she stopped paying. Never before had the Farleys been behind with the rent except a few months after Terrence's death when the wake and the grand funeral he had, with nothing coming in at all, made it impossible to scrape enough together. But every month till Mrs. Farley got started in her lodger business, the company had sent a receipted bill for the rent to her as usual. When it was found out that she was just simply refusing to pay the small rent charged her, she was warned to move or be dispossessed. After six months of threats to which she paid no attention whatever, she was dispossessed—although they had to get marshals from the other side of the city, where Mrs. Farley wasn't known, to do the job. She moved back again into the house a few days after upon the payment of one month's rent, all parties maintaining careful silence in reference to arrears.

Since the company has had its welfare department, special attention has been given to housing conditions in the property under the control of the company. The row of old brick dwellings has been greatly improved; light has been let into dark, interior rooms by cutting alcove openings, new windows and big ventilating skylights over the stair-halls.

But the plans were not approved by Mrs. Farley. When the carpenters came to her house she told them to chase themselves to where they were wanted and not be bothering her. The period at the end of the preceding sentence shows where the door was slammed shut by Mrs. Farley.

Housing conditions at Mrs. Farley's are bad. The burly laborer-lodgers sleep in unventilated rooms and though they're a healthy lot, the head of the welfare department was not content to leave things that way. He sent a memorandum on the case and request for instructions to the man behind the door marked "Private." It promptly came back, endorsed in a hasty scrawl: "House not under the control of the company."

A THOUSAND HEALTH BILLS

FREDERICK R. GREEN, M. D.
Secretary Council on Health and Public Instruction, American Medical Association

The present agitation and interest on all public health topics finds its immediate reflex in the work of the forty-two legislatures which were in session during the past winter. It is difficult to say exactly how many public health measures were proposed in these legislatures but between eight and nine hundred have been reported and there are probably many more which have been overlooked, perhaps a thousand in all.

Most of these bills, like most of the bills on any topic which comes before our legislative bodies, were hastily and carelessly drafted and were, in many cases, proposed, framed, and advocated by men or organizations with so little real knowledge of the particular situation or its needs as to make one a willing convert to the legislative bureau plan now working so admirably in such states as Wisconsin and Rhode Island. Perhaps the most important lesson which can be drawn indeed from the winter's efforts at legislation is the crying need of fewer laws, so carefully framed and so critically considered before adoption as to avoid the trouble and confusion that careless legislation entails.

Another peculiarity is the tendency of legislatures to follow prevailing fads in law-making. It may seem ridiculous to talk about fashions in public health laws. Yet careful observation will confirm the fact that legislative efforts are prone to run in certain grooves at certain times. Two years ago, every legislature that met was considering bills for the abolition of common drinking cups and roller towels. This year the styles have changed. Bills for the sterilization of criminals, the regulation of marriage, and the medical inspection of schools have been the most generally considered, and this regardless of the peculiar characteristics and needs of the particular state. For instance, in a western state with a sparse and scattered population, few large towns, a single penitentiary, an insane asylum with few inmates, and no public health organization worth mentioning, the legislature considered a bill for the sterilization of criminals, not because of present need for such a law, but to keep in line with other states.

Of specific laws enacted probably the most important were the Seeley bill in New York, reorganizing the State Department of Health, and the bill enacted in Michigan for the creation of a state commission to make a survey of the state and to obtain accurate statistics regarding the number of defectives, delinquents, and dependents in the state with the causes for such condition so far as ascertainable. The Seeley law, which was one of Governor Sulzer's administration measures, makes the State Department of Health an actual executive department of the state government and greatly increases its powers and effectiveness.

Colorado, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, North Dakota, and Wisconsin adopted laws requiring some guaranty of physical healthfulness as a condition for a marriage license. Kansas, Michigan, Oregon, and Wisconsin provided for the legal sterilization of criminals and defectives. North Carolina and Tennessee provided for the registration of births and deaths. Illinois again failed to provide for vital statistic registration as she has for ten years past, but established an epileptic colony.

Indiana provided for sanitary school houses; Massachusetts authorized county bacteriological laboratories; Michigan created a state commission on hotel sanitation; Missouri created a Board of Administrators for state institutions and enacted laws regulating occupational diseases and the employment of women; New York provided for work shops for tuberculosis convalescents and for medical supervision of country schools. Oregon adopted probably the most advanced law in existence on advertising, forbidding the advertising of cures for venereal diseases in newspapers and making the newspaper proprietor or publisher equally liable with the advertiser; Rhode Island provided for factory inspection and for the regulation of child labor; Texas prohibited the pollution of streams, created a tuberculosis commission, and also created a state Child Welfare Bureau; Washington authorized counties to erect hospitals; West Virginia provided for a whole time state health officer. Wisconsin not only authorized incorporated cities to use money derived from local licenses for the purpose of preventing disease, but she reorganized her state Board of Health and increased its appropriation. Wyoming strengthened her pure food law and regulated the sale of habit-forming drugs.

Progress on the whole has been as satisfactory as could be expected under existing conditions of lack of co-ordination and want of any definite plan. What is needed in the public health field, as in many other lines, is the careful collection of data by some central body, the exhaustive study of existing conditions and needs, the formulation of a few model bills on the most fundamental subjects, and the gradual development of a coherent system of public health laws and of a perfected, co-ordinated public health machinery. Efforts in this direction for the last twenty-five years have been spasmodic, individual, and too much influenced by temporary fads. A few carefully framed and broadly conceived public health laws, properly enforced, would be of far more value to the public than the mass of legislation on special subjects which is accumulating on the statute books of many states.

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

A MILL TOWN'S CHURCHES REDISCOVERING THEIR FIELD

EDGAR FLETCHER ALLEN

IPSWICH, a very beautiful town, twenty-eight miles from Boston, is typical of many towns in old New England. It has about 6,000 inhabitants, and receives its share of immigration, perhaps more than its share, for at the present time the alien population is rapidly increasing while the native population is decreasing. The strike last spring, which involved one-fifth of the population, shows it to be facing the situation confronting smaller as well as larger industrial populations. It emphasizes the need and significance of the churches' awakening to the discovery and improvement of local conditions.

Under the direction of the Federation of Churches in Ipswich, the writer made a survey of the town, with the following result:

In 1900 there was a population of 4,658; in 1905 this had increased to 5,205, and in 1910 to 5,777. In 1905 there were 2,557 born of native parentage, against 2,648 alien, but for 1910 (eliminating the 11 Negro, Chinese, Japanese and Indian residents), the figures are 2,178 native to 3,588 alien. It is thus apparent that with the native population on the decrease there is to be a considerable change in the economic and religious outlook of the town. This change is due to industrial conditions, the same as have so radically changed Lawrence and Haverhill.

In trade and manufacture the changing population is forcibly felt. Ipswich has always been the center of the weaving industry, since 1822, when lace weaving was introduced by men from the factories of Nottingham, England, as a result of opposition to the introduction of machinery into the process. It will be remembered that from 1811 to 1816 the Luddite riots brought about such wanton destruction of life and property that skilled workmen left England for America.

At the same time and for the same reason hosiery weavers migrated, and notwithstanding the efforts of the English government to prevent the exodus (an interesting account of which may be had in No. XIII of the publications of the Ipswich Historical Society), the workmen found a safe passage for themselves and their machinery and began operations in America, the first stocking machine being erected in Ipswich in 1822. Silk weaving was also introduced, but had a very short life, and in course of time lace weaving also disappeared, leaving in 1832 a cotton mill with 260 looms and 3,000 spindles as the remaining industry. This in turn was displaced in 1868 by the manufacture of hosiery, which has persisted, until at the present time it forms the staple industry of the town, employing about 1,200 hands.

Other small mills and factories of different nature have more recently been introduced, and the prospect is that the town will continue to grow as an industrial center.

The tide of immigration changed about twelve years ago, the higher class of operatives from England, Ireland, Nova Scotia and Canada being displaced by the people from less developed countries, Poland and Greece. Those of the former class who remained in the town found other occupations and now form a most valuable part of the community. This displacement of skilled labor by automatic or easily controlled machinery and by cheap labor, brings lower standards of living and correspondingly lower wages here as elsewhere.

The 1905 Massachusetts census shows the average wage of the wage earning class to be only $324.49. It is a significant fact, however, that even on this low average there is a large amount of money saved by the laboring class and sent out of the country. But this survey demonstrated what such thrift involves. In some places a single room serves for three or more persons. Living conditions among some of the workers are shocking. Eleven persons were found in one tenement, consisting of three rooms and two large dark closets. Rents are moderate, the prevailing rates being $8. to $12 per month for six rooms and $5 per month for four rooms.

In 1912 there were 91 deaths, of which 32 were those of children under one year of age, 28 of whom were of foreign parentage.

Whatever value the foregoing statistics may have to the town, they are more important in acquainting the churches with the actual conditions surrounding them. It was of less value to know that there were about 150 cases below a minimum standard of living than to discover which cases were due to misconduct and which to misfortune. In one instance assistance had been given indiscriminately for several years, and the total cost of the case to charitable organizations amounted to almost four thousand dollars. Pauperism had persisted for several generations on both sides of the house, and degeneration was acute and almost chronic, but, under the marvelous skill of a lady visitor, rehabilitation took place and the family is well on the way to self-support.

The housing and sanitary conditions of the tenement district were made public. At a union meeting of the churches, under the auspices of the federation, the actual situation in the town was placed before the towns people in a constructive way. Pictures of the more disastrous conditions were shown on the screen, and the experiences of the investigator related. In this way the churches sought to fulfill their obligation, of educating and arousing the community. Prevention rather than cure was emphasized. For while there is not yet a large amount of property utterly unfit for habitation, there are enough dark, windowless rooms, enough overcrowding, basement stores, unlighted halls and inadequate sanitary conveniences, to make sure far worse conditions if longer neglected. Enough refuse littered the streets and vacant lots, to render unsightly the business district and to increase the fire risk.



A BACK YARD DUMPING GROUND



BEAUTY REPLACING THE DUMP

A crusade was inaugurated by the federation for the adoption of the tenement house act for towns, recently enacted by the state legislature. Voters were circularized and a vigorous newspaper campaign maintained. The matter was hotly contested in the town meeting, but the act was defeated. Even in its defeat, however, the act did not die. A new community spirit was aroused. Town officials by exercising their power a little further brought about many of the results the act was intended to effect.

In addition to closing the unfit houses and causing improvements in the dilapidated ones, the campaign had another result which will undoubtedly prove of benefit to the community, *i. e.*, the establishment of a garbage and refuse collection. No provision could be made for the proper erection of new buildings. The amended act will doubtless be brought before the community again, however, and it is hoped may be adopted by Ipswich.

The survey brought the needs of the children closely home. The streets were shown to be the only place for most of them to play and for a large majority of the young people of the town to amuse themselves. Up to a late hour one can find very young children in the streets, a great number of adolescents, and altogether too many men of maturity whose actions and language bespeak their quest. Doorways, alleys, depot environs and similar places are well populated, and the time spent in such a manner is productive—too productive.

The town has already provided playground space, and the mills have given to the children of their employes a well-equipped playground, but these are of little value when evening has

fallen. Home is not always inviting, not always comfortable, and the friendships of the street add a little to the adventure and excitement of life. The churches are attempting to deal with the problem, and ultimately the need will be met.

Such surveys of the community, whether they be exhaustive or merely superficial, must always result in some reawakening. The civic, social and economic conditions of any community are the challenge to the churches of that community. The full portent of the challenge will be realized only when the character of the entire community is realized, the field will be understood only when it is surveyed and analyzed, the opportunities for service, the need of adjustment, the appreciation of forces at command can be comprehended only when the church knows the community and has turned the community back upon itself to work out its own salvation.

WHAT THE CHURCH MAY LEARN FROM THE SALOON

FRANK CHARLES LAUBACH

UNQUESTIONABLY the saloon has succeeded. In New York City alone over one million dollars a day are spent for drink. That is enough money to buy for twenty million people a five-cent beer with a free lunch thrown in. It would purchase twenty-five cents worth of liquor for every men and woman in the city. Between one and two million men spend a part of every day in saloons. Thirteen thousand bars are supported by this vast army.

Is thirst alone what all these men are seeking to satisfy?

If it were there would not be a saloon in the city. Every grocer would sell liquor. Men would order their drinks by telephone and drink them at home.

The saloon exists because liquor is not all men want. Three-fourths of the saloon's patrons are impelled thither by one of the finest cravings of the soul, the craving for human fellowship.

This demand cannot and ought not to be repressed. It is the most wholesome thing in the world. The saloon, or something which will afford a comradeship as free and democratic, is becoming more indispensable every day. Because this is true all efforts to destroy the saloon by denunciation have failed and will continue to fail.

Quite the opposite is true of drinking. The craving for alcoholic stimulant is a disease. It betrays an unsound condition, a dull brain to be lashed, a weary body to be stupified, a coward's heart to be made brazen, a conscience to be drugged, trouble to be drowned. Education is rapidly showing the younger generation the folly of its use. As our schools become more practical and efficient the use of liquor will diminish.

Seeing this curious combination of virtue and vice, there have been many people within the last few years, who have believed it possible to remove the vice of selling strong drinks and leave the saloon a pure social value to the community.

Is the saloon really proving of service to the community? If it is, who are the people whom it serves? What functions would the saloon still perform if it were liquorless and viceless? These are the questions which we must answer if we are to consider such a suggestion. We will try to give them a partial answer.

On the streets of every large city are innumerable gangs of boys and young men. There is one aspiration which they hold in common. It is that they may have club rooms of their own.

Like older people they want the best they can get for the least money. Now the saloon keeper offers club rooms for less than anyone else in the community, and frequently the rooms are free. As a matter of course the boys expect and are expected to patronize the man who has afforded them a meeting place.

About one saloon in six has separate club rooms. To all practical purposes, however, a saloon is itself a free open club where a thoroughly congenial group of patrons meet daily.

The rival bidders for the patronage of boys' and men's clubs are church houses and social settlements. Yet they are at such a disadvantage that they are to be commended for doing as well as they do.

They are at a disadvantage in the first place from the inadequacy of their numbers. A study of the charities directory reveals that there are not over 600 social or religious organizations seriously going after these clubs, most of them as a side issue. What outcome can be expected in a contest in which the numbers are 600 on one side and 13,000 on the other?

Most of the religious houses are at a disadvantage in the second place from their traditions, and traditions never worry saloons. A down town church house is just about ready to close its doors. The only thing which would draw the people of the community is a motion picture, yet the pastor and trustees refuse to stoop to the introduction of such untraditional artificialities. This is a somewhat extreme example of a feeling which is more mildly manifested in every proposal of an innovation which ever comes before churches.

Orthodoxy never troubles saloon-keepers. They locate for business and they cultivate novelty. All their efforts are bent upon the one aim of catching men. There are sixty-four corners between Thirty-fourth and Forty-second Streets, and Seventh and Ninth Avenues in New York City. On thirty-five of these corners are saloons. They are the thirty-five best business corners in the section. There is one corner church—it is the darkest, most forbidding corner of the sixty-four. One always feels safer passing on the other side of the street—it is so splendidly lighted by the saloon.

It is enlightening to compare a saloon and a "substitute." The majority of church houses have steps leading up to the door—the saloon avoids even a door-step. The "substitute" is seldom conspicuous, and often has a little sign, so modestly unobtrusive that one may pass it twice, and then ask a policeman where it is. If he knows, you are fortunate. The saloon dazzles with lights and glitters with advertisements of liquor. The policeman knows where it is. The door of the "substitute" is locked, and you wait in the cold until someone with three other jobs lets you in, looks you over to determine whether you have come to beg or to donate, and asks your business. The saloon has a push-door; touch it, you are inside, and nobody asks your business. Ring the bell at the door of most churches on Monday morning and you will wait until Wednesday night for an answer. The saloon is open every hour the law will allow, to say the least.

Boys, being human, follow the law of least resistance. No boy with normal instincts for companionship, can be expected to live a lonely, marked life, when club life is so congenial and so easily achieved. He goes where friends and fun may be had with the least effort. Nothing dampens enthusiasm like climbing steps, ringing bells, waiting, being looked over, and promising to be good.

What is true of the boy is even more true of the laboring man. He is tired and has little time to do more than "drop in." He wants no waits and no red tape. He will not be treated either as a child or a suspicious character. The most convenient place he knows where he is sure of a plain, uncritical welcome is the saloon.

A rich man may take his car to his private club or entertain at home. The poor man has hardly room in his flat for his family, and he cannot afford to be a member of any private club. He goes to the public club, the saloon. Here he finds other men who understand him because they are in the same position, just as glad as he to get away from an overcrowded home and a nerve-wracked wife, and just as glad to forget their troubles over a social glass. In a church he would feel out of place with his threadbare and greasy clothes. Here he is dressed like the other men. He treats his friends, talks with a glibness that surprises even himself, hears the news, and goes home feeling warm and oblivious to the hard facts of reality.

At noon he wants something to eat, and he wants it cheap. He buys a beer at the saloon which is always nearer than the nearest lunch room, and gets a first rate free lunch. One half the saloons in New York have free lunch counters. The lunches are often so good that one wonders how the saloon can make money. You would pay a quarter in many lunch rooms for what you can get in most saloons with a five-cent beer. Close the saloons and 25,000 men will declare that you have taken the food out of their mouths.

While saloons have been little embarrassed by the competition of churches, they are running close competition with each other. This competition has driven them to resort to many other expedients besides the low rental of club rooms and free lunches. Without realizing it they have become experiment stations for trying out games and amusements. Many saloons have bowling alleys, and find them extremely popular. But they also found that the game became so engrossing that the men forgot to drink, and bowling alleys are not so popular with the saloon-keepers as with patrons. About one saloon in six has billiard and pool tables. The crowds which may be seen about them every evening attest their popularity.

Eleven saloons out of twelve furnish tables and chairs, located either in a rear room or in attractive alcoves. These are much used for card games. They are more used for chats over the glasses. About these tables and over the bars, the ruling political opinions of our large cities are being created and disseminated. The politics of large municipalities are as good as their sources, no better, no worse.

One saloon in ten is closely connected with a dance hall. Two things stand out clearly to a spectator of the tremendous patronage of these places—the prevalence of the passion for dancing, and the peril of mixing dancing with liquor.

One saloon in ten has in operation a ticker, where men may learn the condition of the stock market, the first news of the game or fight, and other events of interest.

Every saloon has a toilet. The traveling man finds the ubiquitous saloon indispensable for washing, having his shoes blacked, consulting a directory or a time table, asking some necessary question about the community, telephoning, getting a $20 bill changed—who has not found that the saloon-keeper is the only man willing to take large bills? You may preach the abolition of the saloon to your heart's content. but when in certain parts of the city, miles from home, you may find the saloon the only friend you have.

What would that vast army of draymen, deliverymen, cab drivers, chauffeurs, and messengers do if they could not go to the saloon and thaw out their benumbed fingers, or inquire an address, the best road to travel, or the nearest repair shop?

Daily there pours into every large city a stream of horsemen, cattlemen, lumbermen, farm hands, mill men, sailors, laborers of every variety, who have a few hours off, and are looking for diversion. It is too cold to walk the streets, they do not appreciate art, they are unacquainted with the city, they are not well dressed. Where shall they go? The brightest light and the most convenient place they see is always a saloon. There the stranger need only buy a drink or a cigar, and he may talk for an hour about the wonders of the city, its crime, its shows, its wealth, its secrets. Thousands of visitors go to the saloon, are driven to it, because they know of no other place which will welcome them.

In a word the saloon is the poor man's club. To him it seems the purest democracy in America.

It is his society. To destroy it would leave him without social standing, the most precious thing in life, even to a tramp.

The poor man does not need to be told the evils of alcoholism. They are before his eyes every day. But to lose the saloon, the *sine qua non* of his social life, seems a more intolerable evil. The poor man holds the majority vote. Never can liquor be abolished until we give ample guarantee that the integrity of the most precious thing in the laborer's life will be preserved. The moment other means are provided for satisfying the universal instincts for social life and recreation, so that the millions of men who now rely upon the saloon may satisfy their social impulses without buying liquor, that moment the backbone of the saloon's power will be broken, and not until then.

"The club-house threw open its doors in due time and flung the keys away. Like the saloon, it invited the men to come in at any hour, day or night, and make use of *their* billiard and pool room, play cards at *their* tables, read in *their* library, buy cigars twice as good as the saloon 'stincadores' for the same price, make use of the dance hall, the cafe, the rooms and the bath in any way they saw fit. . . . In a few months after the opening of the club-house seven drink emporiums closed their doors—for lack of business. . . . Today the town of X—— is larger than it was. It has a thousand additional inhabitants, but the number of saloons has decreased from twenty-nine to seven—for lack of business." Thus Walter V. Woelke describes in *Sunset Magazine* the experience of the Harriman Line Club at X——.

To replace 13,000 saloons would require millions of dollars. But the church membership of New York City represents enough money to buy out all the saloons in the world—if they cared enough about that "diviner order on earth," for which they pray.

BOYS' DAY IN A GEORGIA COUNTY

GEORGE F. AUSTIN
PASTOR METHODIST CHURCH, HAZLEHURST, GA

A DISTINCTIVE feature of the work in social Christianity in the Methodist parish at Hazlehurst, Jeff Davis County, Ga., is among the boys. The picture shows its beginning. The group is in front of the Methodist Church where a talk had been given them on Boys' Habits. Lectures to follow will be given by resident business and professional men who have been induced to take an interest in the work. The need for this sort of activity was shown recently when two boys, ages seventeen and nineteen (but who did not know their own ages) were convicted in the County Court for stealing a piece of meat. They told the judge that they had never been to school, had never been to Sunday School, and did not know it wrong to take the meat. They could neither read nor write. They spent a month in the chain gang and on being released attempted to steal the tools with which they had labored.

August 20 was Boys' Day in Hazlehurst and every knee pants boy in the county was given a basket dinner. Twenty-two schools in the county were visited by workers in getting invitations to them. Three hundred boys were present.

The church in Georgia is beginning to line up for an effective child labor and compulsory education law. The church largely influences governmental action in social legislation, and it is hoped to have this year social and economic conditions in better shape, thus lining Georgia up with other states.



HAZLEHURST (GA.) BOYS' CLUB
A teacher, a pastor and a staff physician in a social service church who are doing effective work for the boys of Jeff Davis County.

FOR A FLANK ATTACK ON VICE

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES
CHURCH OF THE MESSIAH, NEW YORK CITY

MILITARY officers are generally agreed, I believe, that a flank movement is usually a more effective mode of attack than direct assault. "Never attack in front a position which permits of being turned," was one of the maxims of Napoleon. A flank movement saves the attacking force from exposure to the withering fire of the enemy; and it renders the position of the defenders utterly unstable by threatening their base of supplies. It is no mere accident that a direct advance, like that of Burnside at Fredericksburg, is usually unsuccessful, and never at all successful except at frightful cost; and that a flank attack, like that of Jackson at Chancellorsville, is generally successful, and when unsuccessful can be retired without loss.

May we not learn wisdom here from this first principle of military tactics, to the great advantage of our fight against the dehumanizing and desocializing forces of modern life? Take the house of prostitution, for example, against which the battle is now being pressed with especial vigor. A frontal attack, it must be confessed, is here necessary in the name of decency if nothing more. But why not vary this attack, or supplement it, by a flank movement? Why not see what can be done by indirection as well as by direction? Can we not "turn the flank" here, so to speak, and thus gain by a few simple manoeuvres what might be gained by direct assault only after long delay? Let me suggest some of the flank movements which might be attempted in this case, with promise of success!

1. Adopt the "Little Tin Plate" ordinance, already enacted at Portland, Oregon, and now pending before the aldermen in New York, which provides for the posting of the name and address of the owner of a building on a conspicuous part of his property. Houses of prostitution will be few and far between when the name of the owner is lifted as high as Haman for the passerby to read.

2. Enact a law, making it impossible for the owner of a house of prostitution to collect insurance upon his property. I am informed—I know not how accurately—that such a measure is in force in Wyoming, with excellent results.

3. Enact a law, providing that the property in a house of prostitution, like the paraphernalia in a gambling house, shall be subject to public confiscation, and may be destroyed on order from the court.

4. Enact a law, empowering a Board of Health, either state or local, after due investigation, to declare a house of prostitution a place of contagious disease, and to order the same closed and abandoned. This is one of the excellent suggestions of the Chicago Vice Commission.

5. Enact a law, declaring a house of prostitution to be a public nuisance, and empowering any citizen to institute summary proceedings for the abolition of the nuisance.

6. Provide at municipal expense, decent forms of amusement to supplant low dance-halls, theaters, etc., which now debase the morals of the people for private profit. This was one of the original recommendations of the New York Committee of Fifteen.

7. Above all, by one sweeping attack around the enemy's flank upon his base of supplies, guarantee to every working-girl an ample living wage, short hours, and decent conditions of labor.

Here are a few illustrations of what may be done in the way of assailing the house of prostitution on the flank. And what is true of the fight against this institution is true of every fight against the myriad forms of social wrong. To wipe out a source of physical and moral corruption all at once, by direct attack, is usually impossible. To surround a source of corruption with such encumbering conditions that no one will find it worth while to maintain it is usually easy and feasible. And the one method of procedure, let me say, is as consistent with uncompromising fidelity to the right as the other.

JOTTINGS

PROPORTIONATE GIVING VS. UNJUST ASSESSMENTS

C. A. Miller, of the *Grinnell (Ia.) Register*, in urging proportionate giving upon the churches, insists that their financial support and that of the causes for which they solicit contributions is obtained far less by voluntary gifts than by what practically amounts to unjust "assessments." These assessments, he thinks "are levied by the Board of Trustees on the good old railroad plan of giving the traffic what it will bear." He illustrates this contention by claiming that "If some good woman has been scrimping the food which she ate that she may have more money to give for the kingdom, this self-denial is urged upon all good Christians; if some rich brother is giving an infinitessimal proportion of what he should his customary pittance is raised a little if he will stand it."

The injustice of this disproportionate giving is thus shown to bear hard on the wage-earner's family. If with his wife and four children he shared the customary occasions, it would cost him $12 a year for church suppers, $2 additional for the materials his wife would be expected to supply, $5 a year for his children's contributions to the Sunday School at only ten cents for all four children, which together with his weekly contributions to church support would amount to not less than $30 a year or 6 per cent of his income. The richest man in the church as rated by Dun or Bradstreet would escape with "two-tenths of 1 per cent of his income." This Mr.

Miller claims is "either fearfully unjust to the poor, or criminally negligent of the rich." He suggests for incomes of $500 or less, one-half of 1 per cent; for incomes of from $500 to $1,000, 1 per cent, rising 1 per cent with each additional thousand dollars of income.

The only agency with which the wage-earning class can be reached with the Christian appeal, while the churches are failing to do so, is "an evangelistic press." Such a periodical, Mr. Miller thinks, could succeed best in a town of about 5,000 people. It should include in addition to the usual home news, departments devoted to the rural church, the grange and the social interests of the community. Thus he thinks the working-man could be won from the half truths urged in support of radical ideals to the whole truth of the Kingdom of God.

COMMUNICATIONS

WHAT THE POOR NEED IS INCOME

To the Editor:

Bernard Shaw says: "What is the matter with the poor man is his poverty." Mr. Shillady of Buffalo says: "If we grant this the next question is how is an adequate income to be obtained, and the only happy answer is "by earning it." The fundamental ways of helping are, then, first to enable all who can to work; second, and more important, to make their work of the greatest possible value, and third (and by no means negligible) to help workers to get what their work is worth.

The first two fields are those of hygiene and education. The third is that of organization and mutual self-help, and, ultimately, of the representative system in industry, that is of democracy in the economic relations as well as in political. But that is a far look ahead.

In this last field the possibilities are surprisingly great and especially as regards exploited girl workers. The little candy girls in one or two of the Boston factories were on strike for forty-eight hours this spring. Miss Gillespie, secretary of the Boston Women's Trade Union League, calculates that $5,000 had by the middle of August been added to their wages as a result of the settlement that they then secured. The changes were $1 a week extra to those receiving less than $6 a week, and fifty cents to those receiving more than $6 a week.

This is $5,000 disbursed without salaried agents to administer relief, and without an offset in demoralization and loss of self-respect. On the contrary, achieving this has meant gain in self-respect, advance in "trade intelligence" and growth of social sense.

Even more striking (no pun intended) was the experience of the telephone operators described in The Survey of August 16. Here not an hour's pay was lost, not a subscriber was inconvenienced nor a message interrupted. Yet over two thousand young women, as a result of peaceful negotiations gained shorter hours, an increase in wages and the establishment of a permanent board for the adjustment of grievances.

In the field of men's labor the opportunity for the outsider to be of use is not frequent. It would indeed be hard to estimate what labor owes to its great outside advocates, interpreters and arbitrators. Henry D. Lloyd, John A. Fitch, John R. Commons, Clarence Darrow, Louis D. Brandeis, Mr. and Mrs. Raymond Robins, Jane Addams, Robert Woods—it is invidious to attempt to call their roll. Yet, in general, it is true that men desire, and are indeed obliged, to do their own work in their own way.

With working girls the situation is different and the Women's Trade Union League finds before it a field white for the harvest. This was not always so. The growth of its opportunities has been very slow. It is just ten years since I sat with English Walling, Mary K. O'Sullivan and others round a table in the Boston Civic Service House, listening to the plea of the former for an organization of allies and workers to help forward organization among women. The American Federation of Labor was then holding its annual conference in Boston and gladly welcomed the new auxiliary. Soon the Boston organization became a state branch of a national organization seated in Chicago, while other state leagues were formed in New York, Chicago, and St. Louis.

In Boston it has proved a long uphill tug. Gertrude Barnum had a tragically interesting experience with the Fall River strike of 1894 but in general there was apathy and disunion.

Quite suddenly this year the way has opened. This spring saw the Boston league co-operating with

1. The shirtwaist strikers who were out only two weeks yet won the most perfected form of industrial agreement, the so-called peace protocol.
2. The telephone operators, whose strikeless strike was referred to above.
3. The employes of a candy factory whose success has also been spoken of. (The Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission, be it noted, found that the candy trade was paying excessively low wages.)

This is only a sample of what could be done if the means (money) were forthcoming.

There are several trades now wanting to organize and needing the co-operation of the league.

And most important of all, the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission, the first to be put into operation in the United States, began its work July 1. Miss Gillespie, secretary of the league, and one of its members, was in England in June studying the situation there, and she says (just what a very intelligent English sociologist, Miss Scovell, has been telling us) that "the wage board is of value only as it finds or elicits trade organization with which to cooperate."

The situation is crucial. The "good employers" tell us that they desire organization; that it is only when their unscrupulous rivals are

held to decent conditions that they themselves can do what they would like to do.

The believers in votes for women ought to see that in trade organization women have a ready and most instructive field for gaining experience in representative institutions, *i. ê.*, of politics in its fine sense.

All over the country those interested in seeing wage boards given a fair trial should enable their first trial here and now to be a fair one.

Yet the truth seems to be that this work falls somehow between all the stools. The candy girls in two days won for themselves an increase of income which in a few weeks exceeded the total annual expenditure of the league. Yet the Boston public does not contribute this meagre expenditure, much less enable the league to do its full and proper work. Those who belong to the old individualist school "do not believe in trade unions." The emotionally kind-hearted respond mainly to the appeals of immediate suffering. And among those keen to feel industrial wrongs the thrilling campaigns of the I. W. W. tend to cast the slow conservative work of old line trade organization into shadow.

What the poor need is income. The best way to help them get it is in the form of wages—Q.E.D.

EMILY GREENE BALCH,
[President Boston Women's Trade Union League.]
Boston.

LEAGUE OF INVESTORS

TO THE EDITOR:

The letter of Sarah N. Cleghorn in a recent SURVEY has interested me tremendously. I should like to know if there is such a thing as a "white list" for investors,[1] and if so where may I get in touch with the organization. On the other hand if no such list exists, I would be very glad to give a portion of my time and thought in furthering any such excellent and fundamental proposition.

I know there must be thousands of investors, large and small throughout the country, to whom the question of profit is tempered with a vague uneasiness as to the social conditions that underlie those profits. There must be thousands of people who would prefer to take dividends unsoiled with the blood of labor mutilated by disease, overwork and unsanitary conditions. There must be thousands of people who would prefer to support an industry producing just goods or services for which the world has need, rather than to take earnings from anti-social, parasitical industries.

By profession I am an expert accountant and have a thorough and fundamental knowledge of the statistical side of financial operations. I could use this knowledge to considerable advantage in helping any "white list" program.

STUART CHASE.
Boston.

[1] A proposal of a league of investors was made in THE SURVEY of July 26, 1913. The subject was discussed by Mary E. Clarkson, Elizabeth G. Evans and others.

HOUSING THE POOR

TO THE EDITOR:

It is, I believe, a well settled principle that not more than one fourth of the monthly income of the family should go into house rent. We have in this city honest and industrious people who are unable to earn more than $10 a week. The weekly wage of a much larger number ranges from $12 to $15.

I have before me the statement of one of our local real estate men, which says that he has become discouraged in building houses for cheap rent, say for $10 a month. The lowest price at which such houses can be built is $1,000. Lots are hardly obtainable for any less. The cost of lumber and labor is constantly increasing. This builder says he is done with cheap houses.

His statements are correct, yet the poor must live, and we cannot allow them to live in unsanitary, disease-breeding shacks, and tents, especially in the winter time, are out of the question. What are we to do about it?

W. F. HARDY.
[Managing Editor *Decatur Herald.*]
Decatur, Ill.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR:

I think you will be interested to know that I use articles in THE SURVEY as topics for my Sunday school class. I have in the class young men and women students in Cornell University and I concluded that I could do nothing better than fit them to live as they should in the world. The class has been enthusiastic and I have seen in the members a decided growth in judicial attitude and a desire to know both sides of all social questions. As for myself, I find THE SURVEY a live wire, connecting me with the life of our great interesting old world, and I shall never be without it.

ANNA B. COMSTOCK.
Ithaca, N. Y.

TREND

THAT tuberculosis presents just as serious a problem in rural communities as in congested urban centers is indicated by an investigation, an account of which under the title A Ten Years' Study of Tuberculosis in Lafayette County (Wis.), was published in a recent number of the *Wisconsin Medical Journal.* The survey of the county, a strictly rural one, was made by Drs. Susanne Orton and Jean M. Cooke.

The following extracts from the report give some of the most important findings of the investigations:

"The period covered by this study is from 1901 to 1911. It has been impossible to obtain the services of a nurse or trained field-worker, hence we have had to depend upon records in

the county clerk's office as to the number of deaths occurring in this period and on the members of the county medical society and the Bureau of Vital Statistics as to the living cases, and upon our own observations as to living conditions. The number of deaths recorded during this ten-year period is 186, which gives an average rate per 10,000 of 9.25. Our findings conform to the general rule that tuberculosis in Wisconsin is the largest single cause of death, the rate in the county being 9.6 per cent of the total death rate.

"There are eighteen townships, and of these eight have a tuberculosis death rate above the state average of 10.7 per 10,000 and one is above the Milwaukee average of 12.7. Dividing the deaths into five-year periods, we find that six townships are above the Milwaukee average in one or both periods. One of these townships includes one of the two larger towns in the county, but this town is really the same as a country district in so far as housing conditions are concerned. Three of the townships are farming districts with no towns. One cannot ascribe such a state of affairs as our report indicates, to poverty and overcrowding.

"As to occupation, very little can be said, owing in part to the fact that the data on the death certificates are in many instances incomplete. However, we are safe in saying that very few females found occupation outside the home, and at least 75 per cent of the males were farmers, or farm laborers."

* * *

A VALUABLE manual for work in the field of family rehabilitation has just been published by the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy under the title The Charity Visitor—a Handbook for Beginners. As stated in the preface the manual "is based on the verbal and written instructions relative to the technique of investigation which for years has been current in the offices of the United Charities of Chicago."

To many people, including inexperienced workers, the process of investigation smacks of the third degree and is little more than a series of relentless questions which find their justification only in the requirements of an elaborate record system. This manual is no defense of investigation which, with those who understand it, needs none, but it is a very clear and convincing statement of the purpose which lies behind each separate step in the process showing how the complete and accurate understanding of a family situation at the outset of any kind of treatment is imperative for real helpfulness.

The manual consists almost entirely of an exposition of the various items in an investigation as they have been arranged on the record sheet of the Chicago United Charities. There are some interesting additions such as footnotes giving reference to pertinent articles from periodicals and extracts from laws regarding housing, naturalization, etc. The author of the book has succeeded in making interesting reading out of what is almost a catalogue. The whole book is shot through with a splendid spirit and the author seems nowhere more interested in justifying a scheme of investigation than in safeguarding the sensibilities and welfare of the individuals in whose behalf the process may be invoked.

The manual will be of use to teachers of case work and to those who are conducting training classes for new workers. It is for sale by the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy at 50 cents a copy with reductions for larger quantities.

JOTTINGS

THE WOMEN'S CITY CLUB OF BOSTON

The Women's City Club of Boston is peculiarly fortunate in having a club house ready for it as soon as it is really ready for the club house. When in March, 1914, the City Club moves into its new quarters (see THE SURVEY, February 15, 1913) its present home will be occupied by the Women's Club as a place of rest and entertainment for members and their guests.

It will be more, however, for the club is designed primarily to provide a social clearing house where the interests of its members in civic affairs may be correlated and strengthened. For all with a message that makes for civic righteousness, it will provide a forum where an unprejudiced hearing and a frank discussion are sure. It will provide a common meeting ground for club women, home makers; women of leisure and workers.

The record of the organization of the club reads like a formula. To one woman came the idea; she called two other women into a conference over her idea. These two approved and each one of the three called into a Committee on Organization nine other women. Each of these thirty invited nine other women to join as charter members, and each of these three hundred have agreed to bring nine other women into the club by the time the club house is ready for them. The method and manner of its organization may well be taken as a model.

WOMEN IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Long hours, overtime and low pay are conditions of employment common to the principal industries in which women engage in Washington, D. C., according to a report just published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.[1]

Over four-fifths of the women in retail stores worked 55 to 59 hours a week and during the Christmas holiday season 90 per cent worked overtime. A third worked 70 to 74 hours that week and another third worked over 75 hours. 99 per cent worked as long on Saturday as any other day. For this, three-fifths of those reporting got less than $7 a week.

[1]Hours, Earnings and Duration of Employment of Wage-Earning Women in Selected Industries in the District of Columbia. Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics No. 116.

Women in factories were somewhat better off as to regular hours. Over half of those reporting worked 48 to 54 hours, nearly a third worked 55 to 59 hours and 10 per cent worked 60 hours or over. On the other hand, half of them reported overtime. Their average weekly wage was $7.13.

Over two-thirds of the women in hotels and restaurants worked seven days a week. Their weekly hours of labor ranged from 55 hours up; 28 per cent worked over 60 hours, most of these worked 12 hours a day.

TWO ACRES FOR EVERY SCHOOL

It was T. S. Settle, state supervisor of rural schools of Virginia, speaking before the recent Rural Church Conference held under the auspices of the County Work Department of the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A., who presented some of the most interesting facts brought out at the meeting.

"In Virginia," he said, "we are not allowing a school house to be put up on a smaller area than two acres: that gives a place for play, for the athletics of the school children, for baseball for the school boys and for the whole community. It also gives ample space for picnics, for county rallies, for community play festivals, and any thing else which brings all the people of the community together."

SAFETY IN MINES

During the week of October 20, in Philadelphia, manufacturers of mining machinery, rescue and first-aid apparatus and safety appliances are to be given an opportunity to display their wares before the mining men of the country at an industrial exposition to be held under the auspices of the American Mining Congress.

A number of the big coal companies that have developed the "Safety First" movement at their mines are now negotiating for large amounts of space to show the mining men and the public what they are doing. The United States Bureau of Mines will be represented by one of its safety cars and a picked crew of helmet men.

OCTOBER CONFERENCES

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania Conference of. Philadelphia, Pa., October 14-16, 1913. Sec'y, James S. Heberling, Redington, Pa.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Twenty-Second Minnesota State Conference of. Minneapolis, Minn., October 25-28, 1913. Sec'y, Miss Caroline M. Crosby, Minneapolis, Minn.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Northampton, Mass., October 21-23, 1913. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITION, Peoria, Ill. October, 1913. Director, Mary B. Swain, 31 Union Square, New York City.

FARM WOMEN, International Congress of. Tulsa, Okla., October 22-November 1, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. John T. Burns, Tulsa, Okla.

FIRE PREVENTION CONFERENCE, National. Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 13-18, 1913. Chairman Fire Prevention Commission, Powell Evans, Philadelphia, Pa.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Seventh annual convention. Grand Rapids, Mich., October 19-25, 1913. Sec'y, A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. Indianapolis, Ind., Oct., 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

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